FRONTISPIECE.

BRITANNIA SEATED ON AN EMINENCE, WITH A LION AT HER FEET.

Neptune introduces Captain Cook, whom she instantly crowns with Laurel. Behind Britannia History waits to record the New Discoveries.

A NEW

HISTORICAL AND COMMERCIAL

SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY:

CONTAINING

A COMPREHENSIVE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION

OF THE PRESENT STATE OF

ALL THE KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD:

INCLUDING

THE MOST RECENT DISCOVERIES

OF THE

LATEST VOYAGERS AND TRAVELLERS.

THE WHOLE FORMING

A COMPLETE GUIDE TO GEOGRAPHY,

ASTRONOMY, THE USE OF THE GLOBES, MAPS, &c.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

A NEW AND COPIOUS GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX,

WITH THE NAMES AND PLACES ALPHABETICALLY ARRANGED;

AND

A GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF ALL THE SOVEREIGNS

OF THE WORLD.

THE WHOLE COMPILED FROM THE BEST AUTHORITIES,

AND EMBELLISHED WITH MAPS, AND SUPERB ENGRAVINGS.

Manchester:

PRINTED BY SOWLER AND RUSSELL, 125, DEANSGATE.

1800.

CUP.501.m.9.

BRITISH MUSEUM 15 74 MAR

AN

USEFUL GUIDE

TO

GEOGRAPHY AND ASTRONOMY.

PART I.

THE ſcience of GEOGRAPHY conſiſts in an accurate deſcription of the earth, its ſurface, magnitude, and the poſitions of ſeveral parts of the ſurface of the terraqueous globe. This uſeful branch of knowlege, like all others of a practical nature, has advanced towards perfection by ſlow, and, in ſome periods, by almoſt imperceptible degrees; it cannot, however, be completely acquired without conſidering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a conſiderable diſtance from it. The other noble ſcience, which treats of the planets and the reſt of the heavenly bodies, is properly called ASTRONOMY, with an account of which, and of thoſe celeſtial bodies, we have thought it neceſſary to begin this part of our work. The moſt conſpicuous of theſe bodies is that glorious luminary the ſun, the ſource of light and heat to the ſeveral planets which move round it; and which, together with the ſun, as the centre, compoſe what is called by aſtronomers the ſolar ſyſtem. The way, or path, in which the planets move round the ſun, is called their orbit. There are ſix primary planets, each of which moves round the ſun in its own orbit; theſe are, Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The two firſt, as they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the ſun) are called inferior planets, or, perhaps with greater propriety, interior or inner planets: the three laſt, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called ſuperior, or, perhaps more properly, exterior or outer planets. The earth moves round the ſun in the ſame manner as theſe primary planets do. We ſhall now conſider the figure and motion of the earth.

In the infancy of the world, the figure of the earth was unknown: it was generally ſuppoſed to be a plane, circular ſurface, terminated by the heavens; that this plane was of no remarkable thickneſs; and that the regions below it were the habitations of ſpirits. The heavens, above our earth, in which the ſun, moon, and ſtars appeared to move daily from eaſt to weſt, were conceived to be at no great diſtance from it; and to be only deſigned for its uſe and ornament; but ſeveral reaſons, which it is needleſs to mention, concurred to render this opinion improbable. The figure of the earth is ſufficiently aſcertained, from the voyages of many navigators who have actually ſailed round it; particularly, Ferdinand Magellan, who by his circumnavigation begun in 1519, and completed in 1124 days, demonſtrated at once the ſphericity of the globe, and the exiſtence of the antipodes, which had been ſo ſtrenuouſly denied by the ignorant tongue of ſuperſtitious bigotry.

After thoroughly eſtabliſhing the roundneſs of the earth, a way was naturally opened for the diſcovery of its motion: for while mankind conſidered it as a plane, they had but an obſcure idea of its being ſupported, like a ſcaffolding on pillars, though they could not tell by what theſe latter were ſupported. This will evidently appear on conſidering that, if the earth did not move round the ſun, not only that luminary, but all the ſtars and planets, muſt move round the earth. Philoſophers have, by calculations founded on the moſt accurate obſervations, been able pretty nearly to diſcover the diſtances of the heavenly bodies from the earth, and from each other, in like manner as every perſon that knows the firſt elements of mathematics can meaſure the height of a ſteeple, or any object placed on it; hence it appears, that if we conceive the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, their velocity and motion muſt be inconceivably great, whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the ſun in the ſpace of a year, which cauſes the viciſſitudes of the ſeaſons, and to turn on its own axis once in the 24 hours, which occaſions the different appearances of day and night.

In order to have a right conception of theſe two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table or bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green or table, not by ſliding along like a plane upon wood, or a ſlate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre or middle of the ball, and ending on its ſurface on two points called the poles. Now the motion of the earth round its axis is from weſt to eaſt, and conſequently the heavenly bodies appear to move from eaſt to weſt; and as the former is performed in 24 hours, ſo the latter appears to be completed in the ſame time; and all the celeſtial objects ſeem to deſcribe circles in the heavens, which are greater or leſs, according as they are nearer to or further from the centre of thoſe motions, that is, from the two poles of the world: and as they all appear to finiſh their revolutions in the ſame time, their motions will be ſlower in proportion to the ſmallneſs of the circle they deſcribe.

It may be neceſſary to obſerve, before we exhibit a table of the planets, that, beſides the ſix above-named, there are others which are called ſecondary, becauſe they move round the primary planets. The ſecondary planets are ten in number, and go under the general name of moons, from their agreeing with our moons: of theſe, one moves round the earth, four round Jupiter, and five round Saturn. Theſe ſecondary planets ſuffer four kinds of eclipſes; 1. When they are within the ſhadows of their principal. 2. When the primary planet is between them and us. 3. When they are between their primary one and us; for then it is difficult to diſtinguiſh of two luminous points one from the other. 4. When they interpoſe between one another and our eye, ſo as to hide themſelves from our ſight.

In

In the ſolar ſyſtem are obſerved two principal laws, which regulate the motions of all the planets. Theſe laws are the following:

1. "The planets deſcribe equal areas in equal times." That is, the vector radius, in equal portions of time, deſcribes equal areas or portions of the ſpace contained within the planet's orbit.

2. "The ſquares of the periodical times of the planets are as their mean diſtances from the ſun." That is, as the ſquare of the time which any planet takes to deſcribe its orbit, is to the ſquare of the time taken by any other planet to run through its orbit; ſo is the cube of the mean diſtance of the former from the ſun, to the cube of the mean diſtance of the latter from the ſun.

Theſe are the two famous laws of Kepler, a great aſtronomer, who flouriſhed about the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, and who deduced them from a multitude of obſervations; but the firſt who demonſtrated theſe laws, was the incomparable Sir Iſaac Newton.

By the ſecond law, the relative diſtances of the planets from the ſun are known; and was the real diſtance of any one of them determined, the abſolute diſtances of all the others would be obtained. By the tranſit of Venus over the ſun in 1761, we now know the real diſtances of the planets from the ſun much better than before: theſe, together with other neceſſary particulars for forming a competent idea of the ſolar ſyſtem, are exhibited in the following table:

A TABLE of the Diameters, Diſtances, Periods, &c. of the Planets in the Solar Syſtem.

Names of the Planets.	Diameters in Engliſh Miles.	Mean Diſtances from the Sun, determined by the Tranſit of Venus, 1761.	Annual Periods round the Sun.	Diurnal Rotation on its Axis.	Hourly Motion in its Orbit.	Hourly Motion of its Equator.	Inclination of Axis to Orbit.
			y. d. h.	d. h. m.			deg. min.
Sun - - - -	890,000			25 6 0		3,818	8 0
Mercury - -	3,000	36,841,468	0 87 23	unknown	109,699	unknown	unknown
Venus - - -	9,330	68,891,486	0 224 17	24 8 0	89,295	43	75 0
Earth - - -	7,970	95,173,000	1 0 0	01 0 0	68,247	1,042	23 29
Moon - - -	2,180	Ditto	1 0 0	29 12 44	22,290	9½	2 10
Mars - - -	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	0 24 40	55,287	556	0 0
Jupiter - -	94,000	494,990,976	11 324 18	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0 0
Saturn - - -	78,000	907,956,130	22 167 6	unknown	22,101	unknown	unknown

The fixed ſtars, though they do not conſtitute a part of the ſolar ſyſtem, muſt be mentioned here, as they are of infinite uſe in the practice of geography. They are readily known from the planets, by their continually exhibiting that appearance we call the twinkling of the ſtars. They are obſerved never to change their ſituations with reſpect to each other, and hence they obtained the name of fixed ſtars; they ſhine by their own light; and there is the greateſt reaſon to think they are ſuns fixed in the centres of other ſyſtems, having planets and comets revolving round them like our ſun. They appear of various ſizes, owing to their different diſtances. Theſe ſizes are generally diſtinguiſhed into ſix or ſeven claſſes, called magnitudes, the largeſt and brighteſt are ſaid to be of the firſt magnitude; thoſe of the next claſs, or degree of brightneſs, are called ſtars of the ſecond magnitude, and ſo on to the laſt, or thoſe juſt viſible to the naked eye. But, beſides theſe, there are ſcattered in every part of the heavens, a prodigious number of others, called teleſcopic ſtars, from their being inviſible without the aſſiſtance of that inſtrument. Great part of the modern aſtronomy, indeed, owes both its riſe and perfection to that admirable machine. The diſtance between the earth and the neareſt fixed ſtar is aſtoniſhing; the orbit of the earth is at leaſt 162 millions of miles in diameter, yet this prodigious difference has no effect on the diſtance of the ſtar, which appears as far from the earth when in the neareſt as in the furtheſt point of its orbit. It has been computed, by ſome of the moſt able aſtronomers, that if a cannon ball continued to move with the ſame velocity as when firſt diſcharged from the piece, it would not reach the neareſt fixed ſtar in leſs than 700,000 years; the diſtance therefore is too great for the power of the human underſtanding to conceive: it is bewildered and loſt in the computation. Mr. Huygens takes Syrius, or the Dog-ſtar, to be about 27,000 times as far from us as the ſun is; and as the diſtance of the ſtars muſt be greater in proportion as they ſeem leſs, mathematicians have computed the diſtance of Syrius from us to be two billions and 200,000 millions of miles. The motion of light therefore, which, though ſo quick as to be commonly thought inſtantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the ſtars to us, than we do in making a Weſt-India voyage. A ſound will not ariſe to us from thence in 50,000 years; which, next to light, is conſidered as the quickeſt body we are acquainted with; and the cannon-ball above-mentioned, flying at the rate of 480 miles in an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years. Such indeed is the immenſe ſize of theſe heavenly bodies, and ſuch their diſtance from us, that could we advance, towards them 99 parts in 100 of the whole diſtance, and that there were but one hundredth part of the preſent diſtance remaining, they would appear very little larger to us than they do now; and if all the ſtars were to be extinct or annihilated this next night, we ſhould not miſs them till about ſix months after! for that ſtream of light flowing from them to our eyes, ſhould the fountain be ſtopped, would be half a year before it would be run quite out, though it run after the rate of about ten millions of miles in a minute; a motion almoſt as quick as thought itſelf.

The ſtars ſhine with their own native and unborrowed luſtre, as the ſun does; and ſince each particular ſtar, as well as the ſun, is confined to a particular portion of ſpace, the ſtars muſt conſequently be of the ſame nature with the ſun; and it is not in the leaſt probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wiſdom, and does nothing in vain, ſhould create ſo many glorious ſuns, adapted to ſo many important purpoſes, and places them at ſuch diſtances from one another, without proper objects near enough to benefited by their influences: whoever imagines that they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, muſt have a very ſuperficial knowledge of aſtronomy, and a degrading opinion of the Divine Wiſdom, whoſe works are, on the other hand, calculated to give us the moſt exalted ideas of the power and goodneſs of God! The milky way is crowded with infinite numbers of ſmall ſtars, from whence, as is uſually thought, its whiteneſs appears; which is a diſcovery entirely owing to the teleſcope; but whether the whiteneſs proceeds from the ſmallneſs of theſe numberleſs ſtars, their nearneſs to one another, or their immenſe diſtances, we cannot yet certainly determine,

determine, but muſt leave to time and future obſervations.

A ſenſible and diſcerning perſon, from what he already knows of our own ſyſtem, will naturally be led to conclude, that all the reſt are with equal wiſdom contrived, diſpoſed, and provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants: for although there is an almoſt infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, yet there is a general analogy running through, and connecting all the parts into one ſcheme, one deſign, one whole! What an auguſt, what an elevated idea does the above ſpecimen give us of the works of the Creator! Thouſands of thouſands of ſuns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immenſe diſtances from each other, attended by ten thouſand times ten thouſand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths preſcribed them; and theſe worlds peopled with millions of intelligent beings formed for endleſs progreſſion in perfection and felicity!—If ſo much power, wiſdom, goodneſs, and magnificence is diſplayed in the material creation, which is the leaſt conſiderable part of the univerſe, how tranſcendently wiſe, great, and good muſt HE be, who made, upholds, and governs the whole! and how far are we yet from knowing the bounds of the ſtarry world, or the thouſandth part of his works!

The ſhepherds who attended their flocks in the delightful plains of Egypt and Babylon, were the firſt people who paid a particular attention to the fixed ſtars; they were induced to obſerve the ſituation of theſe celeſtial bodies, partly for the ſake of amuſement, and partly with a view to direct them in their travelling during the night. Being poſſeſſed of a fertile imagination, they divided the ſtars into different companies or conſtellations, and ſuppoſed each of them to repreſent the image of ſome animal, or other terreſtrial object. The ſame thing is done by the peaſants in our own country, who diſtinguiſh that great northern conſtellation, which the philoſophers call Urſa Major, by the name of Charles's Wain, and fancy four of the ſtars contained in it to be the four wheels of the waggon, and the other three they ſuppoſe to repreſent the three horſes that draw it; ſome of the country people alſo gave this conſtellation the name of the Plough, the figure of which it in ſome meaſure reſembles. The conſtellations, however, have in general retained the names given them by the ancients, and are reckoned 21 northern, and 12 ſouthern; but the number of the northern have by the moderns been increaſed to 34, and of the ſouthern to 31. There are, beſides theſe, 12 ſigns or conſtellations in the Zodiac, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter.

The moſt famous ſyſtems, or hypotheſis, are the Ptolemaic, the Tychonic or Brahean, and the Pythagorean or Copernican ſyſtem.

The Ptolemaic ſyſtem was ſo called from its inventor Claudius Ptolemæus, a celebrated aſtronomer of Peluſium, in Egypt, and ſuppoſes the earth immovably fixed in the centre of the univerſe; and that the moon, the planets, and the ſtars, all move round it from eaſt to weſt, once in twenty-four hours, in the following order: the Moon, Mercury, Venus, the Sun, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the fixed ſtars. Theſe were all ſuppoſed to be fixed in ſeparate cryſtalline ſpheres, and to be included in another, called the primum mobile, which gives motion to all the reſt.

This ſyſtem owed its origin to the ſenſible appearances of the celeſtial motions. It was taken for granted, that the motions which thoſe bodies appeared to poſſeſs, were real; and not dreaming of any motion in the earth, nor being acquainted with the diſtinctions between abſolute, relative, or apparent motion, the philoſophers were incapable of forming adequate ideas of theſe particulars, and thence reduced to the neceſſity of being miſ-led by their own ſenſes, for want of that aſſiſtance which after-ages produced. It is eaſy to obſerve, they had no notion of any other ſyſtem but our own, nor of any other world but the earth on which we live. They were perſuaded that all things were made for the uſe of man; that all the ſtars were contained in one concave ſphere, and, conſequently, at an equal diſtance from the earth; and that the primum mobile was circumſcribed by the empyrean heaven, of a cubic form, which they ſuppoſed to be the bliſsful abode of departed ſpirits. But modern obſervations and diſcoveries have ſufficiently ſhewn the abſurdity of this ſyſtem, ſo that it is now abandoned by all the learned, and hardly ever mentioned but to be exploded. Even in the infancy of aſtronomy, it was found inſufficient to account for all the motions of the heavenly bodies, without having recourſe to ſuch abſurd ſuppoſitions, that a novice in literature would be aſhamed to propoſe.

Tycho Brahe, a nobleman of Denmark, and one of the moſt eminent aſtronomers of his time, propoſed another ſyſtem to account for the motion of the heavenly bodies. This was called the Brahean ſyſtem. Unwilling to admit of the motion of the earth, and convinced that the Ptolemaic hypotheſis could not be true, he contrived another, different from any thing before offered to the world. In this hypotheſis, the earth is ſuppoſed to be at reſt in the centre of the univerſe, and that the ſun, together with the planets and fixed ſtars, revolved about the earth in twenty-four hours; and at the ſame time all the planets, except the moon, revolve about the ſun. But this was even more abſurd than that of Ptolemy, and accordingly was ſoon exploded.

The Pythagorean, Copernican, or true ſolar ſyſtem, which is now univerſally adopted by all the learned in Europe, ſuppoſes the ſun to be at reſt in the centre of the ſyſtem, and that all the planets move round him in the following order: Mercury, Venus, the Earth, attended by her ſecondary, the Moon; Mars, Jupiter, Saturn. Theſe, together with the comets, form the conſtituent parts of the ſolar ſyſtem.

About the year 1610, Galileo, a Florentine, introduced the uſe of teleſcopes, which diſcovered new arguments in ſupport of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate aſtronomy, and adopted this hypotheſis, and it would probably ſoon have been univerſally received, had it not met with a formidable oppoſition from an ignorant and bigotted clergy. Nurſed in the lap of indolence, and inveterate enemies to every ſpecies of free and impartial inquiry, they condemned the Copernican ſyſtem under pretence of its being repugnant to the ſacred writings, and Galileo was forced to renounce the Copernican ſyſtem as a damnable hereſy. The thunder of the Vatican was employed to ſilence the voice of reaſon, and the dread of eccleſiaſtical cenſures almoſt deterred mankind from thinking. At laſt the happy reformation in religion gave a fatal blow to ſuperſtitious tyranny; the rays of learning broke through the night of ignorance, and genuine philoſophy triumphed over the chicanery of the ſchools: mankind were now convinced, that the ſcriptures were never intended to explain the ſyſtems of philoſophy, but to make us humane, virtuous, and happy; that it is agreeable to the Great Author of our being to contemplate his works, and diſplay the wonders of his creating hand. From this fortunate æra the ſciences made rapid ſtrides towards perfection, and every day produced a diſcovery of ſome new truth, or the detection of ſome ancient error. Proofs were multiplied in confirmation of the Copernican ſyſtem, which is now eſtabliſhed on a foundation not to be ſhaken. The aſtoniſhing harmony which prevails among the ſeveral parts prove it to have been the work of a

divine hand; and that nothing leſs than Infinite Wiſdom could have planned ſo beautiful a fabric.

After the blind prejudices of weak mortals were once removed, noble diſcourſes were made in all the branches of aſtronomy. The motions of the heavenly bodies were not only clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was diſcovered and illuſtrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called Gravity or Attraction, and is the ſame by which any body falls to the ground, when diſengaged from what ſupported it. This ſame law, which keeps the ſea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the ſurface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the univerſe, keeps the planets in their orbits, and preſerves the whole fabric of nature from diſorder and confuſion. To be ſomewhat more explicit concerning this point: by the law of Gravity, or Gravitation, all heavy bodies have a tendency towards the centre of our earth, in ſuch an over-proportion, that the centripetal force, by which bodies tend thither, is almoſt 300 times greater than that by which they are forced off by the earth's motion round its axis, or the centrifugal force, as they call it; and this all-wiſe proviſion keeps all things together on the ſurface of the earth; and which, when exactly adjuſted, keeps alſo every planet in its proper circle, and at its due diſtance from the ſun, or from its primary one; and this is ſo univerſal a law, that it prevails univerſally.

There have been perceived, in the expanſe of the univerſe, many other bodies, belonging to the ſyſtem of the ſun, that ſeem to have much more irregular motions than the planets and ſtars above mentioned. Theſe are the comets, that, deſcending from the far diſtant parts of the ſyſtem with great rapidity, ſurpriſe us with the ſingular appearance of a train, or tail, which accompanies them; become viſible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and after a ſhort ſtay, go off to vaſt diſtances, and diſappear. The ancients generally believed comets to be only meteors generated in the air, like thoſe we ſee in it every night; and in a few moments vaniſhing; while ſome modern writers have placed them among the fixed ſtars. But ſubſequent obſervations, with good inſtruments, and the application of the laws of Motion and Geometry to aſtronomical inquiries, have now ſatisfied us almoſt to a demonſtration, that they are a kind of planets, of ſolid and compact bodies, revolving in determinate periods round the ſun: but the orbits of many of them are ſo very oblong, eccentrical, or oval, as well as large and extended, that they can appear to us but very ſeldom.

That great comet, which appeared in 1680, went ſo near the ſun, as to acquire a degree of heat above 2000 times as great as that of red-hot iron; and if its body was about the ſize of our earth, as it was judged to be, it will not be cooled again this million of years. This comet was ſeen before in our hemiſphere, A. D. 1106; once before, about the year 532; and alſo 44 years before our Saviour's birth; and therefore they conclude the time of its periodical revolution round the ſun to be 575 years. The time of the revolution of that comet, which appeared again in 1758, is 75 years; and another, which was calculated to be ſeen here again in 1789, makes its ellipſis round the ſun in 129 years.

The middle diſtance of the great comet that appeared in 1680, was more than 5000 millions of miles from the ſun; as its greateſt diſtance was above twice as much; and yet its leaſt diſtance was not above a 20,000th part of its greateſt; ſo that in its whole revolution it would be ſubject to ſuch extremities, as that its greateſt degree of light and heat to its leaſt, were above 400 millions to one: and yet notwithſtanding this immenſe extenſion of its ecliptic orbit, the great and all-wiſe Architect of the univerſe hath probably ſo adjuſted the centrifugal and centripetal forces, that it doth not quite leave the ſun, though it go ſo far from him, but returns again towards him, and revolves round him in a determinate period of years. None of the orbits of any of theſe comets yet known, are in or near the plane of the earth's ecliptic; and therefore, in their aſcent from the ſun, though heated never ſo much by him, yet it is thought they will not approach near enough to our earth to burn us, or affect us with any ſenſible heat. It ought, however, to be obſerved, that our earth was out of the way when this comet laſt paſt near her orbit; but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always paſs by us with ſo little effect; for it may be here obſerved, that the comet, in one part of its orbit, comes very near to the orbit of our earth; ſo that, in ſome revolutions, it may, approach near enough to have very conſiderable, if not fatal effects upon it.

There are, it is believed, at leaſt 21 comets belonging to our ſyſtem, moving in all manner of directions; and all thoſe which have been obſerved, have moved through the ethereal regions, and the orbits of the planets, without ſuffering the leaſt ſenſible reſiſtance in their motions, which ſufficiently proves that the planets do not move in ſolid orbs.

Of the Doctrine of the Sphere and the Globe.

The ancients were perſuaded that the earth was ſpherical, but were not able to aſcertain its dimenſions; the ſolution of that problem was reſerved for the moderns, who at length, after various reſearches, obtained ſatisfactory proofs that the earth was of a ſpherical figure: they obſerved, that the firſt part that appeared of a ſhip at ſea, was the top of the maſt; and, as ſhe approached gradually, ſhe ſeemed to riſe by degrees out of the water, till the whole ſhip was viſible; the ſame appearances, but in an inverted order, attended a ſhip ſailing from the ſpectator, ſhe ſeemed to ſink gradually beneath the ſurface of the ſea, till at laſt ſhe totally diſappeared. It being evident that this could reſult from nothing but the ſpherical form of the earth, and as theſe phænomena required no apparatus, they ſufficiently eſtabliſhed its globular figure.

The body of the earth is named a ſphere, with regard to aſtronomical ſpeculations; through the centre of this a ſtraight line is ſuppoſed to be drawn, from one oppoſite point of the ſurface to the other, which line is called a diameter. There are two points in the heavens, which always preſerve the ſame ſituation; theſe points are termed celeſtial poles, becauſe the heavens ſeem to turn round them. The motions of the heavens are imitated by the Artificial Sphere, through the centre of which a wire or iron rod is drawn, called an axis, whoſe extremities are fixed to the immoveable points called poles. But in order to render the following definitions more eaſy to be conceived, it may be proper to remark, that both the celeſtial and terreſtrial ſphere is ſuppoſed to be concentric to the centre of the earth, and to have correſpondent circles deſcribed on both ſpheres, and theſe circles are either greater or leſſer.

Great circles are thoſe which divide either the celeſtial or terreſtrial ſphere into two parts. Leſſer circles divide the ſphere into two unequal parts.

The poles of any circle are thoſe points on the ſurface of the ſphere equally diſtant from that circle. Every circle, whether great or ſmall, has two poles, or centres, and from which all others drawn to the circumference are equal.

The axis of any circle is a right line ſuppoſed to connect the poles.

The celeſtial axis is that right line about which the heavens ſeem to revolve; and the two points where this axis cuts the celeſtial ſphere, are called the north and ſouth poles of the world.

The Equinoctial, Equator, or Equaller, is that great circle of the ſphere, which is every where equally diſtant from the poles of the world; and, conſequently, divides the heavens into two equal parts. It is ſo called, becauſe when the ſun appears to deſcribe this circle, the days and nights are of an equal length to all the inhabitants of the earth. It is divided into 360 degrees.

The meridian, hour circles, circles of right aſcenſion, or circles of terreſtrial longitude, are thoſe great circles which interſect each other in the poles of the world, and cut the Equinoctial at right angles.

The ecliptic is a great circle of the ſphere interſecting the equinoctial in two oppoſite parts, and forming an angle with it equal to 23 degrees 29 minutes, the ſun's greateſt declination. It is generally divided into twelve equal parts called ſigns, beginning from one of its interſections with the equinoctial. It paſſes through certain conſtellations, diſtinguiſhed by the names of animals, in a zone called the Zodiac, of which more hereafter.

The *Doctrine of the Globe* is deſigned to repreſent the different regions, countries, nations, iſlands, and cities, on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball, called the Terreſtrial Globe, on which they are deſcribed in that order and figure that they really appear in on the face of the earth itſelf. With reſpect to the figure of the earth, though we have conſidered it as a ſpherical or globular body, yet it has been diſcovered that this is not its true figure, which Sir Iſaac Newton undertook to determine, and, according to his calculations, the diameter at the poles, or axis of the earth, and the diameter of the equator, are to each other as 229 to 230; by which it appears that the figure of the earth is nearly that of a ſphere or ball, though not perfectly ſo.

But as all concluſions reſulting from queſtions of the moſt abſtruſe kind, will ever leave ſome doubt on the mind, whether every neceſſary circumſtance has been taken into the account, and as this matter had occaſioned much diſpute between the philoſophers of the laſt age, particularly between Sir Iſaac Newton and Caſſini, a French aſtronomer, who were the heads of two different parties; it was determined to refer the deciſion to actual menſuration; it being ſufficiently known, that if the earth was a true ſphere, all the degrees of the meridian muſt be equal; but every one of them of different lengths, if the figure was that of a ſpheroid. It was alſo known, that if the length of the degrees increaſed from the equator towards the poles, the figure was that of an oblate ſpheroid; but if they increaſed from the pole towards the equator, the figure was a prolate ſpheroid, or ſomething in the form of a lemon. Conſequently if the length of a degree at the equator, and the length of another near the arctic circle could be accurately meaſured, both the form and dimenſions of the earth might be determined to a degree of accuracy ſufficient to anſwer all the purpoſes of navigation and geography. In 1736, the matter was put to trial by the king of France, who, deſirous of having this intereſting problem ſolved, ſent one company of mathematicians into Lapland, and another into Peru, in order to meaſure the length of a degree of the meridian in theſe diſtant places. The former finiſhed their taſk the ſame year, and found that the length of a degree of the meridian where it cuts the arctic circle, contained $57437\frac{6}{10}$, or 57438 toiſes nearly. The latter, who went to Peru, alſo finiſhed their operations in 1736, and found that the length of a degree at the equator, was $56767\ \frac{4}{5}$, or almoſt 56768 toiſes. Theſe menſurations not only confirmed the theory of Sir Iſaac Newton, but alſo demonſtrated, that he had determined the figure of the earth to a great degree of exactneſs; the two diameters being to each other nearly as 265 to $266\frac{1}{2}$; and ſince that time the earth has always been conſidered as more flat towards the poles than towards the equator.

The *circumference of the earth* is computed at 25,038 Engliſh miles. This ſpace, for the conveniency of meaſuring, is ſubdivided into 360 parts or degrees, each containing 60 geographical miles, or $69\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh miles.

The *horizon* is repreſented by the upper ſurface of the wooden circular frame encompaſſing the globe about its middle. On this wooden frame is a kind of perpetual calendar, contained in ſeveral concentric circles: the inner one is divided into four quarters of 90 degrees each; the next circle is divided into the twelve months, with the days in each according to the new ſtyle; the next contains the twelve equal ſigns of the Zodiac, each being divided into 30 degrees; the next is the twelve months and days according to the old ſtyle; and there is another circle containing the 32 winds, with their halves and quarters. Although theſe circles are all on the horizon, yet they are not always placed in the ſame diſpoſition. Geographers diſtinguiſh the horizon into the *rational* and *ſenſible*. The ſenſible horizon may be conceived to be made by any great plain on the ſurface of the ſea, which ſeems to divide the concave orb of the ſtars, or the ſky into two parts or hemiſpheres, the one above, the other below the level of the earth. The rational or real horizon, encompaſſes the globe, exactly in the middle; its poles are called the Zenith and Nadir; the firſt exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet.

The *meridian* is a great circle, conſiſting of 360 degrees, which divides the globe into the eaſt and weſt hemiſpheres; it lies directly north and ſouth, paſſing through the poles of the equator, which it cuts at right angles: it is a changeable circle, being properly that part of the heavens, where the ſun is at noon; ſo that every place on the earth has a different meridian, if we move eaſt and weſt; but it remains the ſame, when we paſs north or ſouth.

The *Zodiac*, which is a broad circle cutting the equator obliquely, is deſigned to ſhew us what we called the ſun's place for every day in the year; and therefore, is divided into 12 parts, which are diſtinguiſhed by 12 eminent ſigns or conſtellations; and which, becauſe they are intended to ſign or mark out a particular place in the heavens where the ſun is, or appears to be, every month, have been called the Twelve Signs of the Zodiac: each of theſe ſigns is divided into 30 equal parts or degrees, which makes up the whole 360: they are as follow:

Aries, Taurus, Gemini, Cancer, Leo, Virgo, Libra, Scorpio, Sagittarius, Capricornus, Aquarius, Piſces.

The *Colures* are two great circles which are ſuppoſed to interſect each other at right angles in the poles of the world, and to paſs through the ſolſtitial and equinoctial points of the ecliptic. That which paſſes through the two equinoctial points, is called the equinoctial colure, and determines the equinoxes; and the other which paſſes through the poles of the ecliptic, is called the ſolſtitial colure, becauſe it determines the ſolſtices.

The *Tropics* are two circles, ſuppoſed to be drawn on each ſide of the equinoctial, and parallel thereto. —That on the north ſide of the line is called the Tropic of Cancer, and the ſouthern tropic has the name of Capricorn, as paſſing through the beginning of thoſe ſigns. They are diſtant from the equinoctial 23° 29′, and are called tropics, becauſe the ſun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from his former courſe.

The *Polar Circles* are parallel to the equator, and at the ſame diſtance from the poles that the tropics are from the equator. The northern is called the Arctic, and the ſouthern the Antarctic, becauſe oppoſite to the former, from which it is diſtant only 23° 30′.

The ſurface of the earth is ſuppoſed to be divided into five unequal parts called *Zones*, each of which

is

is terminated by two parallels of latitude. Of theſe five zones, one is called the torrid or burning zone; two are ſtyled frigid or frozen; and two temperate: names adapted to the quality of the heat and cold to which their ſituations are liable.

The *Torrid Zone* is that portion of the earth over every part of which the ſun is perpendicular at ſome time of the year. The breadth of this zone is forty-ſeven degrees; extending from twenty-three degrees and a half north latitude, to twenty-three degrees and a half ſouth. The equator paſſes through the middle of this zone, which is terminated on the north by the parallel of latitude called the tropic of Cancer, and on the ſouth by the parallel called the tropic of Capricorn. The ancients conſidered this zone as uninhabitable, on account of the heat, which they thought too great to be ſupported by any human being, or even by the vegetable creation; but experience has long ſince refuted this notion. Many parts of the torrid zone are remarkably populous; and it has been found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail in almoſt every part of the torrid zone, render the earth not only inhabitable, but alſo ſo fruitful, that two harveſts a year are very common.

The *Frigid Zones* are theſe regions round the pole where the ſun does not riſe for ſome days in the winter, nor ſet for ſome days in the ſummer. The two poles are the centres of theſe zones, which extend from theſe points to twenty-three degrees and a half nearly; that is, they are bounded by the northern and ſouthern parallels of latitude of ſixty-ſix degrees and a half. The part that lies in the northern hemiſphere is called the north frigid zone, and is bounded by a parallel called the arctic, or polar circle; and that in the ſouthern hemiſphere, the ſouth frigid zone, and the parallel of latitude which bounds it, is called the antarctic, or polar circle.

The two *Temperate Zones* are the ſpaces contained between the tropics and polar circles. The greater part of Europe is ſituated in the northern temperate zone; the Cape of Good Hope in Africa, and Cape Horn in America, lie in the ſouthern.

The Europeans have not yet thoroughly diſcovered all theſe zones: they are beſt acquainted with the northern temperate, and torrid zones: their knowledge of the ſouthern temperate and northern frigid zone is very ſcanty; and that of the ſouthern frigid zone, ſtill more ſo.

The term *Climate* is vulgarly beſtowed on any country or region differing from one another, either in reſpect of the ſeaſons, the quality of the ſoil, or even the manners of the inhabitants, without any regard to the length of the longeſt day. But, in a geographical ſenſe, the word *climate* more properly implies a certain ſpace upon the ſurface of the terreſtrial globe, cantained between two parallels, and ſo far diſtant from each other, that the longeſt day in one differs half an hour from the longeſt day in the other parallel. The difference of climates ariſes from the different inclination or obliquity of the ſphere: the ancients took the parallel wherein the length of the longeſt day is twelve hours and three quarters for the beginning of the firſt climate: as to thoſe parts that are nearer to the equator than that parallel, they were not accounted to be in any climate, either becauſe they may, in a looſe and general ſenſe, be conſidered as being in a right ſphere, though, ſtrictly ſpeaking, only the parts under the equator are ſo; or becauſe they were thought to be uninhabited by reaſon of the heat, and were beſides unknown. The ancients, conſidering the diverſity there is in the riſing and ſetting of the heavenly bodies, eſpecially the ſun, and, in conſequence thereof, the difference in the length of the days and nights in different places, divided as much of the earth as was known to them into climates; and, inſtead of the method now in uſe, of ſetting down the latitude of places in degrees, they contented themſelves with ſaying in what climate the place under conſideration was ſituated. According to them, therefore, what they judged the habitable part of the northern hemiſphere was divided into ſeven climates, to which the like number of ſouthern ones correſponded.

Some of the moderns reckon the different climates by the increaſe of half an hour in the length of the longeſt day, beginning at the equator, and going on till they come to the polar circle towards the pole; they then count the climates by the increaſe of a whole natural day, in the length of the longeſt day, till they come to a parallel, under which the day is of the length of fifteen natural days, or half a month; from this parallel they proceed to reckon the climates by the increaſe of half or whole months, in the artificial day, till they come to the pole itſelf, under which the length of the day is ſix months. Thoſe between the equator and the polar circles, are called hour-climates; and thoſe between the polar circles and the poles, month climates.

A parallel is ſaid to paſs through the middle of a climate, when the longeſt day in that parallel differs a quarter of an hour from the longeſt day in either of the extreme parallels that bound the climate: this parallel does not divide the climate into two equal parts, but the part neareſt to the equator is larger than the other, becauſe the further we go from the equator, the leſs increaſe of latitude will be ſufficient to increaſe the length of the longeſt day a quarter of an hour.

A TABLE of CLIMATES, according to RICCIOLUS, wherein the Effects of the Fraction are allowed for.

Climate	Parallel	Latitude	Longeſt Day.	Climate	Parallel	Latitude	Longeſt Day.	Climate	Parallel	Latitude	N. Lat. Continual D.	N. Lat. Continual N.	S. Lat. Continual D.	S. Lat. Continual N.
	1	2° 59′	19h 45′		15	46° 31′	15h 45′		29	66° 2′	15	12	14	13
I.	2 m	7 18	12 30	VIII.	16 m	48 15	16 0	XV.	30 m	66 53	31	27	30	28
	3	11 29	12 45		17	51 14	16 30		31	67 43	45	41	44	43
II	4 m	15 36	13 0	IX.	18 m	53 46	17 0	XVI.	32 m	69 30	62	58	60	59
	5	19 33	13 15		19	55 55	17 30		33	71 8	77	71	74	73
III.	6 m	23 8	13 30	X	20 m	57 44	18 0	XVII.	34 m	73 0	93	87	89	88
	7	26 50	13 45		21	59 20	18 30		35	75 56	108	101	104	103
IV.	8 m	29 49	14 0	XI.	22 m	60 39	19 0	XVIII.	36 m	78 6	124	117	120	118
	9	32 48	14 15		23	61 47	19 30		37	81 10	139	132	135	134
V.	10 m	35 35	14 30	XII.	24 m	62 4	20 0	XIX.	38 m	84 0	156	148	150	149
	11	38 9	14 45		25	64 12	21 0		39	87 40	172	160	164	161
VI.	12 m	40 32	15 0	XIII.	26 m	65 10	22 0	XX.	40 m	90 0	188	180	178	177
	13	42 41	15 15		27	65 43	23 0							
VII.	14 m	44 42	15 30	XIV.	28 m	65 54	24 0							

†

THE

THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF

NAVIGATION.

THE origin of this uſeful invention is referred, in ſcripture, to God himſelf, who gave the firſt ſpecimen thereof in the ark built by Noah: for the raillery the good man underwent on account of his enterpriſe, ſhews evidently enough, that the world was then ignorant of any thing like navigation; and that they even thought it impoſſible. However, the Phœnicians, eſpecially thoſe of Tyre, are repreſented in hiſtory as the firſt navigators. Tyre, whoſe immenſe riches and power are repreſented in ſuch lofty terms, both in ſacred and profane hiſtory, being deſtroyed by Alexander the Great, its navigation was transferred to Alexandria by the conqueror; and thus aroſe the navigation of the Egyptians, which was afterwards ſo cultivated by the Ptolemies, that Tyre and Carthage, which laſt was ſubdued by the Romans, were quite forgotten. At length Alexandria itſelf underwent the fate of Tyre and Carthage, being ſurpriſed by the Saracens, who, in ſpite of Heraclius, over-ran the northern coaſts of Africa, &c. ſo that Alexandria has ever ſince been in a declining ſtate.

Upon the fall of the Roman empire, the more brave among the Franks in Gaul, the Greeks in Spain, and Lombards in Italy, were no ſooner ſettled than they began to learn the advantage and utility of navigation and commerce, and the methods of managing them, from the people they had ſubdued; and in a little time ſome of them became able to give new inſtructions for the practice of it.

The people of Italy, and particularly thoſe of Venice and Genoa, were the firſt reſtorers of navigation and commerce in the marſhy iſlands in the bottom of the Adriatic; the Veneti, who dwelt along the coaſts of that gulf, retired, when Alaric king of the Goths, and afterwards Attila king of the Hunns, ravaged Italy.

Each of the 72 iſlands of the Adriatic continued a long time under their reſpective maſters, as diſtinct common wealths; the commerce becoming conſiderable, they began to think of uniting into a body; and it was this union, firſt begun in the ſixth century, but not completed till the eighth, that laid the foundation of the future grandeur of the Venetians.

From the time of this union the fleets of merchantmen were ſent to all the ports of the Mediterranean, and at laſt to Grand Cairo, a city built by the Saracens on the eaſtern bank of the Nile.

Thus they flouriſhed till the famous league of Cambray in 1508, when a number of jealous princes conſpired to effect their ruin; which was the more eaſily accompliſhed by the Portugueſe getting one part of the Eaſt-India commerce, and the Spaniards another.

Gonoa, which had applied to navigation at the ſame time with Venice, diſputed with it the empire of the ſea. Jealouſy ſoon began to break out, and, the two republics coming to blows, it was three centuries almoſt continued war, before the ſuperiority was aſcertained; when, towards the end of the 14th century, the fatal battle of Chioza ended the noble ſtrife. The Genoeſe, who till then had always had the advantage, had now loſt all; and the Venetians ſecured to themſelves the empire of the ſea, and ſuperiority in commerce.

About the ſame time that navigation was retrieved in the ſouthern parts of Europe, a new ſociety of merchants was formed in the north, who framed a new ſcheme of laws for the regulation of commerce, called ſtill the uſages and cuſtoms of the ſea.

In examining the reaſons of commerce paſſing ſucceſſively from the Venetians, Genoeſe, and Hanſetowns, to the Portugueſe and Spaniards; and from thoſe again to the Engliſh and Dutch; it may be eſtabliſhed as a maxim, that the relation betwixt commerce and navigation, or rather their union is ſo intimate, that the fall of the one neceſſarily draws after it that of the other.

Hence ſo many laws, &c. for its regulation; and particularly that celebrated act of navigation in England, which is the ſtanding rule, not only of the Engliſh among themſelves, but alſo of other nations with whom they traffic.

Till this act, all nations were at liberty to import into England all kinds of merchandizes, and that on their own bottoms. But Cromwell particularly paſſed an act prohibiting the Dutch from importing any merchandizes, except thoſe of their own growth, which were very few. The firſt parliament of Charles II. after the reſtoration, paſſed an act, bearing date from the firſt of December, 1660, for the encouraging and increaſing of ſhipping and navigation, which ſtill ſubſiſts in its full latitude and vigour.

Latitude, in geography, is the diſtance of any place from the equator, meaſured in degrees, minutes, and ſeconds, upon the meridian of that place, and is either north or ſouth, according as the place is ſituated either on the north or ſouth ſide of the equator. The latitude of a place is always equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon. The complement of latitude is always equal to the elevation of the equator above the horizon, or the angle intercepted between the plane of the equator and the plane of the horizon. The latitude of a place, or of a ſhip at ſea, is found by taking the meridian altitude of the ſun, or of a ſtar whoſe declination is known.

Parallels of latitude are leſſer circles of the ſphere parallel to the ecliptic, imagined to paſs through every degree and minute of the colures. They are repreſented on the globe by the diviſions on the quadrant of altitude, in its motion round the globe, when ſcrewed over the pole of the ecliptic.

The *longitude* of a place is an arch of the equator intercepted between the firſt meridian, and the meridian paſſing through the propoſed place; which is always equal to the angle at the pole, formed by the firſt meridian, and the meridian of the place. The firſt meridian may be placed at pleaſure, paſſing through any place, as London, Paris, Teneriffe, &c. but among us is generally fixed at London: and the longitude counted from it will be either eaſt or weſt, according as they lie on the eaſt or weſt ſide of that meridian. The difference of longitude, between two places upon the earth is an arch of the equator comprehended between the two meridians of theſe places; and the greateſt poſſible is 180 degrees, when the two places lie on oppoſite meridians. Since the parallels of latitude always decreaſe, the nearer they approach the pole; it is plain, a degree upon any of them muſt be leſs than a degree upon the equator, in the ratio of the co-ſine of the latitude to the radius. Hence, as the radius is to the co-ſine of any latitude; ſo are the minutes of difference of longitude between two meridians, or their difference in miles upon the equator, to the diſtance of theſe two meridians on the parallel of that latitude, in miles; and by this theorem, is the following table:

A TABLE ſhewing how many Miles anſwer to a Degree of Longitude, at every Degree of Latitude.

D. L.	Miles.		D. L.	Miles.		D. L.	Miles.		D. L.	Miles.		D. L.	Miles.		D. L.	Miles.	
1	59	99	16	57	67	31	51	43	46	41	68	61	29	9	76	14	51
2	59	97	17	57	37	32	50	88	47	40	92	62	28	17	77	13	50
3	59	92	18	57	6	33	50	32	48	40	15	63	27	24	78	12	48
4	59	86	19	56	73	34	49	74	49	39	36	64	26	30	79	11	45
5	59	77	20	56	83	35	49	15	50	38	57	65	25	36	80	10	42
6	59	67	21	56	1	36	48	54	51	37	76	66	24	41	81	9	38
7	59	56	22	55	63	37	47	92	52	36	94	67	23	44	82	8	35
8	59	42	23	55	23	38	47	28	53	36	11	68	22	48	83	7	32
9	59	26	24	54	81	39	46	62	54	35	27	69	21	50	84	6	28
10	59	8	25	54	83	40	45	95	55	34	41	70	20	52	85	5	23
11	58	89	26	53	93	41	45	28	56	33	55	71	19	54	86	4	18
12	58	68	27	53	46	42	44	59	57	32	68	72	18	55	87	3	14
13	58	46	28	52	97	43	43	88	58	31	79	73	17	54	88	2	9
14	58	22	29	52	47	44	43	16	59	30	90	74	16	53	89	1	5
15	57	95	30	50	88	45	42	43	60	30	00	75	15	52	90	0	00

In order to find the latitude and longitude of any place on the terreſtrial globe, we muſt bring the given place under that ſide of the graduated braſen meridian where the degrees begin at the equator, by turning the globe about: then the degree of the meridian over it ſhews the latitude; and the degree of the equator, under the meridian, ſhews the longitude. Thus Briſtol will be found to lie in 51 degrees 28 minutes north latitude, and two degrees 30 minutes weſt longitude, and Dublin in 51 degrees 12 minutes north latitude, and ſix degrees 55 minutes weſt longitude.

The *diſtance* of places which lie neither ſouth, eaſt, north, nor weſt of each other, but in an oblique direction, may be readily meaſured by extending the compaſſes from one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. Example: Extend the compaſſes from Guinea in Africa to Braſil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and the diſtance will be 25 degrees, or 1500 miles, allowing 60 miles to a degree.

Quadrant of altitude is an appendage of the artificial globe, conſiſting of a lamina, or ſlip of braſs, the length of a quadrant of one of the great circles of the globe, and graduated. At the end, where the diviſion terminates, is a nut riveted on, and furniſhed with a ſcrew, by means whereof the inſtrument is fixed on to the meridian, and moveable round upon the rivet, to all points of the horizon. Its uſe is, to ſerve as a ſcale in meaſuring of altitudes, amplitudes, azimuths, &c.

The hour-circle of a globe is a ſmall braſen circle, fixed upon the braſen meridian, divided into 24 hours, having an index moveable round the axis of the globe, which, upon turning the globe 15 degrees, will ſhew what places have the ſun an hour before or after us.

GEOGRAPHICAL PROBLEMS.

PROB. I. *To rectify the globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon.*] Set the globe upon an horizontal plane, with its parts, anſwering to thoſe of the world; move the meridian in its notches, by raiſing or depreſſing the pole, until the degrees of latitude cut the horizon, then is the globe rectified for the latitude. Reckon the latitude from the equator towards the elevated pole, then ſcrew the bevil edge of the nut belonging to the quadrant of altitude, and the rectification is made for the zenith: bring the ſun's place found in the third problem, to the meridian: ſet the index to the twelve at noon, or upper twelve, and the globe is rectified for the ſun's ſouthing, or noon.

PROB. II. *To find the diſtance and bearing of any two given places on the globe.*] Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both places, the beginning or 0 degree being on one of them, and the degrees between them ſhew their diſtance; theſe degrees multiplied by 60, give geographical miles, and, by 69½, give the diſtance in Engliſh miles nearly. Obſerve, while the quadrant lies in this poſition, what rhumb of the neareſt fly runs moſtly parallel to the edge of the quadrant, and that rhumb ſhews nearly the bearing required.

PROB. III. *To find the ſun's place and declination on any day*] Seek the given day in the circle of months on the horizon; and right againſt it, in the circle of ſigns, is the ſun's place; by which means it will be found, that the ſun enters Aries, March 20; Tarus, April 20; Gemini, May 21; Cancer, June 21; Leo, July 23, Virgo, Auguſt 23; Libra, September 22; Scorpio, October 23; Sagittarius, November 22; Capricorn, December 21; Acquarius, January 20; Piſces, February 18. Then ſeek the ſun's place in the ecliptic on the globe, bring that place to the meridian, and the diviſion it ſtands under is the ſun's declination on the given day.—The ecliptic is readily diſtinguiſhed from the equator on the globe, not only by the different colours wherewith they are ſtained, but alſo by the ecliptic's approaching toward's the poles, after its interſection with the equator. The marks of the ſigns are alſo placed along the ecliptic, one at the beginning of every ſucceſſive 30 degrees.

PROB. IV. *To find where the ſun is vertical at any given time.*] Bring the ſun's place, found for the given day, in the manner directed by the laſt problem, to the meridian; note the degree over it, and ſet the index to the given hour; then turn the globe till the index comes to twelve at noon, when the place under the ſaid noted degree has the ſun in the zenith at that time; and all the places that paſs under that degree, by turning the globe round, will have the ſun vertical to them on that day.

PROB. V. *To find, at any given time, all thoſe places of the earth where the ſun is then riſing or ſetting; where mid. day, or mid. night.*] Find the place where the ſun is vertical at the given time, according to the laſt problem, rectify the globe for the latitude of that place, and bring it to the meridian. Then all thoſe places that are in the weſt half of the horizon, have the ſun riſing; and thoſe in the eaſtern half have it ſetting. Thoſe under the meridian above the horizon have the ſun culminating, or noon; and thoſe under the meridian, below the horizon, have midnight. Thoſe above the horizon have day; thoſe below it, have night.

PROB. VI. *To find any place on the globe whoſe latitude and longitude are given.*] Bring the given longitude, found on the equator, to the brazen meridian,

dian, and under the given latitude found on the meridian, is the place ſought.

PROB. VII. *The latitude of any place, not within the polar circle, being given; to find the time of ſun-riſing and ſetting, and the length of the day and night.*] Rectify the globe for the latitude and the noon; bring the ſun's place to the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and the index ſhews the time of riſing. The ſun's place brought to the weſtern ſide of the horizon, the index gives the ſetting; or the time of riſing, taken from twelve hours, gives the time of ſetting. The time of ſetting being doubled, gives the length of the night. For inſtance, at London, on the 15th of April, the day is 13 hours and an half; the night ten and a half.

PROB. VIII. *To find the length of the longeſt and ſhorteſt days in any given place.*] Rectify the globe for the latitude, bring the ſolſtitial point of that hemiſphere to the eaſtern part of the horizon, ſet the index to twelve at noon: turn the globe till the ſolſtitial point comes to the weſtern ſide of the horizon; the hours paſt over by the index give the length of the longeſt day, or night; and its complement to twenty-four hours gives the length of the ſhorteſt night or day.

PROB. IX. *A place being given in the Frigid or Frozen Zone, to find the time when the ſun begins to appear at, or depart from, that place, alſo how many ſucceſſive days he is preſent to, or abſent from, that place.*] Rectify the globe for the latitude, turn the globe, and obſerve what degrees in the firſt and ſecond quadrants of the ecliptic are cut by the north point of the horizon, the latitude being ſuppoſed north. Then find thoſe degrees in the circle of ſigns on the horizon, and their correſponding days of the month, and all the time between thoſe days the ſun will not ſet in that place. Again, obſerve what degree in the third and fourth quadrants of the ecliptic will be cut by the ſouth point of the horizon, and the days anſwering. Then the ſun will be quite abſent from the given place during the intermediate days; that day in the third quadrant ſhews when the ſun begins to diſappear, and that in the fourth quadrant ſhews when he begins to ſhine in the place propoſed. Thus at the North Cape, in lat. 71. deg. N. the ſun never ſets from the 15 of May to the 28th of July, which is 74 days; and never riſes from the 16th of November to the 24th of January, which is 69 days.

PROB. X. *To find what days the ſun will be vertical at any given place in the torrid zone.*] Note the latitude of the given place on the meridian; turn the globe, and note what points of the ecliptic paſs under the latitude noted on the meridian. Seek thoſe points of the ecliptic in the circle of ſigns on the horizon, and right againſt them in the circle of months ſtand the days required. In this manner it will be found, that the ſun will be vertical to the iſland of St. Helena on the 6th of November, and on the 4th of February; and at Barbadoes on the 24th of April, and the 18th of Auguſt.

PROB. XI. *The latitude, day of the month, and ſun's altitude being given; to find the azimuth and hour of the day.*] Rectify the globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon. Turn the globe and quadrant until the ſun's place coincides with the graduated edge of the quadrant. Then will that edge of the quadrant cut in the horizon the degrees of azimuth, reckoned from the north; and the index will ſhew the hour of the day.

PROB. XII. *The day and hour being given, to find thoſe places on the globe, to which the ſun is then riſing, thoſe to which he is then ſetting, thoſe where it is noon-day, thoſe which are actually enlightened, and thoſe that are not.*] Find that place of the globe to which the ſun is vertical at the given time, bring the ſame to the braſen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of the ſaid place. The globe being fixed in this poſition, obſerve what places are in the weſtern ſemi-circle of the horizon, for there the ſun is then riſing; and thoſe places in the eaſtern ſemi-circle of the horizon have the ſun then ſetting. Thoſe places exactly under the braſen meridian have noon-day; and laſtly, all thoſe above the horizon are enlightened; but thoſe below it are deprived of the ſun at that time.

PROB. XIII. *The day of the month being given, to find the ſun's place in the ecliptic.*] Look for the day of the month in the calendar upon the wooden horizon, and over-againſt it you will find the ſign and degree of the ecliptic which the ſun is in at that time.

PROB. XIV. *The day and hour being given, to find thoſe places in the globe, to which the ſun is in the meridian at that time.*] The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the given place, bring that place to the braſen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day; then turn the globe till the index point to the uppermoſt XII, and having fixed the globe in that ſituation, all thoſe places under the upper half of the braſen meridian have the ſun in their meridian at that particular time; ſo that with them it is noon-day.

PROB. XV. *To find the diſtances between any two given places upon the globe; and to find all thoſe places that are at the ſame diſtance from any given place.*] Lay the quadrant of altitude over the two given places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them being reduced into miles will be the diſtance required. Or you may take the diſtance between the two places with a pair of compaſſes, and, applying them to the equator, you will have the degrees of diſtance as before.—If you rectify the globe for the latitude and zenith of any place, and bring the ſaid place to the meridian; then turning the quadrant of altitude about, all thoſe places that are not by the ſame point of it are at the ſame diſtance from the given place.

PROB. XVI. *To find the Antœci, Periœci, and Antipodes of any place..*] Bring the given place to the braſen meridian, and having found its latitude, reckon the ſame number of degrees on the meridian from the equator towards the contrary pole, and where the reckoning ends is the place of the Antœci. Keeping the globe in the ſame poſition, ſet the hour index to twelve at noon; then turn the globe about till the index points to the lower twelve, and the place which lies under the meridian, having the ſame latitude with the given place, is that of the Periœci required.—As to the Antipodes, their place is found by counting 180 degrees upon the meridian from the given place, either north or ſouth.

PROB. XVII. *To repreſent the appearance of the heavens at any time in a given place.*] Rectify the celeſtial globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon; and turn the globe till the index points at the given hour; then while thoſe ſtars in the eaſtern half of the horizon are riſing, thoſe in the weſtern are ſetting, and thoſe in the meridian are culminating. The quadrant being ſet to any given ſtar, will ſhew its altitude, and at the ſame time its azimuth, reckoned in the horizon. Then by turning the globe round, it will readily appear what ſtars never ſet in that place, and thoſe which never riſe; thoſe of perpetual apparition never go below the horizon, and thoſe of perpetual abſence never come above it.

PROB. XVIII. *To find the latitude and longitude of any ſtar.*] Put the centre of altitude on the pole of the ecliptic, and its graduated edge on the given ſtar; then the latitude is ſhewn by the degrees between the ecliptic and ſtar; and the longitude by the degrees cut on the ecliptic by the quadrant.

PROB XIX. *To find the declination and right aſcenſion of a ſtar.*] Bring the ſtar to the meridian, the degree over it is the declination, and the degree of the equator under the meridian is the right aſcenſion.

PROB. XX. *The day and hour of a lunar eclipſe being known, to find all thoſe places upon the globe in which*

which it will be viſible.] Find where the ſun is vertical at the hour of the eclipſe, and bring that place to the zenith; then the eclipſe will be viſible in all thoſe places that are under the horizon. But if the Antipodes to the place where the ſun is vertical be brought into the zenith, the eclipſe will be ſeen in the places above the horizon.—But obſerve, that an eclipſe of the moon being ſometimes of a long continuance, it may be ſeen in more than one hemiſphere of the earth, as ſhe will riſe in ſeveral places after the eclipſe begins.

Note. When an eclipſe of the ſun is central, if you bring the place where the ſun is vertical at that time into the zenith, ſome part of the eclipſe will be viſible in moſt places within the upper hemiſphere: but by reaſon of the ſhort duration of ſolar eclipſes, and the latitude which the moon commonly has at ſuch times, there is no certainty in determining by the globe where thoſe eclipſes will be viſible, and therefore recourſe muſt be had to calculations.

Natural Divisions of the Earth.

The two grand diviſions of the terraqueous globe, are land and water. The land is divided into continents, iſlands, peninſulas, iſthmus's, promontories or capes, and mountains. The water is divided into oceans, ſeas, gulfs, ſtraits, lakes, and rivers.

A *continent*, terra firma, or main land, is a very large tract of country, comprehending ſeveral contiguous empires, kingdoms, countries, and ſtates: there are generally reckoned four continents, Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America; but the latter is commonly divided into two parts, called North and South America. An *iſland* is a ſmaller tract of land, entirely ſurrounded with water, as Great-Britain. A *peninſula* is a diſtrict of country encompaſſed with water, except a ſmall neck which joins it to ſome other land, as the *Morea* in Greece. An *iſthmus* is a narrow neck of land connecting ſome peninſula to another tract of country, and forming the paſſage between them; as the iſthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Aſia, and the iſthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America. A *promontory*, or *cape*, is a head-land, generally of conſiderable height, ſtretching itſelf ſome diſtance into the ſea; as the Cape of Good Hope. Coaſts, ſhores, mountains, vallies, woods, deſerts, plains, &c. are too well known to require deſcription.

An *ocean* is a vaſt collection of waters bounded by the coaſts of different countries. Geographers generally reckon three extenſive oceans, viz. the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Indian ocean. The Atlantic ocean lies between the continents of Europe and Africa on the eaſt, and America on the weſt; it is uſually divided into two parts, one called the North Atlantic ocean, and the other the South Atlantic, or Ethiopic ocean; that part of the North Atlantic ocean lying between Europe and America, is often called the weſtern ocean: it is 3000 miles wide. The Pacific Ocean, or, as it is often called, the South-Sea, is bounded on the Eaſt by the weſtern ſhores of America, and on the Weſt by the eaſtern ſhores of Aſia; it is computed to be 10,000 miles over. The Indian ocean waſhes the ſhores of the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, and the ſouthern coaſts of Aſia; the Indian iſlands and New Guinea, bound it on the Eaſt; it is 3000 miles wide. A *ſea*, properly ſpeaking, is a leſſer collection of waters than an ocean; as the Mediterranean ſea, the Baltic ſea, &c. A *gulf* or *bay* is a part of an ocean or ſea contained between two ſhores, and is every where environed with land, except at its entrance; as the bay of Biſcay: if a gulf be very ſmall, it is called a creek, haven, ſtation, or road for ſhips, as Milford-Haven. A *ſtrait* is a narrow paſſage forming a communication between a gulf and its neighbouring ſea, or joining one part of the ſea or ocean with another; as the ſtrait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. A *lake* is a collection of waters contained in ſome inland place, of a large extent; and every where ſurrounded by the land, having no viſible communication with the ocean: as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. As rivers, canals, brooks, &c. are to be met with in moſt countries, every perſon therefore has a clear idea of what is meant by theſe leſſer diviſions of water.

Of the Winds and Tides.

Air is a fine inviſible fluid ſurrounding the earth on which we move, and extending to ſeveral miles above its ſurface; and that collection of it, together with the bodies it contains, circumſcribing the earth, is called the atmoſphere. A ſmall volume of air is capable of expanding itſelf, ſo as to fill a very large ſpace; and alſo of being compreſſed into a much ſmaller compaſs. Cold has the property of compreſſing the air, and heat of expanding it. Hence if any alteration be made in any part of the atmoſphere, either by heat or cold, the neighbouring parts will be put in motion, and either expanded or compreſſed. Wind is a ſtream or current of air put in motion, and capable of very different degrees of velocity, and thence called a breeze, gale, or ſtorm. Winds are either conſtant or variable, general or particular. Conſtant winds are ſuch as always blow the ſame way, at leaſt for a conſiderable length of time. Variable winds are ſuch as frequently ſhift, or change from one point of the compaſs to another. A general wind, is that which blows the ſame way over a large tract of the earth, the greater part of the year. A particular wind is that which blows in any particular place, ſometimes one way and ſometimes another.—The trade wind is a current of air, blowing continually from the eaſt, on the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean, between 30 degrees north, and 30 degrees ſouth latitude.—The cauſe of this conſtant wind is the action of the ſun in his apparent motion from eaſt to weſt.

In ſome parts of the Indian ocean another ſpecies of trade winds, called monſoons, prevail. Theſe blow ſix months one way, and ſix months the contrary way. Theſe phænomena flow from the ſame cauſe. For the air that is cool and denſe, muſt force the warm and rarified air in a continual ſtream upwards, where it muſt ſpread itſelf to preſerve an equilibrium; conſequently the upper courſe or current of the air will be contrary to the under current; for the under current muſt move from thoſe parts where the greateſt heat is; and ſo, by a kind of circulation, the north-eaſt trade wind below will be attended with a ſouth-weſt wind above; and a ſouth-eaſt below, with a north-weſt above. Experience has ſufficiently confirmed the truth of this propoſition; the ſeamen always finding that as ſoon as they leave the trade winds, they immediately find a wind blowing in an oppoſite direction.—Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitudes of Cape-Verd, and the eaſternmoſt of the Cape de Verd iſlands, is a tract of ſea, which ſeems to be condemned to perpetual calms, attended with dreadful thunder and lightnings, and ſuch frequent rains, that it has acquired the name of the Rains. This phænomenon ſeems to be cauſed by the great rarefaction of the air on the neighbouring coaſt, which cauſing a perpetual current of air to ſet in from the weſtward, and this current meeting here with the general trade wind, the two currents balance each other, and cauſe a general calm; while the vapours carried thither by each wind, meeting and condenſing, occaſions thoſe frequent deluges of rain.

By the word *tide* is underſtood that motion of the water in the ſeas and rivers, by which they regularly riſe and fall. The doctrine of the tides continued unknown till the latter end of the laſt century, when it was diſcovered by the illuſtrious and immortal Sir

Map OF THE WORLD From the best Authorities.

Chas. S. Holbrook

Iſaac Newton, who explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. He demonſtrated that this principle is univerſally diffuſed through the ſolar ſyſtem: that the earth and moon gravitate towards, or attract each other; and both of them gravitate towards, or are attracted by the ſun: alſo, that the gravitation of bodies towards the centre of the earth, will be leſs on thoſe parts of its ſurface that are oppoſite to the ſun and moon, than in the others; and this defect of gravitation or attraction in particular parts, is the true cauſe of the ebbing and flowing of the tide. If no ſuch forces were exerted by the ſun and moon, the oceans, being equally attracted towards the earth's centre on all ſides by the force of gravity would continue in a ſtate of perfect ſtagnation: but as theſe forces are really exerted, the waters in the oceans muſt riſe higher in thoſe places where the ſun and moon diminiſh their gravity, or where the attraction of the ſun and moon is greateſt. Hence it follows that as the force of gravity muſt be diminiſhed moſt in thoſe places of the earth to which the moon is neareſt, viz. in the zenith; therefore the waters in ſuch places will riſe higher, and conſequently it will be full ſea or flood in ſuch places. From the ſame principles it follows, that the parts of the earth directly under the moon in the zenith, and thoſe in the nadir, or thoſe diametrically oppoſite, will have the flood or high water at the ſame time.

The tides are higher than ordinary twice every month, viz. about the time of the new and full moon: and thoſe are called ſpring tides. When thoſe two luminaries are in conjunction, or on the ſame ſide of the earth, they both conſpire to raiſe the water in the zenith, and conſequently in the nadir; and when the ſun and moon are in oppoſition, that is, when the earth is between them, while one makes high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the ſame in the nadir and zenith. Twice in every month, the tides are leſs than ordinary; that is, about the times of the firſt and laſt quarters of the moon; and theſe are called neap tides: for in the quarters of the moon, the ſun raiſes the water where the moon depreſſes it; and depreſſes where the moon raiſes the water; the tides are made therefore by the difference of their actions. The ſpring tides happen not preciſely at the new and full moon, but a day or two after, when the attractions of the ſun and moon have acted in the ſame direction for a conſiderable time. The reaſon that the greateſt ſpring tides do not happen on the 21ſt of March, and the 23d of September, but in February and October, is, becauſe the ſun being neareſt the earth in December, his influence is then ſtrongeſt, and ſo muſt quicken the time of the greateſt vernal tides; and being weakeſt in June, the time of the autumnal tides will neceſſariiy be retarded. The neap tides happen a day or two after the quarters, when the force of the moon's attraction has been leſſened by that of the ſun's for ſeveral days together. The above-mentioned phœnomena of the tides would happen uniformly, if the whole ſurface of the earth was entirely covered with water: but as this is not the caſe, there being, beſides the continents, a multitude of iſlands lying in the way of the tide, which interrupts its courſe, therefore in many places near the ſhores a great variety of other appearances ariſe, beſides thoſe already enumerated; theſe cannot be explained, without conſidering the ſituations of the ſhores, ſtraits, ſhoals, rocks, and other objects, by which they are in ſome meaſure produced. In ſome bays, and about the mouths ofrivers, the tides riſe from 12 to 50 feet; but about ſmall iſlands and head-lands in the middle of the ocean they riſe very little. There are alſo certain currents, or ſettings of the ſtream by which ſhips are compelled to alter their courſe or velocity, or both, and ſubmit to the motion impreſſed upon them by the current. That between Florido and the Bahama iſlands, always runs from north to ſouth: a current runs conſtantly from the Atlantic through the ſtraits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean: and a current ſets out of the Baltic ſea, through the Sound or Strait between Sweden and Denmark, into the Britiſh channel, ſo that there are no tides in the Baltic. The knowledge of theſe currents is a neceſſary article of navigation; for if the current thwarts the courſe of a ſhip, then it not only leſſens or augments her velocity, but gives her a new direction compounded of the courſe ſhe ſteers, and the ſetting of the current.

A Map is a plain or flat figure, repreſenting the whole ſurface of the globe, or a part thereof, according to the rules of perſpective. They are intended to ſhew us the forms and dimenſions of countries, the courſes of rivers, the ſituation of cities, towns, mountains, &c. They are diſtinguiſhed into Univerſal and Particular. The firſt ſorts are thoſe which exhibit the whole ſurface of the earth, or the two hemiſpheres, and are commonly called Maps of the World: the laſt ſort are thoſe which repreſent ſome particular country or part thereof.—Thoſe which repreſent only the ſeas, and ſea-coaſts, are properly called charts. The principal things required in a map are, 1. That all places have their juſt ſituation with regard to the chief circles of the globe, as the equator, meridian, parallels, &c. becauſe on theſe depend many properties of regions, as well as celeſtial phænomena. 2. That the magnitudes of the ſeveral countries have the ſame proportion as on the ſurface of the earth. 3. That the ſeveral places have the ſame diſtances and ſituation with regard to each other, as on the earth itſelf. There is uſually a ſcale of miles in ſome vacant part of a map, by which the diſtance of one place from another is eaſily found. As to maps of the world, the degrees of longitude are numbred on the equator, and thoſe of latitude round each hemiſphere from the equator to the poles. Rivers are deſcribed in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or ſpring. Mountains are ſketched on maps as on a picture. Foreſts and woods are repreſented by a kind of ſhrub; bogs and moraſſes, by ſhades; ſands and ſhallows are deſcribed by dotted beds; the depth of the water, near harbours, is expreſſed by figure repreſenting fathoms; and roads are uſually denoted by double lines.

With reſpect to the cardinal points; the north is conſidered as the upper part of the map; the ſouth is at the bottom, oppoſite to the north; the right hand is eaſt, the face being turned to the north; and the left hand, oppoſite, is the weſt; unleſs the compaſs, or flower-de-luce, which is generally placed in ſome part of a map, ſhews the country; for that always points to the north.

Parallels, or circles of latitude, are leſſer circles of the ſphere, conceived to be drawn from weſt to eaſt, through all the points of the meridian, commencing from the equator, to which they are parallel, and terminating with the poles. They are called *parallels of latitude*, becauſe all places lying under the ſame parallel have the ſame latitude. The outermoſt of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude or longitude, by means of which, and the ſcale of miles, the ſituation, diſtance, &c. of places may be found, as on the artificial globe. If the places be directly north or ſouth, eaſt or weſt, from one another, we have only to obſerve the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and, by turning thoſe into miles, we obtain the diſtance without meaſuring.

We ſhall here give a table of the miles in uſe among the principal nations of Europe, in geometrical paces, 60,000 of which make a degree of the equator.

	Geometrical Paces.
Mile of Ruſſia - - - - - -	750
—— of Italy - - - - - -	1000
—— of England - - - - -	1250
—— of Scotland and Ireland -	1500
—— of Poland - - - - - -	3000
—— of Spain - - - - - -	3428
—— of Germany - - - - -	4000
—— of Sweden - - - - - -	5000
—— of Denmark - - - - -	5000
—— of Hungary - - - - -	6000
Old league of France - - -	1500
The ſmall league, ibid - - -	2000
The mean league, ibid - - -	2500
The great league, ibid - - -	3000

Note. The Engliſh ſtatute mile is fourſcore chains, or 1760 yards, that is, 5280 feet, or eight furlongs. The Engliſh marine league is three Engliſh miles.

The number of inhabitants computed at preſent to be in the known world, at a medium, taken from the moſt accurate calculations, are 953 millions, of which Aſia contains 500, Europe 153, Africa 150, and America 150 millions.

PART. II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Of the Origin, Laws, Government, and Commerce of Nations.

IN order to prepare our readers for entering upon the particular hiſtory of each country we deſcribe, it was thought neceſſary to preſent them with a general view of the hiſtory of mankind, from the firſt ages of the world, to the reformation of religion during the 16th century; wherein we ſhall give an account of the moſt intereſting and important events which have happened among men, with their cauſes and effects. This undoubtedly conſtitutes the moſt uſeful branch of Political Geography; and it may not only be deemed a matter of high importance in itſelf, but indiſpenſably requiſite to the underſtanding the preſent ſtate of commerce, government, arts, and manners in any particular country.

The beſt chronologers have placed the great event of the creation of the world in the year before Chriſt 4004; before which time, neither matter nor form of any thing appeared or exiſted. That the world was not eternal, has been fully determined by the ſacred records, which have alſo aſcertained the time of its creation with great preciſion; the Hebrew chronology being generally acknowledged to be of ſuperior authority to the Julian, Samaritan, or Septuagint. The hiſtory of the patriarchs before the flood is very ſhort, and principally confined to the creation of the world, and the fall of the firſt parents of mankind. The ſacred hiſtorian has given us very few anecdotes of the inhabitants of thoſe early times; and what is found in profane writers, is little more than a confuſed heap of the moſt palpable abſurdities. It may however be gathered from the writings of Moſes, that the world before the flood was extremely populous, that mankind had made conſiderable improvements in the arts, and were become immeaſurably vicious, both in their ſentiments and manners, inſomuch that nothing could ſtop the torrent of impiety which prevailed. They were not only addicted to every vice, and in love with every ſpecies of iniquity, but laughed at the preaching of Noah, and ſet the threatened vengeance of heaven at defiance. Regardleſs of the predictions of the prophet, they even ridiculed his building an ark for the preſervation of himſelf and deſcendents. But they were ſoon fatally convinced of their error: a deluge of water, which continued a whole year, ſwept away all the human race, except Noah and his family. This dreadful cataſtrophe not only deſtroyed the inhabitants of the earth, which is ſuppoſed to have been more populous then at preſent, but in a great meaſure affected the ſoil and atmoſphere of the globe, gave them a form leſs friendly to the frame and texture of the human body: hence followed the abridgment of the life of man, and that formidable train of diſeaſes which hath ever ſince made ſuch havock in the world. Before Chriſt 2348.

After the waters had ſubſided, and the ſurface of the earth was ſufficiently dry, Noah, with his three ſons, Shem, Ham, and Japhet, left the ark, and a new generation for peopling the earth was raiſed from the ruins of the former. The ſacred writings have preſerved an account of the poſterity of Shem, but very little with regard to Ham and Japhet. The memory of all of them was, however, preſerved among their reſpective deſcendents. The name of Japhet, changed into Japetus, continued long famous among the weſtern nations; and Ham was revered as a deity among the Egyptians, under the name of Jupiter-Ammon. The whole deſcendants of Noah remained ſome time in the plains of Shinar, afterwards called Babylonia, where they built a city, and a tower of enormous height as a land-mark, to prevent their being ſcattered abroad, or loſt in the deſerts of that wide and open country, then deſtitute of roads, and every natural accommodation: but their deſign was fruſtrated by the interpoſition of heaven. It was neceſſary, for peopling and cultivating the other parts of the world, that the ſons of Noah ſhould be diſperſed, and ſeparated from one another; this was effectually brought about by the confuſion of their language: they no longer underſtood each other, and abandoned their deſign before the ſtructure was finiſhed. They then diſperſed themſelves into different parts of the world; and the various countries of the earth were gradually peopled by diſtinct families.

The new world abounded with wild beaſts; and the great heroiſm of thoſe times conſiſted in deſtroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal fame; he became a mighty hunter, and choſe Babel, or Babylon, for the place of his reſidence; there he fixed the ſeat of his kingdom, and founded there the firſt monarchy in the world. About the ſame time Aſſur, the ſecond ſon of Shem, left Shinar, and built a city which he called Nineveue, or Nineveh, which ſignifies, the habitation of his ſon. But though theſe kingdoms were founded ſo near the time of the deluge, we have no further account concerning them till ſeveral centuries after their foundation. The countries were indeed at that time very thin of people; the deſcendants of Noah were diſperſed according to their ſeveral languages and families; and therefore few remarkable tranſactions happened in the world. However, in Egypt, the four governments of Thebis, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. B. C. 2235.

As mankind began to multiply on the earth, and to ſeparate into different communities, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated or obſcured. Ninus, the firſt Aſſyrian prince of whoſe actions we have any account, was a great and warlike prince. Warmed with ambition, and envying the ſucceſs of his neighbours, he taught his ſubjects the uſe and exerciſe of arms, and inured them to martial diſcipline and dangers. War and deſtruction now laid waſte the fertile provinces of Aſia, and a final period was put to the peace which had hitherto prevailed among the nations. He added Babylon to his dominions, and laid the foundation of a power- B. C. 2016.

a powerful empire, which for many ages extended the yoke of ſlavery over the greater part of Aſia. After the diſperſion of Babel, Ham led a colony into Egypt; and it is plain, from the writings of Moſes, that Abraham, who lived in the reign of Ninus, and was obliged by a dreadful famine to retire out of Canaan into Egypt, found that kingdom in the zenith of power. The monarch was ſurrounded by a train of courtiers; the people were governed by laws; had abandoned a wandering life, and were ſettled in cities. It became very populous; the rudiments of the arts were known; ſtructures for elegance as well as uſe were erected in various parts of the empire; and a commerce far from inconſiderable was carried on by the deſcendents of Ham.

In proceſs of time, Javan, the ſon of Japhet, and grandſon of Noah, led his colony into Aſia Minor, and eſtabliſhed himſelf in the iſlands on the weſtern coaſt of the continent. As their numbers increaſed, they extended their ſettlements; many of them paſſed over into Europe; and part of Greece became peo-
B. C. 2022. pled in very early times. But as there was ſtill room ſufficient for others, and the country very fertile, a colony from Egypt, known in hiſtory by the name of Titans, penetrated into Greece, and eſtabliſhed the policy and arts of their country. Internal jars and commotions, however, ſtopped the progreſs of improvement: war ſucceeded, and ſoon demoliſhed the Titan kingdom. The deſcendants of Javan, before the arrival of the Titans, were rude and barbarous; they inhabited dens and caverns like wild beaſts; the reaſoning faculty was debaſed, and hardly any thing but the form remained to diſtinguiſh them from the brute creation. The little progreſs
B. C. 1829. they had made in refinement under the Titan government was ſoon forgotten; and when the colonies headed by Ogyges and Inarchus arrived in that country, the inhabitants had relapſed into their former ſtate of barbarity. Inarchus exerted all his power to collect the wandering Greeks, and form them into a regular ſociety. He ſucceeded in ſome meaſure; but the hiſtories of thoſe times are ſo dark and confuſed, that it is impoſſible to withdraw the veil of obſcurity, or advance any thing with certainty.

The hiſtory written by Moſes, is the only one on which we can rely with regard to the tranſactions of
B. C. 1808. thoſe early ages. The ſacred writer, in giving an account of the calling of Abraham, and the ſettlement of the family of Jacob in Egypt, has given us a ſeries of very remarkable events, which need not be mentioned here, as they are univerſally known at this period, when very little of the hiſtory of other nations is come to hand: the improvements of mankind in the neceſſary arts of life were advanced to a great degree of perfection; but it ſhould alſo be obſerved, that all the nations of the earth were far from being equal in their mental qualifications. Some of them were ſunk into the abyſs of ignorance and wretchedneſs; while others lived under civilized governments, and enjoyed all the benefits of a well-regulated ſociety: Noah, who was acquainted with all the learning of the antediluvian patriarchs, diſſeminated theſe ſeeds of ſcience among his offspring. But thoſe who wandered far from their native reſidence, and were wholly employed in providing a ſubſiſtence for themſelves and families, had neither time nor inclination to cultivate the tender ſhoots of knowledge: theſe were neglected and forgotten. While others, who continued near the Plains of Shinar, and long enjoyed the counſels and directions of their great anceſtor, formed themſelves early into regular ſocieties, and wiſely cultivated the arts of peace.

The antediluvian patriarchs were no ſtrangers to agriculture; they were obliged to till the ground for their ſubſiſtence; and Noah himſelf was no ſooner ſettled after the flood, than he planted a vineyard, which afforded a ſufficient proof that the art of huſbandry had been carried to ſome degree of perfection. Corn was cultivated in moſt parts of the eaſt; the land of Canaan, where Jacob reſided, produced large quantities: it was the principal food of the inhabitants; for when an unfruitful ſeaſon had diminiſhed the harveſt, we find that Jacob was obliged to ſend to Egypt to purchaſe corn for the ſupport of his family. Nor was the art confined to the cultivation of corn; the fig, the almond, and the olive-trees were well known in Paleſtine; and the preſent which Jacob ſent to his ſon Joſeph, conſiſted of balm, honey, myrrh, ſpices, nuts, and almonds. The cultivation of the ground gave riſe to commerce; an exchange of commerce being the natural conſequence of improvements. The ſhepherd will give a part of his flock for corn; and the huſbandman is willing to exchange the produce of his fields for cattle. In this manner commerce muſt have been carried on in its infancy: it muſt have attained ſome degree of perfection before metals were introduced as the medium of trade; and yet this was the caſe ſo early as the days of Abraham, though the money then in uſe had not any ſtamp to aſcertain either its value or fineneſs, but was delivered by weight. As commerce increaſed, this method was laid aſide, and the pieces of ſilver were marked to aſcertain their true value. It appears, that in the time of Jacob a regular commerce was carried on between Egypt and Arabia. The Iſhmaelites and Midianites, to whom Joſeph was ſold by his brethren, were merchants going into Egypt with their camels loaded with ſpices, balm, perfumes, and other coſtly merchandize. This commerce was however only carried on by land, and muſt be diſtinguiſhed from that carried on by ſea. The former was known much ſooner than the latter, though in all probability navigation was not unknown even to the antediluvians.

The inhabitants of Tyre were the firſt people who rendered navigation ſubſervient to commerce. Situated in a barren ſoil, where agriculture could be of little advantage, they wiſely endeavoured to render their ſituation more agreeable, by cultivating the arts of peace. Commerce opened the faireſt proſpect, and was purſued with great attention and ſucceſs. The Tyrians were famous for their commerce even in the days of Abraham; and Jacob mentioned it in his laſt bleſſing to his children. The arts will flouriſh wherever commerce is cultivated; nor can it be properly carried on without ſome knowledge of navigation and aſtronomy. In theſe early times the mariner's compaſs was unknown, ſo that the ſeamen had no other guide than the heavenly bodies, whoſe ſituations, poſitions, and revolutions were obſerved in very early times; aſtronomy being cultivated in the reign of Belus, and the Egyptian prieſts were aſſiduous obſervers of the ſtars. Greece was indebted to Egypt for the elements of the ſciences: the celebrated philoſophers of that country were inſtructed by the Egyptian prieſts, from whom alſo Pythagoras learnt the true ſyſtem of the world. The Romans were indebted to the Greeks for many of the arts relative both to peace and war; and the inhabitants of Europe owe to the Romans their politeneſs and refinements. The origin of the ſciences, therefore, has with great propriety been aſcribed to Egypt.

Seſoſtris was one of the moſt celebrated kings of Egypt: during his reign, that kingdom arrived to an amazing height of power: it was adorn-
B. C. 1839. ed with the moſt ſplendid cities, and was extremely populous. This prince is ſaid to have been poſſeſſed of 400 ſail of large ſhips, with which he ſailed down the Red Sea, ſubjugating all the iſlands and ſea-coaſts, as far as India: he had alſo an army of 600,000 foot, 24,000 horſe, and 27,000 armed chariots. He conquered Ethiopia, Phœnicia, Syria, and all the Leſſer Aſia; paſſed over into Europe, where he ſubdued the Scythians and Thracians as far as the river

river Tanais. The ſucceſſors of this great prince applied themſelves to cultivate the arts of peace. They ſucceeded; and Egypt became the moſt flouriſhing kingdom then in the world. The number of inhabitants are ſaid to have been no leſs than 27 millions; it had 18,000 cities; and the buildings were amazing; ſome of them are ſtill conſidered with aſtoniſhment, particularly the pyramids.

During this period Europe was involved in the thickeſt cloud of ignorance. Fierce in their nature, and barbarous in their manners, the inhabitants lived in foreſts and caverns of the mountains: they ſometimes fell a prey to wild beaſts, and ſometimes to the ſavage brutality of one another. Such were the anceſtors of the Greeks, who afterwards became the patterns of politeneſs, and the great maſters of every elegant art. But they owed their refinement and taſte to the Egyptians, who now cultivated almoſt every ſpecies of literature with ſucceſs. Cecrops landed in Greece at the head of an Egyptian colony, and laboured with the utmoſt aſſiduity to poliſh the manners, and reform the ſavage cuſtoms of the inhabitants. B. C. 1555.

They were, before his arrival, ſtrangers to laws: even thoſe relating to marriage were unknown. They propagated their ſpecies like the beaſts of the foreſt, without forming the tender connexions that ſubſiſt in families, and which even the moſt ſavage nations cultivate and eſteem. Cecrops built Athens, ſo called from Athene or Minerva, one of the Egyptian deities worſhipped at Sais, the city from whence he came into Attica. The wiſe meaſures of Cecrops, for reforming the manners of the Greeks, were purſued by Cranaus, who ſucceeded him in the kingdom of Attica. The council of Areopagus, ſo long famous in hiſtory, was founded in the firſt year of his reign. B. C. 1528.

By the exertions of theſe wiſe princes to reform different parts of Greece, that country ſoon became celebrated for learning and the polite arts: the rough manners of the inhabitants were poliſhed and refined by ſucceſſive colonies from Egypt and Phœnicia; the rudeſt people became civilized and accompliſhed; and the arts, which had their birth in Aſia, were cheriſhed with the moſt tender care in Greece. But the number of petty ſtates, into which the country was divided, rendered the inhabitants incapable of withſtanding a powerful enemy. Amphictyon, one of thoſe ſuperior geniuſes, who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of poſterity, formed a plan for uniting all the ſtates of Greece in one grand confederacy. His eloquence and addreſs engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preſervation. Two deputies from each of theſe cities aſſembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, and formed what was called the Amphictyonic council, after the name of its founder. Experience ſufficiently proved how well thoſe meaſures were concerted; and Amphictyon, in order to give a greater luſtre to the councils, committed to their care the temple at Delphos, with all its riches. This council was the great ſpring of action in Greece, while that country maintained her independence; and it was owing to this union that all the attempts of the Perſian emperors were rendered abortive. B. C. 1522.

This ſhoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant, and it cannot but be pleaſant to obſerve its progreſs. The Athenians had no written laws; a proper ſubordination had not yet been eſtabliſhed. This was reſerved for the great Solon, a man formed by nature for a lawgiver. He began with dividing the citizens into four claſſes, proportioned to their wealth; the loweſt were incapable of holding any public employment. They had, however, a voice in the general council of the republic, and in the aſſembly all affairs of importance to the ſtate were finally determined. But leſt the people ſhould become too powerful, the ſenate and areopagus were provided to prevent an anarchy from taking place. The ſenate conſiſted of 400 members, each tribe of the Athenians chooſing 100. In this aſſembly every important concern intended to be laid before the people was prepared. The areopagus was nothing more than a court of juſtice; but its decrees were ſo equitable, and its members ſo remarkable for their virtue and integrity, that its power in the republic was very extenſive. Such was the plan on which the great Solon founded the republic of Athens; and upon the ſame principles, with ſome variations, all the other ſtates among the ancients were conſtituted.

Some remarkable particulars occurred in the republic of Sparta or Lacedæmon. The great Lycurgus was the legiſlator of the Spartans, and his laws extended equally to peace and war. In order to inure the youth of Lacedæmon to hardſhip, all kinds of luxury, all the arts of elegance or entertainment, in ſhort, every thing that had the leaſt tendency to ſoften the mind, and relax the nerves, was abſolutely proſcribed at Spartan. The uſe of money was forbidden; they lived at public tables on the coarſeſt fare; the younger were taught to pay the utmoſt reverence to the more advanced in years; and all ranks, capable of bearing arms, were daily accuſtomed to the moſt painful exerciſes. Hence it happened, that war, which to all other nations became very fatiguing, was to the Spartans rather a relaxation than a hardſhip, and the behaviour of their troops was aſtoniſhing, and accompanied with a firmneſs and courage that was almoſt beyond conception or belief. B. C. 884.

Let us now caſt our eyes on Aſia, and obſerve the events which happened in thoſe empires of which we have long loſt ſight. Cyrus, the Perſian, founded a new empire on the ruins of thoſe of Babylon and Aſſyria. He was one of the greateſt princes that ever ſwayed an eaſtern ſceptre, and extended his empire over the greater part of Aſia. The æra of this prince is extremely remarkable, ſince, beſides delivering the Jews from their captivity, the hiſtory of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be ſuppoſed to finiſh. During the reign of Cyrus, the Perſians were a brave and warlike people, but luxury ſoon found its way into that country, effeminacy ſucceeded, and the Perſians, who, under Cyrus, were almoſt invincible, were afterwards unable to face a handful of men, from the petty ſtates of Greece. Mad with ambition, and the luſt of univerſal empire, Darius led a numerous army into Greece. But the Perſians had forgot to conquer. His army conſiſted of no leſs than 100,000 foot, and 10,000 horſe. This prodigious army was met in the plains of Marathon, by Miltiades, at the head of 10,000 Athenians; and with this ſmall army the Perſians were put to flight. So great is the difference between an army enervated by luxury and depreſſed by tyranny, and forces animated by freedom and ſtrengthened by virtue. Exaſperated at the defeat of his father, Xerxes at the head of 2,100,000 men, entered Greece; but he ſhared the ſame fate with Darius. He was every where defeated both by ſea and land; reduced to the utmoſt extremity, and at laſt eſcaped to Aſia in a fiſhing-boat. Such was the ſpirit of the Greeks; and ſo well did they know, that wanting virtue, life is pain and woe; that wanting liberty, even virtue mourns, and looks round for happineſs in vain. B. C. 536. B. C. 520. B. C. 484.

The limits we are confined to will not ſuffer us to purſue the Perſian hiſtory through its different periods; it will therefore be ſufficient to obſerve, that though the Perſian monarchs were maſters of Aſia and Egypt, yet as often as they carried their arms either againſt the Scythians or the Greeks, they were not only defeated, but found the utmoſt difficulty to defend themſelves in Aſia againſt the attempts of the

latter, flushed with victory. The succeeding kings therefore, grown wise by the misfortunes of Darius and Xerxes, avoided an open war with the Greeks, contenting themselves with artfully fomenting dissentions among the Grecian states, and breaking their strength by assisting the weak against the powerful. Darius Codomanus, either ignorant of this political stratagem, or disdaining to put it in practice, drew the whole power of Greece upon him; and an end was soon after put to the Persian empire by Alexander the Great, at the head of his Macedonian army. B. C. 331.

The Persians were never remarkable for learning and the arts. Like the other inhabitants of the East, they were fond of the sublime. Their architecture was grand and noble. Their statues were gigantic, but proportion was often wanting, and the delicacy which the Greek sculptors afterwards gave to their works was unknown. The literati were divided into two sects, the Sabæans and the Magi. The former worshipped idols; maintained that the stars were gods, among whom the sun was chief, because he governed both the heaven and the earth. The Magi, on the contrary, rejected the worship of images, and adored the sun under the form of fire, as the supreme deity. Zoroaster, who flourished in the reign of Darius Hystapses, reformed the religion of the Magi, rendering it more sublime and pure. He was so successful, that most of the nobles, and even the kings of Persia, embraced his tenets; and the Sabæan religion was but little regarded. The principal science cultivated in the Persian empire was astronomy; but they never carried it to any great degree of perfection. They were more assiduous in studying the ridiculous reveries of astrology, than in labouring to explain the phænomena of the universe. They were well acquainted with the face of the heavens, but never applied themselves to investigate the laws by which the motions of the heavenly bodies were regulated. Their philosophy was an absurd jargon of loose irregular thoughts, without the least foundation in nature. They were strangers to experiments, and never attempted to deduce causes from their effects.

While the Greeks continued to cultivate the virtuous principles they received from their great legislators, they were invincible; but their victories over the Persians rendered them proud and haughty; they quarrelled with one another, and weakened themselves by intestine division. Philip of Macedon (a country till this time little known, and less regarded) observed these commotions between the states of Greece, and, becoming important and powerful, resoved to turn them to his own advantage. He artfully fomented their divisions; and when he had sufficiently exasperated them against each other, he became absolute master of Greece by the battle of Cheronæa. The Grecian states, having lost that virtue which formed the basis of their confederacy, would have fallen without a battle. The eloquence of Demosthenes was exerted in vain; his immortal Philippics had no power to inspire a people, already immersed in corruption and licentiousness, to a sense of their danger; they preferred luxury to virtue, and, dreading the chains of slavery less than a noble and timely exertion of their powers in the cause of liberty, they became an easy prey to the seductive arts of their insidious and aspiring foe. B. C. 338.

The ambition of Philip, however, was not satisfied with the conquest of his country; he proposed to extend the boundaries of his empire far beyond the narrow limits of Greece. Accordingly, he made prodigious preparations for carrying on his designs against Persia; but died before they were completed. His son Alexander, who succeeded him on the throne, having no enemy to fear in Europe, passed into Asia at the head of 3000 foot and 5000 horse. With this handful of men, he conquered the whole force of Darius in three pitched battles, and overthrew the Persian empire: he afterwards penetrated into India, and reduced nations whose very name were then unknown in Europe. Soon after this rapid career of victory and success, Alexander died at Babylon in the flower of his age. His captains, preferring power to virtue, and riches to gratitude, sacrificed all the family of their master, and divided his conquests among themselves. But this was not effected without violent struggles and dissensions; and while discord reigned among the Grecian leaders, the Parthians made themselves masters of the countries to the east of the Euphrates, and laid the foundations of a kingdom which at length became very powerful. B. C. 330. B. C. 323.

Alexander's empire was divided into four kingdoms: the Macedonian, the Asiatic, the Syrian, and the Egyptian. The Macedonian kingdom, which fell to the lot of Antipater, continued about 152 years, during which interval, ten successive princes swayed the sceptre. Perseus, the last Macedonian king was totally defeated by Emilius, carried to Rome in triumph, and died in prison; and the kingdom was reduced to a Roman province. The Asiatic kingdom, which fell to Antigonus, comprehended that country now called Natolia, together with some districts beyond Mount Taurus. This kingdom was afterwards divided into three parts, namely, the kingdom of Pergamus, the kingdom of Pontus, and the kingdom of Armenia. Attilus, the last king of Pergamus, appointed the Roman people his heir; and accordingly at his death, that country became part of the Roman dominions. The kingdom of Pontus continued in a very flourishing state till the reign of Mithridates, who carried on an obstinate war with the Romans twenty-six years. He was defeated by Sylla and Lucullus; but still supported his independence, till he was totally vanquished by Pompey, who annexed his kingdom to the Roman state. The kingdom of Armenia fell with that of Pontus. Tigranes, the last monarch, who joined Mithridates against the Romans, was, with that prince, defeated by Pompey, and left his kingdom to the conqueror. B. C. 168.

Seleucus Nicanor obtained the Syrian kingdom: his successors were called Seleucidæ, who long held the sceptre with honour. After the extinction of that family, the throne was filled by Antiochus Deus, Antiochus the Great, Antiochus Epiphanes, and Tigranes. The last governed both Syria aud Armenia; but being conquered by the Romans under Pompey, both kingdoms were reduced to the form of a Roman province.

The throne of Egypt was usurped by Ptolemy Lagus, one of Alexander's generals; and from him all his successors were called Ptolemies. That kingdom flourished under twelve princes for near 240 years. Among these, Ptolemy Philadelphus was the most famous. To him we owe the Septuagint translation of the scriptures. He founded the celebrated Alexandrine library, which consisted of near 700,000 volumes. He was remarkable for encouraging the arts. The literati flocked to the city of Alexandria as to the seat of the muses. The celebrated Cleopatra was the last who swayed the sceptre of Egypt. She was vanquished by Augustus, and Egypt underwent the same fate of the other kingdoms; it was added to the dominions of the Romans.

Greece, particularly Athens, produced, during this period, every thing great in the arts. The very names of illustrious men who flourished there in that age of literature, would be sufficient to fill a moderate volume. All the improvements made by other nations formed only the dawn of that glorious day which now shone in its meridian splendor. The Egyptians, and many of the Oriental nations, had

raiſed ſtructures, celebrated at once for their magnificence and magnitude; but it was the Greeks who firſt added proportion to greatneſs, and elegance to grandeur: the orders of architecture had their birth in Greece. The pieces of ſculpture executed by Phidias, Polycletus, Myron, Lyſippus, Praxiteles, and Scopas, have rendered their names immortal. Apollodorus, Zeuxis, Patrhaſius, Pamphilus, Timanthes, Apelles, Ariſtides, and Protegenes, diſplayed the power of the pencil, and made the world acqainted with the magic of painting. The art of compoſition was carried to the higheſt point of perfection. Homer, Eſchylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, reached the true ſublime in poetry. Proſaic writings acquired elegance and ſimplicity from the pen of Herodotus: Xenophon and Iſocrates gave it cadence and harmony; but it was reſerved for Thucydides and Demoſthenes to diſplay the full force of the Greek language.

B. C. 448.

Nor were the ſtudies of the Greeks confined to the polite arts, the more ſevere exerciſes of mathematics and philoſophy were cultivated with ſucceſs. The names of Pythagoras, Euclid, and Archimedes, are ſufficiently known. The three ſcholars of the great Socrates, Plato, Ariſtotle, and Xenophon, may, for ſtrength of reaſoning, juſtneſs of thought, and propriety of expreſſion, be compared with the writers of any age or nation. It muſt however be confeſſed, that the Greeks were much better writers than philoſophers. For though the operations of reaſon are prior to the firſt efforts of the imagination; yet the imagination when once at work proceeds much faſter. It has the advantage of acting upon objects of its own creation; whereas reaſoning being confined to the objects before it, is obliged to ſtop at every ſtep, and often exhauſts all its powers in fruitleſs reſearches. The univerſe and reflection are the moſt uſeful books of philoſophers, and thoſe were ſtudied by the Greeks; but not taking experiments for their guide, they wandered into the regions of deception, and exhauſted in ſubtle diſputes that lively and penetrating genius which, if properly employed, would have enabled them to withdraw the veil from nature, diſcover the laws which regulate the univerſe, and form a ſyſtem of morals for the general benefit of mankind. The ſtateſmen and warriors of Greece were equally famous with thoſe who applied their talents to the cultivation of the arts. The love of their country was deeply engraven on their minds, and rendered them ſuperior to labour and fatigue. Their military virtue was eminently diſplayed in their wars againſt the Perſians; of which the cauſe were the wiſe laws which Amphictyon, Solon, and Lycurgus had eſtabliſhed among them.

Leaving this nation, whoſe hiſtory, both civil and philoſophical, is as important as their territory was inconſiderable, we ſhall next turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are ſtill more intereſting, as well on their own account, as from the relation in which they ſtand to thoſe of modern Europe. Romulus, the founder of the Roman ſtate, was of a very martial diſpoſition; and the political ſtate of Italy, divided into a number of ſmall but independent diſtricts, afforded a noble field for the diſplay of his military talents. He was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to enrich themſelves, but even to ſubſiſt; yet they never blended cruelty with their conqueſts; the people they ſubdued were not extirpated. Romulus eſtabliſhed a maxim which afterwards rendered his ſucceſſors maſters of the world; he united the nations he conquered to the Roman ſtate. By this prudent conduct he became ſtronger by every victory; and the number of his ſubjects was increaſed by every addition to his territories: he took care at the ſame time not to oppreſs the people he had conquered. He changed indeed the form of their government, but he never impoſed on them the yoke of ſlavery: they became members of a free ſtate, and enjoyed all the privileges of his own people. The military diſcipline of his people always engaged the attention of Romulus; and he endeavoured to improve it by the experience of all the nations with whom he was at war. Whatever weapon, whatever motion, whatever ſtratagem he ſaw in uſe, or practiſed by the enemy, which was preferable to his own, he immediately adopted, and thought it no diſgrace to learn wiſdom and improvement from thoſe he had conquered.

B. C. 753.

Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. Being himſelf no ſtranger to the art of government, he was ſenſible that no ſtate could ſubſiſt without laws, and a proper ſubordination: that liberty without reſtraint would degenerate into anarchy; and that power without being nicely balanced, would terminate in tyranny. He was therefore deſirous of ſecuring liberty without licentiouſneſs, and of placing the legiſlative power where it might not be abuſed to the prejudice of his ſubjects. Accordingly he inſtituted what was called the ſenate, a court originally compoſed of 100 perſons, diſtinguiſhed for their wiſdom and virtue. He enacted laws for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and for bridling the ferocious manners and paſſions of his followers. Under theſe inſtitutions his infant ſtate flouriſhed in a moſt ſurpriſing manner: but gratitude was not one of the virtues of the firſt court of legiſlature; for Romulus, after a long reign ſpent in promoting the civil or military intereſts of his country, fell a victim to the treachery of the ſenate he had ſo lately founded, being, as it is thought, privately aſſaſſinated by ſome of its members.

B. C. 717.

Numa Pompilius, his ſucceſſor, chiefly applied himſelf to cultivate the arts of peace; he inſtituted the religious ceremonies of the Romans, inſpired the people with the higheſt veneration for an oath, which may be conſidered as the ſoul of military diſcipline; and added two months to the year, in order to render it more conformable to the courſe of the ſun. Tullius Hoſtilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priſcus, and Servius Tullius, the ſucceſſors of Numa, laboured aſſiduouſly to promote the proſperity, and extend the power of Rome. But Tarquin the Proud, who murdered Servius Tullius, his father-in-law, and ſeized upon the throne, followed not the ſteps of his predeceſſors; he became a very cruel and infamous tyrant. He trampled on the laws of juſtice, and ſeemed pleaſed with the oppreſſions he heaped upon the people. He was at once the terror and deteſtation of Rome. The inſolence of his ſon Saxtus Tarquinius haſtened his fate. He violated the chaſtity of Lucretia, a Roman lady, and by that flagitious act affronted the whole nation. Tarquin was hurled from the throne, and his whole family expelled from Rome. This violent convulſion put a period to the regal government.

B. C. 510.

There was a neceſſity for a power equal to that poſſeſſed by their kings to reſide ſomewhere: this they placed in two conſuls; who were nothing more than annual magiſtrates, though they enjoyed a ſovereign authority. This form of government was wiſely calculated to promote the grandeur of the Roman ſtate. The ſhort time allotted for the exerciſe of the conſular power, animated them with a deſire of ſignalizing their reign with ſome remarkable action: each laboured to eclipſe the achievements of his predeceſſor; and the troops were continually led againſt ſome new enemy. It however required a conſiderable length of time before the Romans could make themſelves maſters of Italy, and they

they were more than once reduced to the brink of ruin, notwithſtanding they were animated to deeds of valour by every motive that had a tendency to rouſe the ſlothful, or inſpire the brave. The citizens of Rome were all ſoldiers, who fought for their eſtates, their children, and their liberties. They all ſtudied the art of war, and were all deeply intereſted in the fate of every battle. Thoſe who turned their backs upon an enemy were branded with ignominy; while any who ſaved the life of a citizen, received a civic crown. B. C. 264.

But the petty princes of Italy were far from being the only enemies the Romans had to contend with. They were oppoſed in their ambitious ſchemes of empire by foreign ſtates, who more than once reduced them to the brink of ruin. Among theſe the republic of Carthage was the moſt powerful. This republic was in the zenith of its glory when Rome had hardly any territories. Carthage was celebrated for her commerce and riches; ſhe had extended her trade and the terror of her arms over the greater parts of Europe and Africa that were then known. The iſlands of Sardinia and Corſica were both in her poſſeſſion, and ſhe had planted powerful colonies in Spain. She reigned the undiſputed miſtreſs of the ſea, and threatened all the neighbouring nations with the yoke of ſlavery.

The growing power of Carthage was beheld with a jealous eye by the Romans, who feared for their conqueſt. A war ſoon enſued between the two ſtates, and for ſome time the advantage was greatly on the ſide of Carthage; and had not luxury before found its way into that republic, Rome would have been no more. Fond of eaſe, and tenacious of power, the Carthaginians employed mercenaries to carry on their wars; while the armies of Rome were compoſed of citizens: the one ſerved for pay only; the other fought for all that was dear to them. The Romans were convinced by the firſt war, which laſted twenty years, that Carthage could not be conquered while ſhe remained miſtreſs of the ſea: her commerce muſt ſupply her with every neceſſary, and her fleet could at any time tranſport an army into Italy, and land them on any part of the coaſt. A Carthaginian veſſel, which was wrecked on the territories of the Romans, ſerved that aſſiduous people as a model. A fleet was ſoon fitted out; and the conſul Duilius, who fought their firſt naval battle, was victorious. The Carthaginians were now rouſed from their ſlumber of ſecurity; they feared for their commerce, the true ſource of their peace, and the ſinews of war. They began to tremble in their turn; and ſuch was the ſpirit which then animated the Romans againſt their enemies, that Regulus, their general, being taken priſoner in Africa, was ſent back on his parole to negociate a change of priſoners. He maintained in the ſenate the propriety of that law, which cut off from thoſe who ſuffered themſelves to be taken, all hopes of being ſaved, and returned to a certain death, which, with the fortitude and magnanimity of a true patriot, he accordingly ſubmitted to. B. C. 262. B. C. 259.

Though corruption had at this time widely diffuſed itſelf in Carthage, yet ſhe was not altogether deficient in great men; among whom Hannibal was the moſt celebrated. An eternal antipathy to Rome had been inſtilled into his breaſt while an infant. His father Hamilcar, one of the great generals that had raiſed Carthage to her preſent ſtate of power, took his ſon when a child, to the temple of Jupiter, where having ordered a ſolemn ſacrifice to be offered up to that deity, he led his ſon to the altar, and aſked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition againſt the Romans? The courageous boy not only conſented to go, but conjured his father, by the gods preſent, to form him to victory, and inſtruct him in the art of conquering. To this Hamilcar joyfully conſented, and caufed him to ſwear upon the altar to be an irreconcileable enemy to the Romans. B. C. 255.

Hannibal being, at 25 years of age, appointed general of the Carthaginian forces, determined to attack his enemies in the very heart of their country. He croſſed the Ebro, the Rhone, and the Alps, and in a moment deſcended like a torrent upon Italy. The Romans now trembled for their capital. Scipio advanced to meet the Carthaginian general, and was defeated. Hannibal purſued his victory, croſſed the Po, and encamped at Placentia. The Roman conſul appeared at the head of his army. Hannibal offered him battle, which he thought proper to decline. Terrified at the expedition of Hannibal's purſuit, and the ardour of the Carthaginian troops, he abandoned his fortified camp, croſſed the Trebia, and poſted himſelf on an eminence near that river. Hannibal followed him, and encamped in the ſight of the Romans on an oppoſite bank. A battle enſued, and the Romans were again defeated. Hannibal now croſſed the Appenines, paſſed into Etruria, and laid waſte great part of that fertile country. Provoked at the rapid progreſs of the Carthaginian general, Flaminius, one of the Roman conſuls, imprudently advanced to give him battle. The two armies met in a large field near the lake of Thraſymene, and the Romans were a third time defeated. Theſe repeated misfortunes filled the city of Rome with terror and aſtoniſhment. The inhabitants expected Hanibal would ſhortly viſit their city: even the aged flew to arms, and appeared on the battlements with the weapons taken from their enemies in former wars, and which had long been hung up as trophies in their temples. B. C. 220.

Hannibal, inſtead of marching directly to Rome, imprudently moved towards the territory of Adria. The allies of Rome were alarmed. Sicily ſides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuſe, declares againſt the Romans, and almoſt all Italy abandons them. In this extremity Rome owes its preſervation to the courage and conduct of three great men; among whom, Fabius Maximus was the firſt who contributed in a great meaſure to ſave Rome from deſtruction. He was choſen dictator in this alarming criſis, and led his troops againſt the Carthagenian general. Hannibal did every thing in his power to bring the dictator to a deciſive engagement; but Fabius conſtantly declined the offer. Stratagems were uſed in vain; the Roman ſaw the ſnare, and carefully avoided it. He cut off the foraging parties of the Carthaginians, and perpetually haraſſed them in their march: the army of Hanibal was in danger of being deſtroyed without a battle. The recall of Fabius ſaved them from inevitable ruin. The new conſuls Varro and Paulus wanted the abilities of Fabius: they determined to bring on a deciſive engagement with the enemy. The two armies met in a large plain near the village of Cannæ. A dreadful battle enſued, in which the Romans were totally defeated. This was the greateſt blow that people ever received: above forty-five thouſand Romans, were left dead on the field of battle; and among them ſuch a number of knights that Hannibal is ſaid to have ſent three buſhels of their rings to carthage. B. C. 212.

Notwithſtanding theſe misfortunes, Rome had ſtill reſources. The young Scipio revived the drooping courage of his country. Though then only twenty-four years of age, he led a powerful army into Spain, where both his father and uncle had loſt their lives. But Scipio was not to be intimidated. He inveſted New Carthage, and took the city at the firſt aſſault. From Spain he paſſed into Africa, where the moſt powerful kings ſubmitted to his arms. Carthage trembled in her turn, and ſaw with terror her armies defeated. Hannibal was recalled to defend his courtry; his conqueſts in Italy were abandoned, and the defence B. C. 210. B. C. 202.

defence of Carthage was now the great object of that republic. But victory had now forſaken the ſtandards of Hannibal. His forces were defeated: Carthage became tributary to Rome; and after the deſtruction of that powerful ſtate the Romans obtained victories with much leſs difficulty: there was no power able to contend for any length of time with their victorious armies.

The ſtates of Greece, who had once more recovered their liberty, fell an eaſy prey to the Romans. Antiochus the Great ſent an army to their aſſiſtance; but they were eaſily defeated; and Antiochus himſelf was obliged to ſubmit to an infamous treaty. But ſtill the Romans purſued the maxims of Romulus, their great anceſtor. They permitted the ancient inhabitants to poſſeſs their country, and reſpective eſtates: they did not even change the form of their government, and the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people. They were however the moſt abject ſlaves, under the ſpacious title of allies. Mithridates, king of Pontus, was not indeed ſo eaſily reduced. He had great reſources. His people were ſtrong and vigorous, inured to hardſhips and fatigue. Fond of liberty, and true lovers of their country, they for many years ſupported themſelves againſt the veteran armes of Rome. But continual wars depopulated their country: defeat ſucceeded defeat, till at laſt Mithridates in a deciſive battle with Pompey, loſt at once his kingdom and his life.

B. C. 182.

B. C. 165.

In Africa the wars were bloody and of long continuance. Marius, one of the greateſt generals of Rome, at laſt, by conquering Jugurtha, put an end to the quarrels that had long waſted that country: Numidia was reduced under the Roman yoke. The ſouthern parts being thus conquered, Marius led his victorious legions towards the north. He croſſed the Alps, and was fortunate in every attempt. The barbarous nations fled before him, and ſought refuge in their foreſts and bogs. The Roman ſtandards were diſplayed in the kingdoms of the Gauls, the Cimbri, the Teutones, and other barbarous nations beyond the Alps.

B. C. 106.

But while Rome conquered the world, there ſubſiſted an internal war within her walls. After the expulſion of her king, Rome enjoyed but a partial liberty. The deſcendents of the ſenators, who were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Patricians, were inveſted with ſo many diſguſtful privileges, that the people felt for their dependence, and were determined to ſhake off the yoke. They plainly perceived there was no other method of healing the wounds of the republic, but by committing the ſupreme power to the care of a ſingle perſon. Dictators were therefore created, and intruſted with the royal power: but as ſoon as the time of office expired, the alarming convulſions of the ſtate returned. Before the Romans were acquainted with the luxuries of foreign nations; before the tide of conqueſt had rendered them haughty, and the wealth of Aſia, inſolent; theſe ſtruggles were never carried to extremeties: but when the delicacies of foreign nations had baniſhed frugality, and a deluge of corruption had ſwept virtue from the ſtate, Rome became a prey to her own children. The love of their country was now to the Romans little more than a ſpecious name; the better ſort were too wealthy and effeminate to ſubmit to the rigours of military diſcipline; the army was now no longer a band of citizens, the legions were compoſed of the refuſe of the people. The ſoldiers recognized no other power than that of their general: under his banners they conquered, and for him they were always ready to ſacrifice their lives; he might, whenever he pleaſed, lead them againſt the ſenate, nobles, or people. But the ſeveral armies, required to be kept on foot for ſecuring the numerous conqueſts, retarded the ſubverſion of the republic. Jealouſy, together with a deſire to preſerve their own independence, prompted them to watch the conduct of each other with the moſt aſſiduous attention. Marius would have been maſter of Rome, had not the ſoldiers of Sylla defeated his ambitious deſigns; but at length a general appeared, whoſe actions eclipſed the glory of all his cotemporaries.

B. C. 102.

Julius Cæſar, who planted the Roman eagles in Gaul, had nothing left to conquer but his country. Fired with the ambition of becoming maſter of the world, Cæſar paſſed the Rubicorn, and ſat down in the capitol of Rome. Pompey, the only general capable of oppoſing the conqueror of Gaul, was defeated at Pharſalia; and with him fell the liberty of the Roman ſtate. The ſenate was no more; its ſhadow only ſubſiſted; the power remained with Julius Cæſar. Rome received him as her maſter, and all the conquered nations laid their ſceptres at his feet.

B. C. 58.

But the love of liberty ſtill ſubſiſted in the breaſts of ſome of the citizens of Rome. Brutus and Caſſius undertook to free their country from the power of a tyrant. Cæſar was ſtabbed in the ſenate-houſe, and the patriots took up arms in defence of their liberties. But they gained not over to their intereſt the legions who had learned to conquer under the banners of Cæſar. Their army was defeated at Philippi, and three tyrants triumphed at Rome. Theſe wanted both the clemency and abilities of Cæſar; they rivalled him only in ambition. A triumvirate of dictators could not long ſubſiſt. Mark Antony, who alone had any pretenſions to the military talents of Cæſar, was ſoon enervated by the pleaſures of the Egyptian court; he preferred the charms of Cleopatra to the glories of conqueſt; and ſuffered Octavius, at the battle of Actium, to wreſt from his hand the ſceptre of the world.

B. C. 45.

B. C. 31.

At this period, Rome had no patriots left to ſupport her falling liberties: ſome fell at the battle of Philippi, and the reſt by the bloody proſcription of the tyrannical triumvirate. Octavius, under the name of Auguſtus, took the title of emperor, and ſat down unmoleſted on the throne of Cæſar. Theſe diſtractions of the empire had no effect on the military diſcipline of the Roman legions; they were the undiſputed maſters of the world, when Rome was without a chief. And no ſooner was Auguſtus eſtabliſhed on the throne, than ambaſſadors from all parts of the known world crowded to pay him homage, or court his friendſhip. Deputies from the burning ſands of Africa, the ſoft luxuriant plains of Aſia, and the frozen regions of the North of Europe, met at Rome to proclaim Auguſtus emperor of the world. The tumults of war ceaſed in every kingdom: the ſword of deſolation was ſheathed, and harmony ſucceeded to the diſcord of nations. Auguſtus ſhut the temple of Janus, and the Saviour of the world, the Prince of peace, was born.

Let us now, before we proceed to the hiſtory of the emperors that ſucceeded Auguſtus, conſider the ſtate of learning and the arts in this period of Roman greatneſs. In the infancy of the republic, and even long after the conſular government was eſtabliſhed, learning and the arts made very little progreſs at Rome. Agriculture and the cultivation of arms principally engaged their attention. An adequate idea may be formed of the little valve they placed upon works of art by the edict of Mummius, who, having deſtroyed the city of Corinth, ordered the pictures painted by the moſt eminent artiſts of Greece to be carried to Rome, with this remarkable caution, that if any were loſt in the paſſage, they ſhould be obliged to make up the number. Nor were the ſciences in more requeſt at Rome. In the time of Cato the elder, ſome of the ableſt philoſophers of Greece coming to Rome, he ordered them to depart the city, leſt the minds of the youth ſhould be enervated

vated by philoſophy, and rendered too ſoft for military achievements. For a loug ſeries of years there were no written laws at Rome; thoſe of Solon, brought from Greece, were the firſt that were known in that city. They were generally called the laws of the twelve tables, becauſe they were written in twelve departments: they were afterwards corrected by various decrees of the ſenate, orders of the people, and edicts of the prætors: and in them was contained the civil law of the Romans.

After the downfal of Carthage, the Romans, having no enemy to fear from abroad, began to taſte the ſweets of ſecurity, and to cultivate the arts of peace. The curious remains of the Grecian magnificence, which were ſent to Rome, inſpired them with a deſire of imitating the perfect models of the Greek artiſts. Whatever was elegant, curious, and beautiful, might be conſulted without trouble or expence. But the Romans, though undoubtedly great artiſts, never equally finiſhed the works of their maſters. Eloquence had been long ſtudied in Rome; but it did not reach its greateſt height till Cicero appeared; but his orations are inferior to thoſe of Demoſthenes. Cicero gave to eloquence all the graces of which it is ſuſceptible, without learning its ſolidity and gravity. He gave cadence and harmony to the Roman language, and enriched it with beauties before unknown: he was to Rome what Demoſthenes had been to Greece, the glory of his country; they both carried eloquence to the higheſt perfection it ever attained.

The poetry of Virgil is equal to any thing produced by the Greeks, except the Iliad of Homer. Like the proſe of Demoſthenes, the verſes of Virgil are inimitable. Horace, in his ſatires and epiſtles, had no model among the Greeks, and ſtands to this day unrivalled in that ſpecies of writing. Rome abounded in hiſtorians; among whom, Livy poſſeſſes all the natural eaſe of Herodotus, and is more deſcriptive, more eloquent, and ſentimental. Salluſt is generally ranked with Thucydides, and ſome have not ſcrupled to conſider him as the moſt excellent hiſtorian of antiquity. Tacitus did not flouriſh in the Auguſtan age; but he has acquired the greateſt honour by his works, while they reflect ignominy on his country and human nature, whoſe corruption and vices he paints in the moſt ſtriking colours. To write the life of Tiberius required the genius of Tacitus, who could unravel all the intrigues of the cabinet, aſſign the real cauſes of events, and withdraw the veil of deception, which concealed from the eyes of the public the real motives and ſprings of action.

The Romans never applied themſelves greatly to philoſophy. Lucretius, who delivered, in ſpirited verſification, the opinions of Epicurus, is the only philoſopher, except Cicero, whoſe writings have reached our times: a cloſe and aſſiduous ſearch into the operations of nature, was not perhaps agreeable to the genius of the Romans. In tragedy as comedy, the Romans never produced any thing that can bear the leaſt compariſon with the writers of Greece. The tragic poets hardly deſerve to be mentioned. Plautus and Terence are juſtly placed at the head of the comic poets of Rome; but neither were poſſeſſed of the vis comica, or lively vein of humour, which is eſſential to comedy, and which diſtinguiſhes the writings of the comic poets of Greece.

We are now arrived at an æra which preſents us with a ſet of monſters, under the name of emperors, who filled the throne of the Cæſars, and whoſe hiſtories, a few excepted, diſgrace human nature. The government of Rome ſoon degenerated into the moſt deſpotic tyranny: a people long celebrated for their liberty, were now reduced to the moſt abject ſtate of ſlavery. The army was in reality the ſovereign of Rome: and while the emperors inflicted the moſt inhuman cruelties on their ſubjects, they themſelves trembled at the power of the legions: the emperors were at once the tyrants of the people and the ſlaves of the army. To keep the turbulent legions (who too well knew their own power) employed, they were led againſt the barbarous nations beyond the Alps. The Germans, the Britons, and other nations of the North, were ſubdued; and the Roman arts and learning were introduced among the nations of diſtant countries. But this required abilities and perſeverance. Fond of their liberties, and ſtrangers to every thing but the neceſſaries of life, the ferocious inhabitants of the North long defended themſelves againſt the power of Rome. In their ſtruggles for liberty, their countries were laid waſte, and famine aſſiſted the Romans to plant their eagles in the countries inhabited by a barbarous people. Many kingdoms were depopulated; and the Romans marched to conqueſt through the blood of an innocent people, whoſe only crime was a love for their country: but conqueſt, which raiſed the Romans power to the ſummit of glory, proved at laſt its deſtruction. Its boundaries were extended to ſo enormous a diſtance, that the ſprings which gave motion to the political machine of government, loſt their force.

The northern tribes of barbarians who had been increaſed by the inhabitants of more ſouthern climes, driven from their country by the Roman legions, multiplied in ſo rapid a manner, that the barren mountains of the North could not afford them ſubſiſtence. They returned in colonies towards the ſouth, in ſearch of a more fruitful ſoil. The ſoft, delicious climate of Italy excited their deſires; they poured like a torrent from the Alps into the plains, ſweeping all before them. They purſued a very different maxim from the Romans: they ſought for a ſettlement, and therefore extirpated the inhabitants. The moſt dreadful ſcene of blood and ſlaughter marked the route of the barbarians. Before them the country exhibited the moſt lovely proſpect, ſmiling in all the beauties of nature, populous, and full of cities and villages; behind them, ſmoking deſerts, without inhabitants, and without a farm. The ſword of deſtruction was drawn, and the barbarians ſeverely retaliated on the Romans the miſeries their conquering legions had carried into other climes. Perhaps a more diſmal ſcene was never exhibited ſince the earth was peopled: cotemporary authors, who beheld that ſcene of deſolation, are at a loſs for expreſſions by which to deſcribe the horror of it: the Scourge of God, the Deſtroyer of Nations, are the dreadful epithets by which they diſtinguiſh the moſt noted of the barbarous leaders, who ſpared neither age, ſex, nor rank; all were ſwept away by thoſe cruel invaders, and fell together in one undiſtinguiſhed carnage; even Rome itſelf fell a victim to barbarity and fury. Theſe calamities befel the Roman empire between A. D. 395 and 571, when the eſtabliſhment of the Lombards in Italy commenced.

Conſtantine, the emperor, who had embraced Chriſtianity, transferred the ſeat of the empire from Rome to Conſtantinople. A. D. 328. By this impolitic meaſure, the weſtern and eaſtern provinces were ſeparated from each other, and governed by different ſovereigns. The former was ſtyled the weſtern, and the latter the eaſtern empire. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the eaſt, threw down the barriers of the weſtern empire, and laid it open to the northern invaders, who laid all the glories of the empire, vainly deemed immortal, in the duſt. The ancient military diſcipline of the Romans was ſo efficacious, that it muſt have proved an overmatch for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the univerſal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loſs to find new provocatives. The moſt diſtant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exerciſed, and the tribute of provinces expended upon

one favourite diſh. The tyranny and deplorable licentiouſneſs of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or Cæſars, as they are called, could only be equalled by the barbarity of thoſe nations who overcame them. With reſpect to the eaſtern empire, that ſtood firm, and for a conſiderable time defied all the attacks of the northern invaders; but at length the followers of Mahomet effected what the Goths and Vandals had attempted in vain: they reduced the whole empire, and the family of the Othmans filled the throne of Conſtantine.

A dreadful revolution in the republic of letters ſucceeded this change of inhabitants. And learning being driven from her favourite ſeat, took refuge in the plains of Arabia. The Mahometan princes grew polite in proportion as they grew powerful. The caliphs of Babylon, after a ſeries of ſucceſsful wars, ſpent their time in ſecurity, and revived the arts. The muſes for a time fixed their ſeat on the banks of the Euphrates. Aaron Rachild was more reſpected than any of his predeceſſors, and was obeyed from Spain to the Indies. This prince revived the ſciences, and cultivated the polite arts. The learned from all parts reſorted to his court, where they were at once careſſed and rewarded. Barbariſm was baniſhed from his extenſive dominions, and her place ſupplied by politeneſs. Under his government the Arabians, who had before adopted the Indian method of computation by the nine figures and a cypher, brought the improvement into Europe. From them the Europeans learned the courſe of the ſtars, and the nature of eclipſes. Benhonain, the aſtronomer, tranſlated the Almageſt of Ptolemy from the Greek into Arabic; and made ſeveral aſtronomical obſervations, then of great importance. The caliph Almamon cauſed a degree of the meridian to be meaſured, in order to determine the magnitude of the earth, above ſeven centuries before any thing of that kind was attempted in Europe. Avicnna and Averroes, two celebrated phyſicians, tranſlated the works of Ariſtotle into Arabic, when they were utterly unknown on this ſide of the Mediterranean. They cultivated phyſic and chemiſtry with great alacrity and ſucceſs: the latter may be ſaid to have been invented by the Arabians. The Chriſtians were then inſtructed by the Mahometans.

A new ſpecies of government, now known by the name of the Feudal Syſtem, was introduced by the northern barbarians, who deſtroyed the Roman empire. The confederacies entered into by the inhabitants of the North, were rather military than civil, under different leaders, to whom they were ſtrongly attached. When they eſtabliſhed themſelves in the empire, their chiefs diſtributed to the principal officers, under the burden of military ſervice, a proportion of the conquered territories; and theſe made a new partition among their ſoldiers under the ſame tenure. Theſe fiefs were ſubſtituted for pay, and were not conſidered as the property of their poſſeſſors. They were originally revokable at the pleaſure of the granter; but an attachment, which is naturally contracted for land, introducing the idea of property, the nature of theſe grants was inſenſibly altered; men were averſe to relinquiſhing lands they had for ſome time cultivated, and for which they had acquired an affection. Theſe fiefs were accordingly firſt changed into poſſeſſions for life, and afterwards became hereditary. The imprudence or weakneſs of ſovereigns allowed themſelves to be deprived of their territories. Their vaſſals roſe in independence; and their ſubjects who received protection from theſe, became more attached to them than to their ſovereigns. A multitude of inferior vaſſals conſtituted a formidable body under the great tenants of the crown; and the advantages of this aſſociation were ſo great, that fiefs were conſidered as preferable to free poſſeſſions. Thoſe, therefore, who were poſſeſſed of free lands, reſigned them, either to the prince, or ſome powerful noble, in order to receive them back in the form of fiefs. The earls who adminiſtered juſtice (for the civil was not yet ſeparated from the military power) finding their advantage in the fines and pecuniary emoluments reſulting to them as judges, found means to render the judicial power hereditary in their families. Thus the official power of the magiſtrates was in a manner converted into fiefs, and the crown was weakened by new encroachments on its prerogatives. The ſovereign, however, was ſtill conſidered as the head of this vaſt fabric of political ſubordination. Obliged to protect his vaſſals, he had a title to demand their aſſiſtance, both for his own defence, and for that of the ſtate. He ſummoned them to his court; and although their advice and concurrence was abſolutely neceſſary in all matters of moment, yet their attendance, in conſequence of his call, which, in one point of view, was a principal privilege, was, in another, conſidered as a burden, and a mark of their dependence. The inferior vaſſals were bound to perform the ſame duties ta the great barons, which theſe performed to the king; and thus a kingdom was conſidered as a great barony, and a barony as a ſmall kingdom. It was the natural ambition of every baron to render his authority as independent of the crown as poſſible, and to acquire new force and authority over his particular vaſſals. The natural conſequences of theſe Gothic inſtitutions were jealouſies, wars, and oppreſſions without number. The great baron took the advantage of granting his vaſſals the perpetual aſſiſtance they wanted, to acquire a deſpotic power over them. The manufacturer, and lower claſſes of men, languiſhed under the moſt inſupportable ſervitude; for valour and military qualities were then alone regarded.

An ariſtocracy, the moſt cruel mode of government, now prevailed, and ſtifled every principle of equity and of nature. The people perceived that they ought to exchange the dominion of ſeveral maſters, for the limited adminiſtration of a ſingle perſon. The European monarchs perceived the encroachment of the nobles, and the dreadful ſervitude of the ſubject. They ſaw the people were nothing better than ſlaves; and determined to ſupport them againſt the tyranny of the barons. They declared, that as all men were born free, they ſhould enjoy that liberty in reality as well as in name. But to effect this noble deſign, it was neceſſary to erect ſome intermediate power to counterbalance that of the barons, who enſlaved the people, and aſpired to give laws to the crown. A plan was therefore adopted, which fully anſwered the deſign. New priuileges were conferred on towns, in conſequence of which they became at once populous and rich. All marks of ſervitude were aboliſhed; they were formed into bodies corporate, and governed by magiſtrates and a council, choſen by themſelves. The very dawn of liberty rouſed all the powers of the human mind into action. A ſpirit of induſtry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and was cultivated with ſucceſs by many of the powers of Europe. The invention of the mariner's compaſs greatly facilitated the communication between one nation and another, and conſequently opened new ſources of commerce.

The cities of Alexandria and Conſtantinople had long carried on a very conſiderable trade with Indoſtan; the precious commodities of India were not unknown in Europe. The Cruſades, which robbed Europe of her inhabitants, were the cauſe of opening a trade between the ſtates of Italy and the Eaſt. Venice became very powerful by her commerce: ſhe for ſome time engroſſed the commodities of India, and diſperſed them all over Europe. The Genoeſe, by ſending proviſions to the cruſaders along he coaſt of Aſia Minor, became rich and powerful; at the ſame time they gained ſome knowledge of the Indian trade,

trade, which had been the great ſource of wealth to the Venetians. They opened a communication with the Eaſt, and became ſharers in the advantageous commerce of Indoſtan. By the riches they drew from this ſource, theſe two rival ſtates became formidable to all the powers of Europe. At laſt the Portugueſe diſcovered a paſſage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, and wholly engroſſed the trade of the eaſtern parts of Aſia. Deſirous of continuing to his country ſome part of the eaſtern commerce, Chriſtopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, propoſed ſailing to India by a weſtern courſe. This offer, however, was rejected at Genoa, and Spain reaped the benefit of his diſcoveries. He failed in queſt of the Indies, but he found a new world. Spain became miſtreſs of a larger empire than that of Rome in the height of her glory.

The inhabitants of Europe now began to emerge out of that darkneſs in which they had been involved ſince the ſubverſion of the Roman empire, a ſpace of near twelve centuries. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts and ſciencies, hiſtory and philoſophy, and, laſtly the happy reformation of religion, all diſtinguiſh the 15th and 16th centuries as the firſt æra of modern hiſtory. The political principles and maxims then eſtabliſhed, ſtill continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced; or rendered general, ſtill influence, in ſome degree, the councils of European nations, and happily concur in ſecuring the different empires from the encroachments of their ambitious neighbours, who, in contending for univerſal monarchy, cannot fail to weaken their own force, and may at length render themſelves incapable of defending their juſt poſſeſſions.

The partial conqueſts aſpiring monarchs may make, will rather tend to oppoſe, than to promote their deſigns. A prince may form a deliberate plan of deſtroying, by ſlow degrees, the rights of his ſubjects, and his ſucceſſor may follow his example; but external conqueſts are always leſs ſolid than brilliant, and commonly occaſion more fear than hurt. The aſpiring prince, who, has unfortunately been a conqueror, is commonly reduced in the end to the laſt extremeties by the alarms his conqueſts excite, and the confederacies they give occaſion to. How contrary ſoever this doctrine may be to the prejudices and views of a victorious and powerful nation, it is nevertheleſs well eſtabliſhed in the ſcience of politics, and has been confirmed by experience and examples both ancient and modern.

The truth of the above aſſertion will appear in a great variety of lights, if we take a retroſpective view of the conduct of the Grecian ſtates when delivered from the terror of the Perſian invaſions. The moſt inconſiderable of theſe little ſocieties imbibed the frenzy of conqueſt, and by this frenzy was reduced, in its turn, to the utmoſt miſery and diſtreſs; a full illuſtration of this ſubject, the reader will find in Iſocrates's Oration on the Peace. If there be occaſion to mention modern examples, France affords a very ſtriking one. The humiliating circumſtances that ambitious monarch Lous XIV. was reduced to, are well known, the cauſe of which himſelf lamented on his death-bed; and the nerves of that kingdom have been ſince ſtrained ſo far beyond their ſtrength, by an unbounded thirſt of acquiſition, that it ſeemed hardly poſſible they ſhould recover their natural tone in the courſe of this century. In the war of 1756, the debility of their efforts ſhewed the grounds of the evil, and the inefficacy of a ſudden and precipitate remedy; but has not the Britiſh cabinet greatly contributed to reſtore and augment the navy of France, by agitating a civil war with the North Americans? Who does not know that the houſe of Auſtria excited the terror of all Europe, before it excited the pity of Great-Britain! That family, which had once been the object of fear, became at length the object of compaſſion. Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, was poſſeſſed of territories which exceeded in riches and extent the moſt powerful empires of antiquity, but theſe were not ſufficient to gratify the ambition of that monarch; and his whole reign exhibited a ſcene of hoſtility againſt his neighbours. One of his ſucceſſors, the late empreſs-queen, and the repreſentative of that family, was, however, upon the death of her father, not only ſtripped of her dominions, but reduced ſo low as to be in want of neceſſaries; and contributions were actually raiſed for her in Great-Britain, whoſe king, George II. engaged in her cauſe, and reinſtated her upon the imperial throne, at the expence of this nation.—Great-Britain enjoyed, for a ſeries of years, the greateſt degree of proſperity and glory; which ſhould have induced her to be more attentive to preſerve ſo brilliant an exiſtence; but as a great empire cannot be continued in a flouriſhing ſituation unleſs governed by moderation and wiſdom; ſo the unhappy conteſt of Great-Britain with her colonies in America, through the folly, arrogance, or arbitrary deſigns of her then miniſters of ſtate, has plunged her into the greateſt difficulties; her national debt has been augmented to an enormous ſum, her taxes increaſed ſo as to become an almoſt inſupportable burden, and her trade ſenſibly diminiſhed. That this once flouriſhing kingdom may be again reſtored to her former ſplendor and tranquility, in conſequence of the late peace with America, and the other belligerent powers, is an æra more devoutly to be wiſhed for, than expected.

PART. III.

OF RELIGION.

THE attention and capacity of mankind have in all ages been as it were on the ſtretch in order form adequate conceptions of the Supreme Being; but experience has evinced all their inquiries concerning the Deity to be fruitleſs, for "who by ſearching can find out God?" Men, in general, being unable to elevate their ideas to all the ſublimity of his perfections, have too often brought them down to the degrading level of their own ideas. This obſervation may be more directly applied to thoſe nations whoſe religion was founded partly on their own natural feelings, the faint glimmerings of unenlightened reaſon, but more frequently the irregular paſſions of the human heart, and who had moreover received no light from heaven, reſpecting this important, this awful object.

In giving the hiſtory of religion, a proper diſtinction ſhould always be attended to; we muſt ſeparate what is human from what is divine; what had its origin by particular revelations, from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unaſſiſted operations of the human mind. Hence we find, that the religion of the eaſtern nations was, in the moſt early ages, pure and luminous: it originated from a divine ſource, and was neither obſcured nor diſfigured by the caprice or inventions of men. But we find that in proceſs of time theſe began to take effect, inſomuch that the ray of tradition was not only obſcured; but totally obliterated from the minds of thoſe tribes who ſeparated at the greateſt diſtance, and in the ſmalleſt numbers, from the more improved ſocieties of men.

Depraved and ignorant as the generality of mankind were reſpecting the nature and perfections of God, their dependence upon, and obligations to him; yet the moſt barbarous nations have always paid their homages to ſome deity, although they have been under great miſtakes in their notions and concluſions about him. In this ſituation, God ſelected to himſelf

ſelf a peculiar people to be the depoſitaries of his laws and worſhip; but left the reſt of mankind to form confuſed and erroneous hypotheſes upon theſe ſubjects.

Polytheiſm, or the doctrine of a plurality of gods, was the moſt common religion of antiquity; and this prevailed the longeſt, and ſpread the wideſt. The ancient polytheiſm does not appear to be the fruit of philoſophical ſpeculations, nor of disfigured traditions, concerning the nature of the Divine Being; but to have ariſen during the rudeſt ages of ſociety, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were ſubject to the tyrannical influence of paſſion and the wild dreams of imagination. Their religion, therefore, was founded ſolely upon ſentiment; each tribe of men had not only their favourite heroes, but their gods likewiſe: thoſe heroes who led them forth to battle, who had the chief rank in their councils, whoſe image was inſcribed on their fancy, and whoſe exploits were impreſſed on their memory, enjoyed, even after death, an exiſtence in the imagination of their followers and adherents. They had alſo two orders of gods, the propitious, and the hoſtile, the gods who were to be loved, and thoſe who were to be feared.

The heathens had alſo a celebrated diviſion of their gods into *dii majorum gentium*, and *dii minorum gentium;* that is, into the ſuperior and inferior gods. Another diviſion was taken from their place of reſidence; thus there were celeſtial, terreſtrial, infernal, marine, and ſylvan gods. They were alſo divided into animal and natural gods; the animal gods were mortals who had been raiſed to divinity by ignorance and ſuperſtition, ſuch as the heroes above-mentioned; and the natural gods, the parts of nature, ſuch as the ſtars, the elements, mountains, rivers, &c. There were alſo deities who were ſuppoſed to preſide over particular perſons; ſome had the care of women in childbirth; others, the care of young children and young perſons; and others were the deities of marriage. Each action, virtue, and profeſſion had alſo its particular god: the ſhepherds had their Pan; the gardeners, their Flora; the learned, their Mercury and Minerva; and the poets, their Apollo and the Muſes. The ancients, in general, made their gods ſubject to all the paſſions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many inſtances diſcovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not indeed eat and drink the ſame ſubſtances with men, but they lived on nectar and ambroſia; they had a particular pleaſure in ſmelling the ſteam of the ſacrifices, and they made love with a ferocity unknown in northern climates.

It is, however, thought by moſt learned men, that the Pagans acknowledged but one God; and that the many different divinities worſhipped by them, were but attributes and actions of one and the ſame God. This may probably be true of the wiſer heathens; and indeed there are many ſtrong and beautiful paſſages in pagan authors, to prove that they acknowledged but one God. Anaxagoras, who flouriſhed 430 years before the Chriſtian æra, was the firſt, even in Greece, that publicly announced the exiſtence of one Creator and Governor of the Univerſe. Pythagoras likewiſe taught the unity of God, and defined him to be a mind penetrating and diffuſing itſelf through all the parts of the univerſe, from which all animals receive life; and Plato called God the being which is; and whenever he mentioned the Deity, it was always in the ſingular number.

But, of all others, the Chriſtian religion is demonſtratively of divine original, from the ſublimity of its faith, excellency of its morals, and the purity of its precepts. It conſiſts not in idle philoſophical ſpeculations, or perpetual grimace and affectation, but in a ſteady practice of the duties it requires, without the leaſt view of recompence from men; it neither ſeeks their admiration, nor attempts to dazzle their eyes and deceive them: there is no religion which ſo much excites a man to the love and practice of virtue, and hatred of vice, or that preſcribes greater rewards for one, or puniſhments for the other. This religion, in regard to the practice of it, conſiſts in the moſt exact imitation, that can poſſibly be conceived, of the infinite perfections of the Supreme Being: from hence we may derive that ſolid virtue, that power (reſulting from a divine principle implanted in the mind) which it gives to ſubdue our paſſions, and that ſatisfaction which we receive from the obſervance of thoſe laws which God has preſcribed to mankind. The characters of Chriſtianity are perfectly conformable to the attributes of the Divine Majeſty. The moral part never indulges the paſſions, it has no other view than the preſervation and happineſs of mankind: nor have the moſt inveterate enemies of the Chriſtian faith ever invented any thing but what was much inferior to it, both in practice and ſpeculation.

In time, however, Chriſtianity became corrupted by the introduction of worldly maxims, very inconſiſtent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy; which at length occaſioned the elevation and exorbitant claims of the biſhop of Rome. The power of the pope, as univerſal biſhop, and head of the church, or, in other words, the papal ſupremacy, owed its origin to the worſt of men; was procured by the baſeſt means, by flattering a tyrant (Phocas) in his wickedneſs and tyranny; and, according to the judgment of Gregory the Great, was in itſelf antichriſtian, heretical, blaſphemous, and diabolical. The biſhops of Rome, by availing themſelves of every circumſtance which fortune threw in their way, ſlowly erected the fabric of their antichriſtian power, at firſt an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The cauſes of its happy diſſolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The ſcandalous lives of the Popiſh clergy, their ignorance, and tyranny, together with the deſire natural to ſovereigns, of delivering themſelves from a foreign yoke; the opportunity of applying to national uſes the immenſe ſums which had been diverted to the ſervice of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conſpired with the ardour of the firſt reformers, and haſtened the progreſs of the Reformation, which began by Luther in Germany in the year 1517, and took place in England in 1534; for when once the eyes of the public were opened, they could plainly perceive the unreaſonableneſs of the claims of the church of Rome; that many of her doctrines were unſcriptural, corrupt, and irrational, and after a very fair and impartial examination, moſt of her abſurd mummeries and ſuperſtitions were juſtly condemned and exploded both by argument and ridicule. The ſervices of the reformers in this reſpect, demand our admiration and gratitude; but, involved as they had been in the darkneſs of ſuperſtition, it was not to be expected but that they ſhould ſtill retain ſome errors, an attachment to ſome abſurd doctrines, and too much of the intolerant ſpirit of the corrupt and arbitrary church from which they had ſeparated themſelves; but ſince, with all their defects, theſe pious and learned men were honoured in being the inſtruments, through Divine Providence, of bringing about an event highly favourable to the civil and religious rights of mankind, they have certainly a juſt claim to our veneration and eſteem.

A NEW

A Map of EUROPE From the best Authorities

A NEW

HISTORICAL AND COMMERCIAL

SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY.

EUROPE.

INTRODUCTION.

EUROPE, though by far the ſmalleſt diviſion of the globe, is in many reſpects ſuperior to the other three, and that which particularly deſerves our attention. It is ſituated between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude, and between the 10th degree weſt, and 65th degree eaſt longitude, computed from the meridian of London; being 3000 miles in length from Cape St. Vincent in the weſt, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north-eaſt; and 2500 in breadth from north to ſouth, from the north Cape in Norway to Cape Cayha or Metapar in the Morea, the moſt ſouthern promontory in Europe. It is bounded on the north, by the Frozen Ocean; on the eaſt, by Aſia; on the ſouth, by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the weſt, by the Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America.

This quarter of the globe, though the leaſt extenſive, is beyond compariſon the moſt happy and valuable part of it, both with regard to religion, arts, learning, riches, and commerce. It juſtly claims a pre-eminence over the other parts, becauſe the human mind hath here made the greateſt progreſs in whatſoever is uſeful and ornamental to mankind in general. The mildneſs of the climates of moſt parts of Europe, the fertility of its ſoil, which produces every thing neceſſary for the ſupport, and even luxury of human life; the flouriſhing ſtate of the arts and ſciences; and the nature of the ſeveral governments, which are far leſs deſpotic, and far more equitable than thoſe of either Aſia or Africa; render this the moſt deſirable quarter of the terraqueous globe for the reſidence of a rational being. To theſe advantages we may add, that no part of it is ſituated within the torrid, and but a ſmall portion within the frigid zone; and the difference of its face, or variety of its ſurface, by ſeas, rivers, mountains, &c. which are at once innumerable and beneficial, contribute greatly to its ſuperiority.

The preſent inhabitants of the principal ſtates of Europe are deſcended from thoſe multitudes of northern people who deſtroyed the Roman empire. Conſtantine the Great had ſome time before removed the ſeat of empire from Rome to Conſtantinople, and this occaſioned its fall. The Viſigoths forced a paſſage into Italy, ſacked Rome in the year 409, and ſettled in Italy, Languedoc, and Spain. The provinces of Gaul fell to the ſhare of the Franks and Burgundians, and ſtill retain the name of their conquerors. About the ſame time the Hunns ſubdued Pannonia, and called it Hungary after their own name. The Britons, being expelled from their habitations by their foreign allies, croſſed the Severn, and took refuge in the lofty mountains of Wales, the inhabitants of which principality are ſaid to be immediately deſcended from the original natives of Britain, and to retain their language in its purity.

The languages of Europe are derived from ſix radical ones, namely, 1. Latin, of which the Italian, French, and Spaniſh, are dialects. 2. Teutonic, from whence proceed the German, Dutch, Swediſh, Daniſh, and Engliſh tongues. 3. Sclavonian, which reigns in different dialects in Poland, Muſcovy, Bohemia, and a great part of Turkey in Europe. 4. The Celtic, of which there are remaining dialects in Wales, Ireland, the Highlands of Scotland, Brittany in France, and Lapland. 5. Greek, of which ſeveral dialects are ſpoken in the Morea, and the iſlands of the Levant. 6. Gothic, ſome remains of which are preſerved in the iſlands of the Baltic, and the ſouthern parts of Sweden. To theſe we may add the languages ſpoken in Turkey and Little Tartary as European languages.

Moſt of the European governments are monarchical; but many, if not all of them, are checked by a variety of little ſprings which break their force, and ſoften their rigour. But beſides monarchical there are ariſtocratical and republican governments in Europe. Venice is an ariſtocratical ſtate, where the government is in the hands of the nobles; and Holland is a democracy, or government of the people. Great Britain is a government of a very ſingular kind, conſiſting of the three ſpecies above-mentioned, and partakes of all the benefits, while it rejects the inconveniencies annexed to them. The other mixed governments of Europe, as Poland, Sweden, &c. are compoſed of two only of the ſimple forms; as will be explained in their proper places.

The Chriſtian religion is eſtabliſhed in every part of Europe, except the diſtricts poſſeſſed by the Turks, where the Mahometan tenets are profeſſed. The Chriſtians are divided into a number of different ſects, which may be comprehended under three general denominations; namely, 1. The Greek church; 2. Popery; and 3. Proteſtantiſm: which laſt is again divided into Lutheraniſm and Calviniſm, ſo called from Luther and Calvin, the two eminent reformers of the 16th century: but all their principles are founded upon the ſame baſis, ſince they all acknowledge Chriſt to be the Redeemer of mankind, and that the ſcriptures were written by divine inſpiration.

The following Table contains the principal Kingdoms and States of Europe, their Length, Breadth, Chief Cities, Distances and Bearings from London, Difference of Time from London, and their Religions.

Nations.		Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	Distance from London.	Bearing from London.	Religions.
Including the general Names of	Groenland, Greenland, Lapland	Uncertain.		.....	.....	.....	.....
	Norway	1000	300	Bergen	540	N.	Lutherans
	Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	500	N. E.	
	Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	750	N. E.	
	Ruſſia	1500	1100	Peterſburgh	1140	N. E.	Greek Church
	Poland	700	680	Warſaw	760	E.	Papiſts, Luth. and Calv
	King of Pruſſia's Dominions	Uncertain, from the continual fluctuation in the affairs of the different monarchs.		Berlin	540	E.	Lutherans and Calviniſts
	Germany	600	500	Vienna	600	E.	Papiſts, Luth. and Calv.
	Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600	E.	Papiſts
	Holland	150	100	Amſterdam	180	E.	Calviniſts
	Flanders	200	200	Bruſſels	180	S. E.	Papiſts
	France	600	500	Paris	200	S E.	
	Spain	700	500	Madrid	800	S.	
	Portugal	300	100	Liſbon	850	S. W.	
	Switzerland	260	100	Bern	420	S. E.	Calviniſts and Papiſts
Italy.	Popedom, or Eccleſiaſtical State	240	120	Rome	820	S. E.	Papiſts
	Naples	280	120	Naples	870	S. E.	
	Piedmont	140	98	Turin	.....	.....	
	Montferrat	40	22	Caſal	.....	.....	
	Milan	155	70	Milan	.....	.....	
	Parma	48	37	Parma	.....	.....	
	Modena	65	39	Modena	.....	.....	
	Mantua	47	27	Mantua	.....	.....	
	Venice	175	95	Venice	.....	.....	
	Genoa	160	25	Genoa	.....	.....	
	Tuſcany	115	94	Florence	.....	.....	
	Hungary	300	200	Buda	780	S. E.	
Turkey in Europe.	Danubian Provinces	600	420	Conſtantinople	1320	S. E.	Mahometans and Greek Church.
	Little Tartary	380	240	Caffa	1500	E.	
	Greece	400	240	Athens	1360	S. E.	

EUROPE contains the following ISLANDS.

Where ſituated.	Names.	Chief Towns.	Subject to
In the Northern Ocean	Iceland	Skalholt	Denmark
Baltic Sea	Zealand, Funen, Alſen, Falſter, Langland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm	.....	Ditto
	Gothland, Aland, Rugen	.....	Sweden
	Oſel, Dagho	.....	Ruſſia
	Uſedom, Wollin	.....	Pruſſia
Atlantic Ocean	Great-Britain	London & Edinburgh	Great-Britain
	Ireland	Dublin	Ditto
	Angleſey	Beaumaris	Ditto
	Wight	Newport	Ditto
	Scilly	.....	Ditto
	Man	Douglas	Ditto
	The Hebrides or Weſtern Iſles	Durart	Ditto
	Orcades	Pomona	Ditto
	Shetland	Larwick	Ditto
Engliſh Channel	Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, and Sark	.....	Ditto
Mediterranean Sea	Ivica	Ivica	Spain
	Majorca	Majorca	Ditto
	Minorca	Port Mahon	Ditto
	Corſica	Baſtia	France
	Sardinia	Cagliari	Sardinia
	Sicily	Palermo	Two Sicilies
Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice	Luſiana, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia	.....	Venice
Archipelago and Levant Seas	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mitylene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece	.....	Turkey

CHAP. I.

WEST GREENLAND.

Description of the Country, Climate, Soil, Vegetable and Animal Productions, &c.

WEST GREENLAND, otherwiſe called Old Greenland, or Groenland, begins in 59 deg. 50 min. north lat. The eaſtern coaſt is ſuppoſed to extend as far northward as Spitzbergen, or Eaſt Greenland; and the weſtern part is only ſeparated by a channel of 40 miles in breadth. The weſtern ſhore has been diſcovered higher than the 70th deg. of north lat. The country is exceeding mountainous; and the mountains are ſo very high that they may be diſcerned at ſea at the diſtance of 30 leagues. The inland mountains and hills are perpetually covered with ſnow; but the low lands on the ſea ſide are, in ſummer, clothed with verdure. The coaſt is difficult of acceſs, on account of the great number of rocks with which the ſurrounding ſeas, and the mouths of the Greenland rivers, abound, independent of the vaſt mountains of floating ice which ſeem to threaten with deſtruction the adventurous navigator.

The climate, from the moſt ſoutherly part of Greenland to the 68th deg. of north lat. is not ſo ſevere as might at firſt be imagined. The ſummer includes the latter end of May, the whole of June, July, and Auguſt, and half the month of September; during which the weather is generally warm: while the wind blows eaſterly the ſky is always ſerene, but when it veers to the other points, ſtorms are ſure to enſue. The ſea coaſt is generally infeſted with unhealthy and diſagreeable fogs, which are, however, ſo fattening to the land, that the ſhores are covered with verdure; but the inland mountains are capped with ſnow perpetually.

The weather, to the northward of the 68th deg. is much more ſevere, and the cold ſo very intenſe, that even in the midſt of ſummer the very ſtrongeſt ſpirituous liquors will freeze cloſe to the fire-ſide. The winter in this part continues from September to May, and ſometimes June, during which time the ſea is covered with vaſt mountains of ice.—"Nothing (ſays an eminent writer) can exhibit a more dreadful, and, at the ſame time, a more dazzling appearance than thoſe prodigious maſſes of ice that ſurround the whole coaſt in different forms of rocks, caſtles, towers, and ſpires, reflecting a variety of colours according to the nature of the concrete, and floating from place to place, as if the whole ſcene was illuſion, or enchantment; ſuch are the proſpects they yield in calm weather, but when the winds begin to blow, and the ſea to ſwell in vaſt ſucceſſive billows, the conflict of thoſe congregated bodies of ice encountering, daſhing, cracking, burſting, and ſhivering into ten thouſand fragments, fills the eye and ear with terror and aſtoniſhment.

Thunder and lightning ſeldom diſturb the air of Greenland, which, however, is ſubject to many other natural phænomena, ſuch as ſhooting ſtars, and in particular the aurora borealis, or northern lights. In the ſpring of the year, and about the new moon, this phænomenon appears ſo univerſally bright over the face of the whole northern ſky, darting its rays, and glaring with ſuch radiancy, as to afford ſufficient light whereby to read.

There is no night at the ſummer ſolſtice, and people who reſide here have the pleaſure to ſee the ſun turn about the horizon all the twenty-four hours: but in the depth of winter they have but little comfort in that planet, the nights being proportionably long; yet they can ſee to travel up and down the country, though ſometimes it is neither moon-ſhine or ſtar-light. The temperature of the air is not unwholeſome; for, except the ſcurvy, and the diſtemper of the lungs, the inhabitants know nothing of many other diſeaſes with which other countries are plagued; and theſe pectoral infirmities are not ſo much the effects of the exceſſive cold, as of the foggy weather, to which this country is very much ſubject. From the beginning of April to the end of July is the foggy ſeaſon; and from that time the fog daily decreaſes. But as in the ſummer-time they are troubled with fogs, ſo in the winter ſeaſon they are plagued with the vapour called froſt-ſmoke, which, when the cold is exceſſive, riſes out of the ſea, as the ſmoke out of a chimney, and is as thick as the groſſeſt miſt, eſpecially in bays, where any opening in the ice is found.

A wonderful harmony and correſpondence is obſerved in Greenland between fountains and the main ſea: at ſpring tides in new and full moon, when the ſtrongeſt ebbing is at ſea, the hidden fountains or ſprings of freſh water break out on the ſhore, and diſcover themſelves often in places where they might be little expected, eſpecially in winter, when the ground is covered with ice and ſnow; yet there are no water ſprings in thoſe places at other times.

In Greenland the hills are barren, and indeed frozen all the year; the low lands are tolerably fertile, particularly towards the ſea. A few oak trees are found in the ſouthern parts near the States Promontory. In theſe particular parts the meadows are rich in graſs: turnips and coleworts are eaſily raiſed, and excellently flavoured: underwood, which grows to a vaſt height, is plentiful: birch, elm, and willows are not ſcarce, and juniper-berries grow in abundance. The herb angelica grows wild, and is found in great profuſion: it is endued with a turpentine flavour, and yields an aromatic oil, which is extracted by diſtillation.

A pleaſant and ſalutary kind of ſcurvy-graſs grows in great plenty on the ſhores, and the mountains near the bays and creeks are covered with wild thyme. A ſpecies of graſs bearing yellow flowers, the herb tormentil, and many other plants, herbs, and vegetables, abound in this country. The fruits of Greenland are bramble-berries, bilberries, blue-berries, and juniper-berries. Here it is to be obſerved, when any thing is ſaid relative to the fertility of Greenland, that the ſouthern parts are only meant, for in the northern parts no herbs and plants will grow.

Various metals are produced in Greenland: to the ſouthward of the Dutch colony copper ore is found. Mr. Egede once received a lump of ore from a Greenlander, and himſelf found calamine of a yellow colour. He likewiſe ſent a conſiderable quantity of yellow ſand mixed with vermillion ſtreaks to the Bergen company, who, by letter, requeſted him to procure as much as poſſible of that commodity: he could not, however, execute his commiſſion, as he was never after able to find the place where he got the firſt ſpecimen: it was, it ſeems, one of the ſmalleſt among a great cluſter of iſlands, and the mark he had ſet up was blown down by a ſtorm, ſo that he could not trace out the ſpot a ſecond time.

Red and white rock cryſtals are the produce of this country; and a baſtard marble, of various colours, is very plentiful about the Daniſh colony, which is known by the name of Good Hope; of the latter the natives make bowls, lamps, pots, and crucibles. The ſeas and bays, beſides a variety of beautiful ſhells, yield great quantities of excellent coral. But one of the greateſt natural curioſities of this country is the aſbeſtos, or amianthus, which has the vulgar appellation of earth-flax, and is a fibrous, flexible, and mineral ſubſtance, compoſed

of ſhort and abrupt filaments. It is a ſtony concrete, of the talcky kind, though differing from talc in its external appearance. It is neither ſo bright, ſo ſmooth, or ſo unctuous, and is not compoſed of leaves or plates, but of long filaments, like flax. It has been ſpun into cloth, and formed into paper, both of an incombuſtible nature, and not to be conſumed by fire. Some kinds have filaments that are rigid and brittle, and others more flexible. The firſt cannot be ſpun, or formed into cloth; the latter may, but not without difficulty. This manufacture appears to have been known to the ancients, who, according to Pliny, wrapped the bodies of the dead in cloth made of earth-flax, to preſerve their aſhes ſeparate from thoſe of the funeral pile, an uſe to which ſome of the Tartarian chiefs ſtill apply this kind of cloth.

This country is not infeſted with any ravenous animal, the great white bear excepted, which, however, very ſeldom appears near the Daniſh colony. The quadrupedes of Greenland are dogs, foxes, hares, and rein-deer. The dogs are large and rough, white or ſpeckled; and their ears ſtand upright, which is a peculiarity belonging to curs in general in all cold climates. Theſe dogs are timorous and ſtupid, do not bark, but make a moſt diſmal howling at times. In the northern parts they are rendered of infinite ſervice, as the natives there yoke them to ſledges, which, when heavy laden, they are able to draw upon the ice at the rate of ſeventy miles a day. Theſe poor uſeful animals, are however, very ill rewarded for their ſervices, being left to provide for themſelves, except when their owners happen to be ſucceſsful in taking a great number of ſeals, at which times their maſters gratify them with a meal, compoſed of the entrails and blood. The foxes appear of different colours, white, grey, and blueiſh. They are neither ſo hairy, or ſo large, as thoſe of Denmark and Norway. Hares are found in Greenland in great abundance: they are of a white colour, very fat in ſummer, and of an exquiſite flavour. Rein-deer feed in great herds, and are hunted all the ſummer by the natives, who are uſually accompanied by their wives and children in theſe excurſions, and in purſuit of their game will penetrate very far into the country.

Lizards, ſerpents, toads, newts, &c. are unknown in Greenland; but gnats ſwarm, and are exceedingly troubleſome in the ſummer time.

Here are vaſt numbers of partridges, which are white in winter, and grey in ſummer; as well as ſparrows, linnets, ſnow-birds, and ice-birds. A great many ravens hover about the huts of the Greenlanders, as, near the habitations of theſe people, the ground is uſually ſtrewed with offals of ſeals, and other fiſh. Greenland likewiſe abounds with eagles and falcons of a prodigious ſize, and large ſpeckled owls.

Bees, waſps, ſpiders, and flies, are the inſects of this country. The people, however, are not plagued with beetles, ants, mice, or rats.

The inhabitants are fond of the ſeal, which contributes at once to their ſuſtenance and conveniency. There is ſome difference in ſeals, but the moſt remarkable ſpecies is that called the Cap-miſs, which appellation it receives from the cap, or cawl, with which it covers its head occaſionally. The head itſelf reſembles that of a dog with cropped ears, his ſnout is bearded like a cat, his eyes are large, and his teeth ſharp. His ſkin is covered with a ſhort thick fur, which is white, black, brown, or tawny: he is web-footed, which is a great convenience to him in ſwimming; and he ſeems to drag himſelf along, rather than walk. Seals are from five to eight feet in length. The fat of this creature furniſhes the Greenlanders with oil, the

† fleſh with food, the ſkin with clothing, and with coverings for their huts and boats.

The Greenland ſeas abound alſo with turbot, cod, haddock, ſcate, ſalmon, halibut, cat-fiſh, roe-fiſh, ſtents, whitings, bream, muſcles, crabs, ſhrimps, and other fiſh. Under the article of Eaſt or New Greenland, that aſtoniſhing creature the whale will be amply deſcribed from ſome late minute obſervations.

The principal ſea-fowl in Greenland, is the edder-fowl, ſwarms of which, at times, ſeem to cover the whole ſurface of the ocean. In the warm ſeaſon infinite numbers of them hover about the Daniſh colony every evening, and take their flight to the ſea regularly the enſuing morning. In ſpring they retire to the iſlands to lay their eggs, and hatch their young, and return to the continent about June or July. The Greenlanders are very fond of their eggs and their young, but make no manner of uſe of their fine down feathers, which are excellent in their kind, and to be found in and about their neſts in large quantities.

Three ſpecies of ducks are found in, or frequent Greenland. The firſt, which is of the tame duck kind, has fine ſpeckled feathers, and lays and hatches its eggs in the iſlands, returning afterwards with its young to the continent. The ſecond ſort is ſmaller, has a long pointed bill, frequents only freſh waters, and builds its neſt in the flags, or reeds of rivers. The third kind, which is the largeſt of all, has the appellation of the wood-duck, and is diſtinguiſhed by a black breaſt and grey belly. The alkes is another kind of ſea fowl, which the Greenlanders are fond of feeding on; it is leſs than a duck, and of a rancid taſte. But the moſt beautiful ſea bird of theſe parts is the tungoviarſek. This bird is not bigger than a lark, but its feathers are uncommonly elegant. Swarms of wild geeſe come to the northern parts of Greenland, from more ſouthern climates, in the ſpring; and breed, and quit the place at the commencement of winter. Many ſea-mews build in the rocks and cliffs; and ſea-terns lay their eggs on the iſlands about Greenland. Lundes, or Greenland ſea-parrots, are common here, as are ſea-earnes, and ſea-ſnipes.

Various authors concur in opinion, that the native or original Greenlanders are deſcended from the Schrellings, who formerly exterminated the Iceland ſettlers. Theſe people bear a near reſemblance to the Laplanders and Samoides, in their perſons, complexions, and way of life. There will always be found a ſtrong affinity between the cuſtoms of different nations living in the ſame kind of climate, expoſed to the ſame wants and neceſſities, and involved in the ſame ignorance and brutality.

The Greenlanders are ſhort of ſtature, thick made, and inclined to be fat: their faces are bread, their lips thick, and their noſes flat. They have black hair and eyes, and yellow complexions, poſſeſs health and vigour, but have very ſhort lives. Their clothes are, for the moſt part, made of rein-deer or ſeal-ſkins; as alſo of birds ſkins, nicely dreſſed and prepared.

The men's habits are, a coat or jacket, with a cape or hood ſewed to it, to cover the head and ſhoulders. This coat reaches nearly to the knees. Their breeches are very ſmall, not coming above their loins, that they may not hinder them in getting into their boats; and the hair of the ſkins the coat is made of is turned inward to keep them warm. Over this coat they put on a large frock, made of ſeal-ſkins dreſſed and tanned, without hair, in order to keep out the water; and thus they are dreſſed when they go to ſea. Between the leathern frock and the under coat they wear a linen ſhirt, or, for want of linen, one made of ſeals guts, which

alſo

alſo helps to keep out the water from the under coat. Of late they appear ſometimes in more gaudy dreſſes; as ſhirts made of ſtriped linen, and coats and breeches of red and blue ſtuffs or cloth, which they buy of the Daniſh or Dutch merchants, but faſhioned after their own way. In theſe they parade and feaſt, when they keep holy days on ſhore. The hoſe they wore formerly were made of rein-deer or ſeal-ſkins; but now they prefer our ſort of worſted, of different colours, white, blue, and red, which they buy of the Danes. Their ſhoes and boots are made of ſeal-ſkins, red or yellow, well dreſſed and tanned. They are nicely wrought, with folds behind and before, without heels, and ſit well upon the feet. The only difference between the dreſs of the men and women is, that the women's coats are higher on the ſhoulders, and wider than the men's, with higher and larger hoods. The married women, that have children, wear much larger coats than the reſt, like gowns, becauſe they muſt carry their children in them upon their backs. They wear drawers which reach to the middle of the thigh, and over them breeches. The drawers they always keep on, and ſleep in them. Their breeches come down to the knees: theſe they do not wear in ſummer or in winter, but when they go abroad; and, as ſoon as they come home, they pull them off again. Next to their bodies they wear a waiſtcoat made of young fawn-ſkins, with the hairy ſide inward. The coat, or upper garment, is alſo made of fine coloured ſwan-ſkins, or (in defect of that) ſeal-ſkins, trimmed and edged with white, and neatly wrought in the ſeams, and about the brim. Their hair, which is very long and thick, is braided, and tied up in a knot. They commonly go bare-headed, as well without as within doors: nor are they covered with hoods, but in caſe of rain or ſnow.

Their chief ornaments are glaſs beads, of divers colours, or coral, about their necks and arms, and pendants in their ears. They alſo wear bracelets made of black ſkin ſet with pearls, with which they trim their clothes and ſhoes. Some have, beſides this, another ſort of embelliſhment; they make long black ſtrokes between the eyes on the forehead, upon the chin, arms, and hands, and even upon the thighs and legs. They keep their clothes pretty clean, though in other things, eſpecially in their victuals, they are not ſo nice. The women, in general, who have children, are very dirty and ſlovenly, well knowing that they cannot be repudiated. But thoſe unfortunate women that are barren, or whoſe children are dead, and do not know the moment they may be ſent away, are obliged to take more care to be cleanly, that they may pleaſe their huſbands thereby.

As to diſpoſition, the Greenlanders are good-natured and orderly, but indolent, dull, and phlegmatic. They live peaceably without laws, and act regularly without diſcipline. In caſes of murder (which, however, ſeldom happens) no cognizance is taken of the murderer, unleſs the neareſt relation to the deceaſed thinks proper, perſonally, to revenge his death. Old women, who, from an untoward diſpoſition, are ſuppoſed to be witches, they kill, by the unanimous conſent of the community.

Conceiving all the productions of nature deſigned for mankind in general, they deem every thing common property. This naturally obviates the idea of robbery, as none can ſteal where he has a right to take whatever he happens to lay his hands on. But this idea they extend to ſtrangers, and take as freely from them as from their own neighbours, which occaſions them to have a worſe name than they deſerve; as the notions they are brought up in excuſe, in ſome meaſure, their ſuppoſed delinquency.

Adultery and fornication are unknown to the Greenlanders, except upon particular occaſions, when certain ceremonials, at which both ſexes attend, admit of promiſcuous intercourſe; and theſe permiſſions do not proceed ſo much from vice as arbitrary cuſtom; for, in general, the Greenlanders are modeſt, civil, generous, and hoſpitable. Only married people are admitted to the above-mentioned feſtivals; for the unmarried, of both ſexes, are remarkable for their modeſty and continence. To confirm this aſſertion, Mr. Egede, the Daniſh miſſionary, ſays, he never ſaw any of them hold any looſe converſation, or ſhew the leaſt inclination to it, either in word or deed. During fifteen years that he lived in Greenland, he did not hear of more than two or three unmarried young women who were pregnant, becauſe it is reckoned the greateſt diſgrace in ſuch.

The worſt quality in the Greenlanders is, their being ſo exceeding dirty, for they are ſlovens to a degree of beſtiality. The men are ſo fond of dirt, that they never waſh themſelves with clean water, but, in the manner of cats, lick their fingers, and clean their faces, as well as they can with the ſpittle. They even eat their victuals in the ſame bowls and platters that have been licked by their half ſtarved dogs, without the leaſt idea of making them clean. The women think they are never ſo ſweet as when they waſh themſelves in urine, that being deemed their grand perfume; and a female, when ſo cleaned, imagines her ſmell to be peculiarly grateful. Even the men adopt this opinion ſo far as to compliment a woman, after having been thus ſcoured, with the title of *niviarſiar ſuarneaks*, or, maidenly ſweet.

Company never hinders either ſex from complying with the calls of nature; and the utenſils for thoſe purpoſes being always in the ſame room as the family, a diſagreeable effluvium ariſes, which is extremely offenſive to any but thoſe who are, by long uſe, familiarized to ſuch ſtenches. Many of theſe people ſoak raw hides in thoſe very utenſils, which contributes conſiderably to the nauſeous ſmell of the place, and renders a Greenlander's habitation inſufferably diſagreeable.

Theſe people feed upon the fleſh of ſea-partridges, hares, ſeals, rein-deer, and whales. Their fleſh-meat they eat either boiled, dried in the ſun or wind, or raw. Their fiſh they either boil or dry thoroughly. Indeed, it is by perfectly drying that they preſerve their ſalmon, halibut, or ſtents, which are caught in the ſummer, and laid up for winter ſtore: for theſe people, with all their ignorance, are as careful as the ant in providing for future exigencies.

Seals are only to be caught in the ſummer, unleſs they happen, in the winter, now and then to meet with a few floating upon the ice. The mode of preſerving theſe animals is by burying them under the ſnow, from whence they are dug out as occaſion requires, and eaten without further preparation. They are as naſty in eating as in other things; for they never clean either platters, pots, or kettles; and the dirty ground ſerves them for a table. But they act wiſer than many more poliſhed nations, in not eating ſet meals at particular hours, but gratifying the calls of hunger, when the craving appetite requires. The women uſually eat by themſelves; but when the Greenlanders return from ſea, they make merry, and regale ſumptuouſly together.

The Greenlanders are not delicate in their appetites, neither are they very particular, in times of ſcarcity, with reſpect to their food, as they will feed upon pieces of rotten ſkins, ſea-weeds, flags, any kind of roots, whales fat, train oil, &c. In ſummer they uſe wood as fuel to dreſs ſuch victuals as they do not chooſe to eat raw; but in winter,

they uſually boil their food upon their train-oil lamps. Their kettles are made either of braſs, copper, or marble, and, in general, manufactured by themſelves. Their method of kindling a fire is by the friction of a piece of hard wood upon a block of dried fir-tree. The Danes found great difficulty in bringing the Greenlanders to taſte their proviſions. Some, however, at length came to be fond of bread and butter; but very few have, as yet, overcome their ſtrong averſion to ſpirituous liquors; and none can be perſuaded to ſmoke tobacco, or chew it.

In this country, the men are commonly contented with one wife. There are ſome, indeed, but thoſe are very few, that keep two, three, or four wives; but theſe paſs for heroes, or more than ordinary men; becauſe, by their induſtry, they are able to maintain ſo many wives and children. Before the arrival of the Danes, jealouſy never prevailed among thoſe wives; but they agreed well together; though the firſt wife was reckoned the miſtreſs. But ſince the Danes have informed them of the word and will of God, importing, that, in the beginning, the all-wiſe Creator made one man and one woman to live in matrimony as huſband and wife, there have been ſome reſentment in the wives, when their huſbands have been diſpoſed to take any others beſide them; and they have applied to Mr. Egede, deſiring him to put a ſtop to ſuch a proceeding. Alſo, when he has inſtructed them in their catechiſm, they have always reminded him fully to inſtruct their huſbands in the duty of the ſeventh commandment. They refrain from marrying their next relations, even in the third degree, deeming ſuch matches unwarrantable and unnatural It is likewiſe cenſurable, if a young man and woman who have ſerved and been educated in one family, ſhould deſire to be married together; for they look upon them as brother and ſiſter, on that account.

With reſpect to their marriage ceremonies: when a young man fancies a maiden, he commonly propoſes it to the parents and relations on both ſides. After he has obtained their conſent, he procures two or more old women to fetch the bride. Theſe go to the place where the young woman is, and carry her away by force; for, though ſhe approves of the match, yet, out of modeſty, ſhe muſt affect coyneſs, in order to avoid the cenſure of forwardneſs. After ſhe is brought to the bridegroom's houſe, ſhe keeps, for ſome time, at a diſtance, and ſits retired, in ſome corner, upon a bench, with her hair diſhevelled, and her face veiled. In the mean while the bridegroom uſes all the rhetoric he is maſter of, and ſpares no careſſes to bring her to compliance; which being effected, the maiden yields to his embraces, and the wedding is over. Huſbands often divorce their wives, either if they do not ſuit their humours, or if they are barren (which they hold to be very ignominious) and for many other reaſons: but they keep them for life, if they have children by them.

That the women are of robuſt conſtitutions, is particularly evinced in child-bearing; for as ſoon as it is over they will go to work, and do their ordinary buſineſs: but ſometimes it coſts them their lives. They have a tender love for their children. The mother always carries her infant upon her back, wrapped up in her coat, wherever ſhe goes, or whatever buſineſs ſhe has in hand; for they have no cradles. They ſuckle their children till they are three or four years old, or more; becauſe, in their tender infancy, they cannot digeſt the ſtrong victuals that the reſt muſt live upon. But they are negligent in the education of their children, for they never chaſtiſe or correct them when they do amiſs, but leave them to their own diſcretion: notwithſtanding which, when they are grown up to years of maturity, they ſeldom appear inclined to vice. Although they ſhew no great reſpect to their parents in any outward forms, they are always very willing to do what they order them. They are under the care of their parents, boys as well as girls, till they are married; afterwards they ſhift for themſelves; yet they continue to dwell in the ſame houſe, or under the ſame roof, with their fathers, together with other kindred and relations; and they all enjoy in common what they get.

When a Greenlander dies, all his property is thrown away as impure and unfortunate. All who reſide in the ſame houſe are obliged to carry whatever belongs to them into the open air to purify; but in the evening they fetch their effects back again. They dreſs the corpſe in its beſt apparel, bend the legs under the back, wrap the whole up in rein-deer and ſeal-ſkins, and bury it under a heap of ſtones. Thoſe who are concerned in the funeral are for ſome time deemed unclean; and the mourners, to teſtify their grief, make moſt hideous howlings. A corpſe is always conveyed out of the back part of a hut, but never through the door; and, at the funeral, a woman lights a ſtick, and, waving it round her head, pronounces the words, "Pikleruk pok," which is, he is to be obtained no more. They fix a dog's head upon the burial place of a young child, for this curious reaſon, that as a child is deficient in point of underſtanding, it would not be capable of finding its way to the land of ſpirits without a faithful dog to run before, and guide it to the place.

The chief amuſements and diverſions of the Greenlanders are ſinging in a very harſh diſcordant manner, dancing after a very ruſtic mode, running, wreſtling, foot-ball, &c. They very ſeldom quarrel with each other, not having, indeed, in their language any ſcurrilous words, or ſuch as are calculated to expreſs anger or reſentment. They are never known to fight: but when a Greenlander conceives himſelf aggrieved or affronted, he challenges the aggreſſor to a trial of ſatirical ſkill, or to bandy ſarcaſm with him. The two parties meet accordingly, when the challenger begins firſt, and, in a humorous poetical manner, charges his antagoniſt with having affronted him, and likewiſe recapitulates whatever faults or follies he has been guilty of. The perſon challenged replies in a ſimilar ſtrain, exculpates himſelf as well as he can, and retorts by recounting the errors of the challenger. In this war of words, if the challenger has the advantage, his antagoniſt is obliged to apologize for having affronted him; but, on the contrary, if he is out-ſatiriſed, he muſt confeſs himſelf wrong, and beg pardon for having made the accuſation. Let the ſatirical conteſt conclude how it will, a reconciliation is ſure to take place, and the day to conclude with the utmoſt mirth and feſtivity. In this manner terminate the quarrels of the Greenlanders, and ſuch is their ſevereſt reſentment. It is to be wiſhed that other nations, which pretend to great politeneſs and benevolence, would terminate their differences in a like ſenſible and friendly manner, without having recourſe to that Gothic, unchriſtian, and inhuman practice of duelling, or appealing to the ſavage brutality of blows, and cruel wars. The ſongs, which are ſung at their aſſemblies, are ſatires againſt their neighbours' follies, or rather good-natured poetical documents and repreſentations of each other's faults. The perſon who ſings always beats a little drum with his finger, as an accompaniment to his verſes, and likewiſe makes ſtrange geſticulations for the greater entertainment of the company.

Theſe people employ the greateſt part of the year either in hunting or fiſhing. The principal game they hunt is the rein-deer. To purſue this animal they penetrate into the interior parts, accompanied

companied by their whole families. Having found a herd of rein-deer, a number of Greenlanders ſurround them at a conſiderable diſtance, and then, with ſhouts and hideous yellings, drive them into a narrow compaſs, by contracting the circle they have formed round them. The animals being thus cooped up, become an eaſy prey, and may be killed with great eaſe.

The weapons uſed by the Greenlanders in hunting are fir-tree bows, wound about with the twiſted ſinews of animals, and ſtrung with the ſame, or with ſlips of ſeal-ſkins. The arrows are near ſix feet in length, and bearded with iron or ſharp-pointed bone: but thoſe they ſhoot birds with are blunt pointed, that they may not tear the fleſh, the blow being ſufficient to kill the bird, without mangling it. In killing ſea fowls they uſe lances, which they throw with aſtoniſhing dexterity, and very ſeldom miſs the object.

Whale-fiſhing among them is practiſed by a different method from what is practiſed by other Europeans. When they ſet out upon thoſe expeditions, they go in a large long-boat, called kone-boat, becauſe it is rowed by women; for the word *kone* implies a woman. About fifty perſons go in one of theſe boats, and when they find a whale, the men ſtrike him with their harpoons, to which are faſtened, with very long lines, blown ſeal-ſkins, which are filled with wind like bladders. Theſe artificial bladders are of infinite uſe to the Greenlanders in their whale-fiſhing; for, by floating on the ſurface of the ſea, they not only diſcover the track of the whale after he is wounded, but hinder him from diving under the water for any length of time. When the whale loſes his ſtrength, and is exhauſted by fatigue, the Greenlanders again attack him with ſpears and lances till he expires. On this occaſion they are clad in ſkin coats, conſiſting of only one piece, with boots, gloves, and caps, ſewed and laced ſo tight together, that no water can penetrate them. In this garb they jump into the ſea, and begin to ſlice the fat all round the whale's body, even under water: for in theſe coats they cannot ſink, as they are always full of air; ſo that they can ſtand upright in the ſea.—Nay, they are ſometimes ſo daring, that they will get upon the whale's back, to make an end of him, and cut away his fat, while there is yet life in him.

They take ſeals by various methods, ſuch as ſtriking them with harpoons, ſimilar, in form, to thoſe uſed in whale-fiſhing; but much ſmaller; watching them when they come to breathe at the air-holes in the ice, and ſtriking them with lances, approaching them diſguiſed like their own ſpecies, that is, covered with a ſeal-ſkin, creeping upon the ice, and wagging their head in the very ſame manner as a ſeal; by which means the Greenlander approaches the animal without ſuſpicion, and kills him with his lance. Previous to the falling of the ſnow, theſe people can ſee the ſeals through the tranſparent ice, and trace them to the openings, where they are eaſily killed. They are likewiſe ſurpriſed while they baſk themſelves in the ſun, either upon rocks or floating pieces of ice.

The Greenlanders angle with lines made of whale-bone, cut very ſmall, and generally catch a great many fiſh. The halibut is caught with lines of hemp, or ſeal-ſkin. Salmon and roe-fiſh are taken by means of weirs, or ſtone encloſures, into which the tide carries them at flood, and leaves them on dry land at low water. Stent fiſh are caught by means of netting extended upon poles. They are dried upon the rocks in the open air, and ſerve for part of the winter proviſion of the natives, being dreſſed in train oil, or melted fat.

Two ſorts of boats are uſed by them: the one, which the men alone make uſe of, is a ſmall veſſel, and ſharp pointed at both ends, three fathoms in length, and but three quarters of a yard wide at moſt, with a round hole in the middle, juſt large enough for a man's body to enter, and ſit down in it. The inſide of the boat is made of thin rafts, tacked together with the ſinews of animals; and the outſide is covered with ſeal-ſkins, dreſſed, and without hair. No more than one can ſit in it, who faſtens it ſo tight about his waiſt that no water can penetrate it. In theſe ſmall boats they go to ſea, managing them with one oar, a fathom long, broad at both ends, with which they paddle about in the moſt ſtormy weather, to catch ſeals and ſea fowls; and if they happen to overſet, eaſily raiſe themſelves, and recover their boats by the means of their paddles. The kone-boat is made in the ſame manner, but more durable, and longer, being ſixty feet in length, and likewiſe has a maſt, with a triangular ſail, which is made of the membranes and entrails of ſeals, and managed with the help of braces and bowlings. The women build, repair, and row theſe boats, and likewiſe build all the Greenlanders huts; the whole mechanic employment of the men being to make fiſhing-tackle and hunting implements.

Weſt Greenland is but thinly peopled. The huts which the inhabitants reſide in during winter are low, and built of ſtone and turf. The windows are on one ſide, made of the bowels of ſeals, dreſſed, and ſewed together, or of the maws of halibuts, and are white and tranſparent. On the other ſide are placed their beds, which conſiſt of ſhelves or benches, made of deal boards, raiſed half a yard from the ground. Their bedding is made of ſeal or rein-deer ſkins. Several families live together in one of theſe houſes or huts, each family occupying a room by itſelf, ſeparated from the reſt by wooden poſts, by which alſo the roof is ſupported. Before the poſts there is a hearth or fire-place, in which is placed a great lamp, in the form of a half-moon, ſeated on a trivet. Over this are hung their kettles of braſs, copper, or marble, in which they boil their victuals. Under the roof, juſt above the lamp, they have a ſort of rack or ſhelf, to put their wet clothes upon. They burn train-oil in their lamps, and moſs ſerves them as a ſubſtitute for wick. The door of the hut is low, that as little cold as poſſible may be admitted. The houſe is lined with old ſkins within, and ſurrounded with benches. The men and women ſit to work with their backs to each other. In the ſummer the Greenlanders dwell in tents made of long poles, fixed in a conical form, covered with deer-ſkins within, and outwardly with dreſſed ſeal-ſkins, ſo that they are impenetrable by rain.

Theſe people traffic with the Danes, by exchanging whale-bone, blubber, train-oil, horns of ſea-unicorns, rein-deer ſkins, ſeal ditto, and fox ditto, for coats, ſhirts, ſtockings, knives, hand-ſaws, needles, angling-hooks, cheſts, boards, looking-glaſſes, toys, and ſuch like.

The Greenlanders' language is guttural, and full of conſonants. The alphabet is without the letters C, D, Q, X; and, like the people of North America, they have a great number of polyſyllables.

They treat the Daniſh miſſionaries with great reſpect, and attend to what they preach with the utmoſt patience; but at the ſame time hear them with the moſt mortifying indifference; ſo that thoſe gentlemen make but few proſelytes, or, at leaſt, if any are converted, they ſeldom long remember what has been ſaid to them. Thoſe who remain in their original ſuperſtition believe in the immortality of the ſoul, but have very confuſed and inadequate ideas of the Deity, whom they call *Torngarſeck*, and ſuppoſe that he reſides either in the bowels of the earth, or in the ſea. They likewiſe believe

believe in another ſpirit, whom they call *Innirirrirſok*, or the reſtrainer, becauſe they fancy he prevents them from eating or drinking what is pernicious, and from doing wrong in other things. A third ſpirit, called *Erloerſortok*, or the gutter, they repreſent as a monſter, and imagine he lives upon the entrails of the dead.

The Greenlanders ſuppoſe all the elements to be filled with ſpirits; and believe that their prieſts, whom they call Angekuts, have each one of theſe ſpirits as an attendant or familiar; and this ideal familiar ſpirit they call *Tornagh*, and fancy that he always comes with great readineſs to the Angekut when ſummoned. When an Angekut pretends to invoke the great ſpirit Torngarſeck, he retires to ſome unfrequented place, where none of the people dare follow him, and, on his return, makes them believe that he has invoked Torngarſeck, who anſwered his invocation by appearing in ſuch a horrid form that he was overcome by terror, ſickened, ſunk into a trance, and remained without ſigns of life for the ſpace of three days, and that when he recovered, he found himſelf endued with the ſpirit of conjuration. Theſe Angekuts are very great impoſtors, and, by a variety of artifices, maintain an entire aſcendancy over the poor deluded people of this country.

The chief diſeaſes of the Greenlanders are of a ſcorbutic nature, and they are greatly accuſtomed to weak eyes, which latter diſorder is occaſioned by the ſharp piercing winds incident to the country, and the white glare reflected from the ice and ſnow, with which the whole country is covered ſo great a part of the year. The ſmall-pox being brought among theſe people in the year 1734, from Copenhagen, made great havock. With reſpect to ſurgery or phyſic, they are extremely ignorant. Their great ſpecific plaſter for all kinds of wounds, is a compoſition of the bark of a tree, burned moſs, and train-oil; and all their inſtruments of ſurgery conſiſt in a common knife, a fiſh-hook, and a needle. They are alſo utterly ignorant of natural philoſophy, and, indeed, of ſcience in general, a ſmall ſmattering of aſtronomy excepted; for they have made ſufficient obſervations on the ſtars to be able to ſteer by them at ſea.

They meaſure time by months, commencing the year after the ſun's firſt riſing above the horizon in the winter; and by every month they are preciſely acquainted with the proper times for killing or taking the ſeveral ſpecies of fiſhes, fowls, animals, &c. So that their little aſtronomy ſerves to direct all their avocations, ſuch as remaining at home to do their little domeſtic and mechanic works, going abroad to fiſh, hunt, &c.

EAST GREENLAND, OR SPITZBERGEN,

AND THE COUNTRY ADJACENT.

THIS country, which lies between 76 and 80 deg. of north lat. and between 18 and 24 deg. of eaſt long. was called Greenland by Sir Hugh Willoughby, who diſcovered it in 1553. It afterwards derived from the Dutch the appellation of Spitzbergen, which ſignifies *ſharp mountains*. The whole of its boundaries are not known. However, on the weſt it has the northern ocean; on the ſouth the ſame ocean between it and the Ruſſian Lapland, and the northernmoſt part of Norway, over againſt which it lies; on the eaſt it has an undiſcovered country, to which it is joined by an iſthmus. On the weſt ſide of Spitzbergen lies Charles-iſland, which is divided from the main land by a narrow ſtreight, called Foreland-Ford; between which, and Muſcle-Haven, are the higheſt mountains, moſt of which are of a red colour, and reflect the ſun's beams ſo as to ſeem all on fire: but ſeven of the mountains, all of remarkable ſharpneſs, are of a fine ſky-blue. South-Haven is the moſt commodious place on the iſland, affording all the conveniencies neceſſary for repairing leaky or damaged ſhips; and is ſo large, that thirty or forty ſail may ride at anchor there very conveniently: here alſo may be had freſh water, from the melting of the ſnow; for as to the rivers they are brackiſh, as far as they have been hitherto diſcovered; and no ſprings or wells have yet been found. The mountains about South-Haven are very high, eſpecially on the left; and in the midſt of the harbour is an iſland called Dead-man's-Iſland, becauſe they uſually buried there ſuch as died in the voyage.

That called Maurice-Bay by the Dutch, is the next capacious haven, where ſome of them have wintered; near this place are a few cottages, built by the Dutch, for the convenience of making their oil; and this place they call Smearburg, or Smearingburg, or the Haerlem Cookery. In the north bay there is an iſland called Vogel-Sang by the Dutch, (i. e. Bird-Song) from the great noiſe which the fowls make when they take their flight. Deer-Sound is ſo called from the abundance of deer which feed about it, though the ſoil ſeems to be all ſlates ſet edge-ways. Muſcle-Haven lies at the mouth of the Waygate, to the north of which, Martens ſays, he ſailed to 81 deg. and ſaw ſeven iſlands, but could not approach them becauſe of the ice; the loweſt part of that country lies about this harbour.

The Waygate mentioned here muſt not be miſtaken for the famous ſtreight of that name, which lies between Nova Zembla and the main land of Samoieda. Waygate here meant is a harbour, of which the Dutch voyagers ſay they do not know whether it goes through the country. They call it by this name becauſe of the winds which frequently blow there; and about this place, they ſay, the country is low, and adorned with ſmall hills. Roe-field-Harbour is ſo called, becauſe it abounds with deer. Alderman Freeman's Inlet, (called by the Dutch Walter Thymen's Fort) is the large mouth of a river, which is not yet diſcovered. The voyagers mention alſo the Engliſh, Daniſh, Hamburg, and Magdalen Havens; with one called the Bay of Love, but not ſo diſtinctly as to enable us to judge whether they are different from thoſe already mentioned, with Dutch or Engliſh names.

Bell-Harbour, on the weſtern coaſt of this country, is the place where, in the year 1630, eight Engliſh ſailors wintered, and ſuffered very great hardſhips, during nine months and twelve days, the ſingular circumſtances of which will be hereafter related. Theſe particulars are confirmed by the concurrent teſtimonies of moſt voyagers, previous to the expedition under Commodore Phipps. The account given by the writer of that voyage corroborates what they have ſaid, and adds ſome new particulars which we ſhall tranſcribe. "This country (ſays the journaliſt) is ſtony, and, as far as can be ſeen, full of mountains, precipices, and rocks. Between theſe are hills of ice, generated, as it appears, by torrents that flow from the melting of the ſnow on the ſides of thoſe towering elevations, which, being once congealed, are continually increaſed by the ſnow in winter, and the rain in ſummer, which often freezes as ſoon as it falls. By looking on theſe hills a ſtranger may fancy a thouſand different ſhapes of trees, caſtles, churches, ruins, ſhips, whales, monſters, and all the various forms that fill the univerſe. Of the ice hills, there are ſeven that more particularly attract the notice of ſtrangers. Theſe are known by the name of the Seven Icebergs, and are thought to be the higheſt of the kind in that country. When the air is clear, and the ſun ſhines full upon theſe mountains,

tains, the proſpect is inconceivably brilliant. They ſometimes put on the bright glow of the evening rays of the ſetting ſun, when reflected upon glaſs at its going down: ſometimes they appear of a bright blue, like ſapphire, and ſometimes like the variable colours of a priſm, exceeding in luſtre the richeſt gems in the world, diſpoſed in ſhapes wonderful to behold, all glittering with a luſtre that dazzles the eye, and fills the air with aſtoniſhing brightneſs."

The rocks are ſtriking objects: before a ſtorm, they exhibit a fiery appearance, and the ſun looks pale upon them, the ſnow giving the air a bright reflection. Their ſummits are almoſt always involved in clouds, ſo that it is but juſt poſſible to ſee the tops of them. Some of theſe rocks are but one ſtone from top to bottom, appearing like an old decayed ruin. Others conſiſt of huge maſſes, veined differently like marble, with red, white, and yellow, and, probably, were they to be ſawed and poliſhed, would equal, if not excel, the fineſt Egyptian marble we now ſo much admire. Perhaps the diſtance and danger of carrying large blocks of ſtone may be the reaſon that no trials have been made to manufacture them. On the ſoutherly and weſterly ſides of thoſe rocks grow all the plants, herbs, and moſſes peculiar to this country. On the northerly and eaſterly ſides, the wind ſtrikes ſo cold when it blows from theſe quarters, that it periſhes every kind of vegetable. Theſe plants grow to perfection in a very ſhort time. Till the middle of May the whole country is locked up in ice; in the beginning of July, the plants are in flower, and about the latter end of the ſame month, or the beginning of Auguſt, they have perfected their ſeed. The earth owes its fertility, in a great meaſure, to the dung of birds, who build and breed their young here in the ſummer, and retire to more favourable climates in the winter-ſeaſon.

In this country, the rocks and precipices are full of fiſſures and clefts, which afford convenient harbour for birds to lay their eggs, and breed their young in ſafety. Moſt of theſe birds are water-fowls, and ſeek their food in the ſea: ſome, indeed, are birds of prey, and purſue and kill others for their own ſuſtenance, but theſe are rare: the water-fowls eat ſtrong and fiſhy, and their fat is not to be endured. They are ſo numerous about the rocks as ſometimes to darken the air when they riſe in flocks; and they ſhriek ſo horribly that the rocks echo with the noiſe they make.

About Spitzbergen the air is at no time free from icicles: if you look through the ſun-beams tranſverſely as you ſit in the ſhade, or where you ſee the rays confined in a body, inſtead of dark motes as are ſeen here, you behold myriads of ſhining particles that ſpangle like diamonds; and when the ſun ſhines hot, as it ſometimes does ſo as to melt the tar in the ſeams of ſhips, when they lie ſheltered from the wind, theſe ſhining atoms appear to melt away, and deſcend like dew. The air ſeldom continues clear for many days together in this climate, but when that happens the whalers are generally ſucceſsful.

There is no difference between night and day in the appearance of the atmoſphere about Spitzbergen, one being as light as the other; only when the ſun is to the northward you may look at it with the naked eye, as at the moon, without dazzling. The fogs here come on ſo ſuddenly, that from bright ſun-ſhine you are preſently enveloped in ſuch obſcurity, that you can hardly ſee from one end of the ſhip to the other. The cold here is generally very intenſe, but in the extremity of winter it is intolerable, particularly when the wind blows from the north or the eaſt. The air is tolerably calm during the months of June, July, and Auguſt; not but the wind ſometimes blows incredibly cold even at this ſeaſon, and the froſt continues without intermiſſion. The ſea-water here is leſs ſalt than in ſoutherly climates, and changes its colour with the ſky, that is, in a clear air it appears blue, when the atmoſphere is overcaſt with clouds it ſeems green, during fogs it is yellow, and in ſtormy weather quite black.

In this part of Greenland, the ſun uſually appears about the beginning of February, and diſappears about the firſt of October. From May to Auguſt he continues above the horizon without ſetting, and then the night and day are diſtinguiſhable only by his appearing either in the eaſtern or weſtern parts of the heavens. The face of this country exhibits ſcarce any thing but rugged rocks and barren mountains that riſe into the clouds, or vallies choked up with ſtones and ice that fall from thoſe mountains. About Deer-Sained and Muſcle-Haven are ſome detached pieces of low lands, which are uſually covered with ſnow; but in a fine ſummer, when that diſſolves, a coat of heath and moſs is ſeen interſperſed with a few plants. No ſprings have been found here, and the rivers are all brackiſh; but theſe inconveniences are recompenſed by the great plenty of ſnow-water, which is both pleaſant and wholeſome.

In Spitzbergen, the vegetables are excellent ſcurvy-graſs, ſorrel, wild lettuce, ſnake-root, ground-ivy, heart's-eaſe, limewort, ſea-bugloſs, wild ſtrawberries, wall-pepper, and houſeleek. "Theſe (ſays a learned author) are conſidered as effectual remedies ſupplied by the hand of Providence for the cure of the ſcurvy, and other diſeaſes incident to thoſe who yearly viſit this inhoſpitable country. The ſcurvy-graſs here, as in many other northern climates, has no pungency to the taſte, but is mild, grateful to the palate, and ſuch an excellent anti-ſcorbutic, that the ſeamen term it the "Gift of God." Although the ſhips employed in the whale-fiſhery are, of all others, the beſt ſupplied with good proviſions, and plenty of freſh water, yet the mariners are in theſe northern latitudes much more ſubject to the ſea-ſcurvy than in any ſouthern voyage.

The attack of the malady is here more ſudden, and the progreſs of it more rapid. The patient feels its ſymptoms increaſe as he advances nearer the pole; nor does he enjoy the leaſt alleviation until the weather ſoftens in the month of July, which is very moderate, and, indeed, the only interruption of winter. Then the ſcurvy-graſs appears in plenty as an infallible cure, and performs wonders, reſtoring, in a few days, to health and vigour, thoſe who were ſeemingly in the laſt ſtage of the diſtemper. The other vegetable productions of this country are, poppies, hellebore, dandelion, mountain-heath, ſaxifrage, dwarf-willow, &c. but all are ſmall and ſtunted in their growth, the natural conſequence of an inclement ſky, and unproductive ſoil.

An aquatic vegetable peculiar to this country is that called the rock plant; the leaves are ſhaped like a man's tongue, about ſix feet long, of a dull yellow colour, the ſtalk is round and ſmooth, and of the ſame colour with the leaf, it riſes tapering, and ſmells like muſcles. It grows in the water, and riſes in height in proportion to the depth of water in which it is diſcovered.

A Greenland captain, in 1737, brought to England ſeveral pieces of gold, which he found accidentally in a hunting excurſion among the rocks of Spitzbergen. This diſcovery, however, was not proſecuted. Alabaſter, Selenites, and Lapis Spicularis are found here; and naturaliſts conjecture that iron ore abounds in the country.

Not many land-birds are ſeen in this country, except partridges, a few birds of the ſnipe kind, ſome ſmall birds that, even in this dreary climate, ſome-

times warble ſweetly, the ſnow-bird and the ice-bird; the latter is a ſmall but very beautiful bird; in ſize and ſhape it reſembles the turtle-dove, but the plumage, when the ſun ſhines upon it is of a bright yellow, like the golden ring in the peacock's tail, and almoſt dazzles the eye to look upon its feathers.

Here the fox differs but little in ſhape from thoſe we are acquainted with; but in colour there is no ſimilitude, for the body is white and the head is black. Foxes are ſeen here in great plenty; they are exceeding ſwift, and very ſubtile; ſo that it is a difficult matter to catch them. The author of commodore Phipps's voyage ſays, "The Dutch ſeamen report, that when they (the foxes) are hungry, they will feign themſelves dead, and when the ravenous birds come to feed on their fleſh, they riſe and make prey of them."

In this country, the deer are large, grey, and ſhaggy, with branching horns, ſhort tails, and long ears. Their fleſh is of an admirable flavour; and, in the ſummer ſeaſon, they are exceeding fat, which is owing to their feeding on the yellow moſs: this natural ſtore of fat enables them to ſubſiſt during the winter; many of them are, however, ſtarved to death; and all in general appear very thin and meagre in the ſpring. On this occaſion a learned gentleman ſays, "In all probability theſe animals ſleep in caverns during the winter, like the bears in Norway. Perhaps the abundance of poppies in this country may diſpoſe them to a lethargy, which ſeems neceſſary for their preſervation, as little or no nouriſhment is required for animals that have no exerciſe, and a languid circulation." Theſe deer fly at the ſight of a human creature, but immediately ſtop when their purſuers ſtop, and thus are eaſily ſhot.

Bears here have long ſnouts, and bark in a huſky manner, like dogs that are hoarſe. They are large, white, lean, ſwift, and fierce. Some have been found that were ſix feet high, and four long, which yielded an hundred weight of fat. The largeſt kind are termed water bears, becauſe they are fond of ſubſiſting chiefly on the productions of the ſea, and have been ſeen near twenty miles from the ſhore.

When a bear is atacked, he makes a dreadful roaring; and his companions, who are within hearing, immediately run to his aſſiſtance. A ſhe-bear will ſuffer herſelf to be killed rather than abandon her cubs: notwithſtanding which attachment, when a bear is found dead, his fellows will eat him without the leaſt ſcruple. Theſe creatures are ſo ſtimulated by hunger, that they will frequently venture to attack whole armed crews; and have been known to take the water, and attempt to board large veſſels. They are ſo tenacious of life, that they ſometimes eſcape with many ſhots in their bodies. They are attacked with muſkets and lances; and, when at bay, riſe on their hind legs, and frequently break the lances of the aſſailants; ſo that they are not aſſaulted without imminent danger. They take to the water naturally, and ſometimes, when attacked in that element, dive like an otter. Here are innumerable ſwarms of water-fowl, ſuch as are common to all the northern countries of Europe; and ſeals, whales, ſea-horſes, &c.

Deſcription of the Whale, and Whale-Fiſhery.

THAT enormous monſter, called the large Greenland, or whalebone whale, differs from the reſt of the fiſh ſo called, by his having no teeth; inſtead of which, on each ſide of the upper jaw grows the whalebone, in four or five hundred different blades, at equal diſtances, ſome exceeding twelve feet in length, and a foot broad at bottom, growing narrow upwards, like the ſticks of a fan inverted, the largeſt of them weighing about twenty pounds. He contracts and dilates the diſtances of thoſe blades at the ſhutting and opening his mouth, making them ſerve as ſtrainers, to ſeparate the water from the ſhrimps, prawns, and ſuch ſmall fiſh as his food conſiſts of; and, for the ſame purpoſe, on the inſide of the bone, next to the tongue, grows a quantity of hair, to make a ſtill finer percolation, or ſtraining; which is the more neceſſary, becauſe, notwithſtanding the bulk of a whale's body, the throat in general is not much above a foot wide.

The head of the whale makes near a third part of the whole body, with very ſmall eyes in the midſt of it, conſidering the ſize of the creature; and the eye-lids are fringed with hair, like thoſe of a man. Inſtead of the ears, appear, on the outſide, only two holes, ſo ſmall, that they can hardly be found out, and will ſcarce admit of a ſingle ſtraw: but within the head they have large orifices, which are formed like ears, and afford them a ſharp hearing. On the top of the head he has two pipes, for the drawing in and out of the air, and diſcharging the water which he ſwallows in his mouth, and which is forced out through theſe holes in a vaſt quantity, and to a great height. The tongue is very large; in ſome whales of the ſize of an ordinary woolpack, and will yield aſtoniſhing quantities of oil. His bones are hard, like thoſe of four-footed beaſts; but, inſtead of having one large cavity in the middle, are porous, and full of marrow. His belly and back are quite red. The fleſh of this creature is coarſe and hard, like that of a bull, mixed with many ſinews, and is very dry and lean, becauſe the fat lies between the fleſh and the ſkin. The fat is mixed with ſinews, which holds the oil as a ſpunge does water. The other ſtrong ſinews are about the tail, with which he turns and winds himſelf as a ſhip is guided by a rudder. He ſwims with great celerity, and makes a track in the ſea like a large ſhip under ſail. Beſides the uppermoſt thin ſkin, there is another almoſt an inch thick; but neither of them are very ſtrong, which is believed to be the reaſon why the whale does not exert that great force which might be expected from a fiſh of its ſize. They are mightily tormented with lice, which makes them ſometimes ſpring out of the ſea in an agony. It is alſo believed that they feel great pain in their bodies before a ſtorm, which makes them twiſt and tumble violently, while the wind blows from the eaſt. They, are, however, harmleſs, unleſs provoked, and rather of a very timorous nature; though ſome of them will now and then approach very cloſe to a ſhip. The middling ſized ones are from fifty to ſixty feet long, and yield from ſeven to an hundred barrels of blubber; though ſometimes they are much larger. A voyager mentions one that yielded an hundred and thirty hogſheads. This blubber lies immediately under the ſkin, and is a very valuable and uſeful acquiſition.

The ſkeleton of a ſpermaceti whale, now in the repoſitory of an eminent virtuoſo in London, is affirmed to meaſure ſeventy-two feet in length, and between ſeven and eight feet in breadth. The ſkull alone meaſures fifteen feet in length, and is ſuppoſed to weigh three tons. This great weight of bones is probably buoyed up in the ſea by a vaſt quantity of fat or oil, contained in the cellular membrane, between the ſkin of the head and the upper ſurface of the ſkull. From this oil, and alſo from that which ſurrounds the body, the ſubſtance called ſpermaceti is extracted. That ſpecies of whale called the ſpermaceti whale, differs from the whalebone whale, which, as before obſerved, has

no teeth; whereas the former has one row of ſharp-pointed teeth along each ſide of the lower jaw, but none in the upper. With theſe, it is probable, he can devour fiſh of a conſiderable ſize. The ſpermaceti whale has alſo a blowing-hole, but uſes it more particularly for the purpoſe of breathing.

The following method is purſued in catching whales: As ſoon as a ſhip arrives at a large field of ice, as it is termed, three or four boats are put out to watch for the whale's coming from beneath the ice, which is judged of by the noiſe they make in approaching and riſing. When the whale gains the ſurface of the water, the harpooner ſeizes the opportunity to dart the harpoon either into his body, or near his ſnout; for there is no ſtriking into the bone of his head. When the whale is ſtruck, the other boats, which are near at hand, approach to give aſſiſtance, and an oar is put up at the head of the harpooner's boat who wounded the animal, and they cry out, *Fall! fall!* upon which token other boats from the ſhip join thoſe already concerned, to render every needful help as exigencies may require. As ſoon as the whale is ſtruck, they take care to give him rope enough, for otherwiſe, when he goes down, as he frequently does, he would inevitably ſink the boat; and this rope he draws ſo quick, that, if it were not well watered, it would ſet the boat on fire. The line faſtened to the harpoon is ſix or ſeven fathoms long, and is called the forerunner. It is made of the fineſt and ſofteſt hemp, that it may ſlip the eaſier. To this they join a heap of lines, of ninety or an hundred fathoms each; and when there are not enough in one boat, they borrow from another.

The man at the helm obſerves which way the rope goes, and ſteers the boat accordingly, that it may run exactly out before; for the whale runs away with the line as faſt as the wind, and would overſet the boat if it were not kept ſtraight: during which the other boats row before, and obſerve which way the line ſtands, and ſometimes pull it. If they feel it ſtiff, it is a ſign the whale ſtill pulls in ſtrength; but if it hangs looſe, and the boat lies equally high, before and behind, upon the water, they pull it in gently, but take care to lay it ſo, that the whale may have it eaſily again, if he recovers ſtrength. They are cautious, however, not to give him too much line, becauſe he ſometimes entangles it about a rock, and ſo gets looſe. When this happens, however, if he is afterwards taken by the crew of another ſhip, he is returned to thoſe who firſt wounded him, as that is known by the harpoon, which is always diſtinguiſhed by a peculiar mark. They begin to ſtink as ſoon as they expire; and their fleſh ferments, creating ſuch a ſteam as inflames weak eyes. When they ſee him ſpout out blood, they know that he draws towards his end, and then prepare for cutting him up.

In order to do this, they haul him cloſe to the ſhip's ſide, and ſlice his ſides with great knives, raiſing the blubber by a hook and a pully, which they lift up as they cut. In this work they muſt be extremely expeditious, otherwiſe the ſharks, which abound here, will have a greater ſhare of the fleſh than the whalers themſelves. Of the great flakes of fleſh they uſed formerly to make their oil upon the ſpot, but at preſent the blubber is barrelled up, and brought to England, Holland, &c. to be boiled at leiſure, the huts at Spitzbergen being rather neglected. Some ſhips even return from the whale fiſhery without ſeeing that country, proceeding no further than a certain latitude, and there fiſhing without being moleſted by a lee-ſhore, ice, or currents. The ſhips that uſe this trade generally carry from 30 to 50 men, ſix or ſeven boats, and from 400 to 800 hogſheads of blubber. Their arms conſiſt of 60 lances, ſix ſea-horſe lances, 40 harpoons, 10 long harpoons for ſtriking whales under water, ſix ſmall ſea-horſe harpoons, and 30 lines, of nine hundred or a thouſand fathoms.

The catching of ſeals alſo makes a valuable branch of the fiſhing practiſed in theſe ſeas. Three hundred ſeals yield near as much blubber as a middling ſized whale. The ſeals are not harpooned, but are generally knocked on the head with clubs; and many bears are likewiſe ſhot, killed with lances, &c. upon the ice. The ſhips ſet ſail in February for the ſeal fiſhery, and in April for the whale fiſhery; government allowing a bounty to theſe ſhips of 40s. per ton, as far as 300 tons; ſo that a ſhip of ſuch a burthen receives 600l. bounty-money. If a ſhip is clear of the ice after the 1ſt of June, and goes back again, or if it is known that ſhe carries out with her leſs than ſix months proviſions, ſhe forfeits her bounty-money.

In the body of the whale there is ſeldom found any thing but ten or twelve handfuls of a kind of ſmall black ſpiders, and ſome ſmall quantities of green herbs, torn up from the bottom of the ſea, which are ſuppoſed to be the food upon which the whales chiefly live. The ſea hereabouts is ſo covered with theſe inſects, that it appears quite black; which is a ſign, to thoſe who go about catching of whales, that they are like to make a good booty. The whales generally delight in that part of the ſea in which theſe inſects are produced.

Belonging to the whale kind, there are alſo the dragon-fiſh, long, thin, grey, and glittering, with two fins on his back, and two holes, through which he ſpouts the water. The butſhorf, or laced-head, is ſixteen feet long, with a ſpout-hole in his neck, a brown back, and a white belly. The white-fiſh is as long as the butſhorf, but much fatter. The ſea-unicorn whale is from ſixteen to twenty feet in length, with a ſpout-hole in his neck, and projecting from his ſnout, having a fine wreathed horn, for which he is principally valued. The throne of his Daniſh majeſty is entirely compoſed of theſe horns.

The whale called fin-fiſh is as long as the blubber, or whalebone whale, but not above one third part ſo bulky. It is known by the fin on the back near the tail, and by the ſpouting up of the water more violently, and higher, than the other whale. The back is more ſtraight than that of a whale, and the lips are of a browniſh colour, appearing like a twiſted rope. The whalebone hangs from the upper lip, as it does in the whale, but not out of the mouth at the ſides, as in that animal. The inſide of the mouth, between the whalebones, is all over hairy, and is of a blue colour, that is, when the bone begins to grow; for the other is brown, with yellow ſtreaks, which are thought to be the oldeſt. The colour of this fiſh is like that of a tench, and the ſhape of the body is long and ſlender. The tail is flat, like that of the whale; and he ſeldom appears till the whales are gone. All theſe creatures ſwim before the wind, and are obſerved to tumble immediately before ſtorms; a circumſtance from which ſome naturaliſts have concluded, that they are violently ſeized with the cramp in their bellies, owing to a change in the atmoſphere.

A variety of enemies haraſs the whale, beſides the vermin which adheres to his body like lice. He is purſued by the ſaw-fiſh, or ſword-fiſh, ſome of which are twenty feet long. This fiſh is ſhaped like a man's arm, and his eyes are remarkably prominent. His ſword projects from his ſnout, is of different lengths, according to the different ſizes of the fiſh, ſometimes ſmooth and ſharp, like a real ſword, and ſometimes indented like a ſaw; hence the creature is called either ſword-fiſh, or ſaw-fiſh. A very few of theſe animals will attack and maſter a great whale; yet, when they have ſlain him, they eat no part of him but the tongue. In calm weather

weather the fiſhermen lie upon their oars, as ſpectators of this combat, until they perceive the whale at the laſt gaſp, when they row towards him, and his enemies retiring at their approach, the fiſhermen enjoy the fruits of the victory. Another more deſperate enemy of the whale, is known by the name of the hay, which is of the ſhark kind: they are of different ſizes, being from one to three fathoms long. The hay is ſo voracious, that it tears large pieces of fleſh from the whale, as if they had been dug with ſhovels. The liver of this fiſh abounds with oil, and is exceſſively large. The fleſh on their backs, when dried ſome days in the air, is accounted tolerable proviſion, either boiled or roaſted; and the ſmaller the fiſh the better. They are caught by a large hook, baited with fleſh, and faſtened to a long iron chain: and if men fall overboard by accident, the hays devour them, in their turn.

On account of the extreme rigour of the climate of this country, it was long deemed uninhabitable throughout the year, till the contrary was proved by the fate of ſome Britiſh mariners, who ſailed thither in the year 1630.

A Greenland ſhip, named the Salutation, which ſailed from the Thames on the 1ſt of May, and arrived here the 11th of the next month, being in want of proviſion the latter end of the year, ſent eight men on ſhore in a boat, to a place frequented by rein-deer, to kill veniſon, leaving them there, with orders to follow the ſhip to Green-Harbour, which lies to the ſouthward of the place where they went aſhore. Theſe men, having killed 14 or 15 deer, lay that night aſhore, and propoſed next day to have gone on board, but a great quantity of ice driving towards the ſhore, obliged the ſhip to ſtand out ſo far to ſea, that when they came to Green-Harbour ſhe was out of ſight. The ſhips being to rendezvous in Belſound, further to the ſouthward, and being to leave the country within three days, our huntſmen began to be very anxious, leſt the ſhipping ſhould be gone from thence too before they arrived. They thought it proper, therefore, to throw their veniſon into the ſea, in order to lighten the boat, and made the beſt of their way to Belſound, diſtant from thence about ſixteen leagues: but none of them knowing the coaſt, they overſhot their port about ten leagues, when, ſenſible of their error, they returned to the northward. One of their company, however, being poſitive that Belſound lay further to the ſouth, they were induced to ſail to the ſouthward again, till they were a ſecond time convinced of their miſtake, and turned their boat to the north again, and at length arrived at Belſound; but had ſpent ſo much time in rowing backwards and forwards, that the ſhips had actually left the coaſt, and were gone to England, to their great aſtoniſhment, being provided neither with clothes, food, firing, or houſe to ſhelter themſelves from the piercing cold they were to expect in ſo rigorous a climate. They ſtood ſome time looking on one another, amazed at the diſtreſs to which they were ſo ſuddenly reduced; but their conſternation being a little abated, they began to think of the moſt proper means to ſubſiſt themſelves during the approaching winter.

The weather being favourable, they agreed, in the firſt place, to go to Green-Harbour, and hunt for veniſon, having two dogs with them very fit for their purpoſe. Accordingly, on the 25th of Auguſt they went in their boat to Green-Harbour, where they arrived in twelve hours, being 16 leagues to the northward of Belſound. Here they ſet up a tent made with the boat's ſail, the oars ſerving for poles; and, having ſlept a few hours, went early next morning to their ſport, killing ſeven or eight deer, and four bears. The day following they killed twelve deer more, with which they loaded their boat; and finding another boat, which had been left there by the company, they loaded that with the greaves of whales (being the pieces which remain in the coppers after the oil is drawn from them) and returned with their booty to Belſound. Here happened to be ſet up a large ſubſtantial booth, which the coopers worked in at the fiſhing ſeaſon: it was 80 feet long, and 50 broad, covered with Dutch tiles, and the ſides were well boarded. Within this booth theſe ſailors determined to build another of leſs dimenſions, being furniſhed with boards and timber, by pulling down a booth which ſtood near the former; and from the chimnies of three furnaces, uſed for the boiling of oil, they got 1000 bricks. They found alſo four hogſheads of very fine lime, which, mingled with the ſand on the ſea ſhore, made excellent mortar. But the weather was now grown ſo cold, that they were obliged to have two fires to keep their mortar from freezing. They perſiſted, however, in their work, and raiſed a wall, of a brick thickneſs, againſt one of the ſides of their innermoſt booths; but wanting bricks to finiſh the reſt in like manner, they nailed thick boards on each ſide the timbers, and filled up the ſpace between with ſand; by which means it became ſo tight and cloſe, that the leaſt breath of air could not enter it; and their chimney's vent was in the greater booth.

The length of the leſſer booth, or rather houſe, was 20 feet, the breadth 16, and the height 10; their ceiling being made of deal boards five or ſix times double, and ſo overlaid, that no air could poſſibly come in from thence. Their door they not only made as ſtrong and cloſe as poſſible, but lined it with a bed which they found there. They made no windows, except a little hole in the tiles of the greater booth, by which they received ſome little light down the chimney of the leſſer. The next work was to make them four cabins, chooſing to lie two in each cabin. Their bedding was the ſkins of the rein-deer, the ſame that the Laplanders uſe; and they found them exceeding warm. For firing they took to pieces ſome caſks, and ſeven or eight of the boats which were left behind; for it ſeems they uſed a great many boats in whale-fiſhing, which they left in the country every winter, rather than be at the trouble of carrying them backwards and forwards. Our ſailors ſtowed their firing between the beams and the roof of the greater booth, in order to make it the warmer, and keep out the ſnow, which, but for this contrivance, would have covered every thing in the greater booth.

September 12, obſerving a piece of ice come driving towards the ſhore, with two morſes (or ſea-horſes) aſleep upon it, they went out in their boat, with a harping-iron, and killed them both. On the 19th they killed another, which was ſome addition to their food. But taking a ſurvey of all their proviſions, they found that there was not half enough to ſerve them the whole winter, and therefore ſtinted themſelves to one meal a day, and agreed to keep Wedneſdays and Fridays as faſting days, allowing themſelves then only the fritters or greaves of the whales, which, as obſerved already, are only the ſcraps of the fat of the whale, which are thrown away after the oil is got out of them, and is food of a very loathſome nature.

The nights being grown very long by the 10th of October, and the weather becoming ſo cold that the ſea was frozen over; and having no buſineſs now to divert their thoughts, they began to reflect on their miſerable circumſtances; ſometimes complaining of the cruelty of the maſter of the ſhip for leaving them behind; at other times excuſing him, and bewailing his misfortunes, as believing him to have periſhed in the ice. At length, putting their confidence in the Almighty, who alone could re-

lieve

lieve them in their great diſtreſs, they offered up their prayers for ſtrength and patience to go through the diſmal trial. Having ſurveyed their proviſions again, they found that the fritters of the whale were almoſt all mouldy, having taken ſome wet; and that, of their bear and veniſon, there was ſcarce enough left to afford them five meals a week; whereupon it was agreed to live four days in the week upon the mouldy fritters, and the other three to feaſt upon bear and veniſon. Leſt they ſhould want firing hereafter to dreſs their meat, they thought proper to roaſt half a deer every day, and ſtow it up in hogſheads. With this kind of food they filled three hogſheads and a half, leaving as much raw as would ſerve to roaſt a quarter every Sunday, and alſo for Chriſtmas-day a quarter.

The ſun leaving them on the 14th of October, they ſaw it no more till the 3d of February; but they had the moon all the time, both day and night, though very much obſcured by the clouds and foul weather. There was alſo a glimmering kind of day-light, for eight hours, from the latter end of October, which ſhortened every day till the 1ſt of December; from which time, to the 20th of the ſame month, they could perceive no day-light at all. It was now one continued night, there appearing only, in clear weather, a little whiteneſs, like the dawn of day, towards the ſouth; and on the 1ſt of January they found the day to increaſe a little.

They counted their days, it ſeems, in the dark ſeaſon, by the moon, and were ſo exact, that, at the return of the ſhipping, they were able to tell the very day of the month on which the fleet arrived. For light within doors they made three lamps of ſome ſheet lead they had found upon one of the coolers; and there happened to be oil enough to ſupply them left in the cooper's tent. For wicks they made uſe of rope-yarn. Theſe lamps were one of the greateſt comforts to them in that long continued night. Their hardſhips, however, were ſo great, that ſometimes they were driven to deſpair. At other times they hoped they were reſerved as a wonderful inſtance of God's mercy in their deliverance, and continued to fall down on their knees, and implore divine protection in their diſtreſs.

The cold increaſed with the new year to that degree, that it ſometimes raiſed bliſters in their fleſh, as if they had been burnt; and the iron they touched ſtuck to their fingers. When they went abroad for water, the cold often ſeized them in ſuch a manner that it made them ſore, as if they had been beaten. Their water, the firſt part of the winter, iſſued from a bay of ice, and ran down into a kind of baſon, or receptacle, by the ſea ſide, where it remained with a thick ice over it, which they dug open at one certain place with pick-axes every day. This continued to the 10th of January, when they drank ſnow water, melted with a hot iron, until the enſuing 20th of May.

Having taken another review of their proviſions, they found that they would not laſt them above ſix weeks longer. To alleviate their miſery, however, on the 3d of February they were cheered again with the bright rays of the ſun, which ſhone upon the tops of the ſnowy mountains with inconceivable luſtre. To them, at leaſt, this afforded the moſt delightful ſcene that ever was beheld; for, after a night of many weeks and months, what could be imagined more glorious or pleaſing to a mortal eye? As an addition to their joy, the bears began to appear again, on the fleſh of which animal they made many hearty meals. But the bears were as ready to devour our countrymen as they were the bears; and being pinched with hunger in this barren country, came up to their very door. One of theſe creatures, with her cub, they met at the entrance of their apartment, and gave her ſuch a reception with their pikes and lances, that they laid her dead upon the ſpot, and the young one was glad to make its eſcape. The weather was ſo very cold that they could not ſtay to flay her, but dragged the beaſt into their houſe. There they cut her into pieces of a ſtone weight, one of which ſerved them for a dinner. Upon this they fed twenty days, eſteemed her fleſh beyond veniſon. Her liver only did not agree with them; for, upon eating it, their ſkins peeled off: though one of the company, who was ſick, attributed his cure, in part, to the eating it.

If it be demanded how they kept their veniſon and bear's fleſh without ſalt? it is to be obſerved, the cold is ſo intenſe that no carcaſe ever putrifies. Fleſh needs no ſalt to keep it here: that was their happineſs. Had they been ſtocked with ſalt proviſions, they had infallibly died of the ſcurvy, as others did who were left on the ſhore, much better provided with liquors, and other neceſſaries, than theſe poor men were. By the time they had eaten up this bear, others came about their booth frequently, to the number of 40 or more, of which they killed ſeven (one of them ſix feet high at leaſt) roaſting their fleſh upon wooden ſpits, having no other kitchen furniture, except a frying-pan they found in one of the booths. Having now plenty of proviſions, they ate very heartily, and found their ſtrength increaſe conſiderably.

On the 16th of March, the days being then of a reaſonable length, fowls, which, in the winter time, were fled to the ſouthward, began to reſort to Greenland again in great abundance, where they live and breed in the ſummer, feeding upon ſmall fiſh. The foxes, alſo, which had kept cloſe in their holes under the rocks all the winter, now came abroad, and preyed upon the fowls; of which our countrymen having taken ſome, baited traps with their ſkins, and caught five foxes in them, which they roaſted, and found them to be very good meat, at leaſt in the opinion of men who had hitherto fed much on bear's fleſh. Thus they continued taking fowls and foxes till the 1ſt of May, meeting with no further misfortunes, except the loſs of one of their maſtiff dogs, which went from their houſe one morning in the middle of March, and was never ſeen afterwards, being probably overpowered by the bears, and devoured by them.

In May the weather beginning to grow warm, they rambled about in ſearch of willocks eggs, a fowl about the ſize of a duck, of which they found ſome, being a change of diet they eſteemed very agreeable food.

As the ſeaſon was now coming on for the arrival of the ſhipping, ſome of them went every day almoſt to the top of a mountain to ſee if they could diſcern the water in the ſea, which they had no ſight of till the 24th, when, it blowing a ſtorm, and the wind ſetting from the main ocean, broke the ice in the bay, and ſoon after turning about eaſterly, carried great part of the ice out to ſea; but ſtill the water did not come within three miles of their dwelling. The next morning, the 25th of May, none of their men happened to go abroad; but one of them being in the outer booth, heard ſomebody hail the houſe in the ſame manner as ſailors do a ſhip, to which the men in the inner booth anſwered, in ſeamen's terms, that they were juſt then going to prayers, and ſtayed but for the man in the outer booth to join with them. The man who hailed them was one of the boat's crew that belonged to an Engliſh ſhip juſt arrived, which our ſailors no ſooner underſtood, than they ran out to meet their countrymen, looking upon them as ſo many angels ſent from heaven to their relief; and certainly the tranſport of joy

they felt upon this occaſion, if it may be conceived, can never be expreſſed.

A mortification ſtill remained which no man could well have expected. One of the ſhips which arrived, was commanded by the ſame maſter who left theſe poor wretches on ſhore, and he, like a barbarous brute, in order to excuſe his own inhumanity, began to revile them in the moſt opprobrious terms. This man, it ſeems, had left ſeven or eight other men in Greenland two years before, which were never heard of afterwards; for which, no doubt, he richly deſerved the ſevereſt puniſhment. Notwithſtanding the barbarity of their own captain, the commander and officers of the other ſhip took care they ſhould be kindly uſed, and brought to England when the ſeaſon for whale fiſhing was over, where they received a gratuity from the Ruſſia Company, and were otherwiſe well provided for by them.

CHAP. II.

ICELAND.

Situation, Extent, Diviſion, Climate, Air, Soil, Produce, Animal, Inhabitants, Religion, Curioſities, &c.

ICELAND receives its name from the great fields of ice that are ſeen near it, and is ſituated in the Atlantic Ocean, between Norway and Scotland. It lies between 63 and 68 deg. of north lat. and between 14 and 29 deg. of weſt long. from the meridian of London: it is about 400 miles in length, and 160 in breadth. This iſland is divided into four quarters, viz. eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth, which are again ſubdivided into eighteen ſhires, or, as the inhabitants call them, ſyſſels.

The following extraordinary circumſtance relative to this iſland is affirmed to be authentic; viz. that in April 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland obſerved ſomething riſen and flaming in the ſea, to the ſouth of Grinbourg, at eight miles diſtant from the rocks Des Oiſeaux, which was afterwards found to be a new iſland, but its dimenſions and ſituation are not well aſcertained. The information brought by the laſt ſhip from thence, was, that the iſland was ſtill increaſing, and that great quantities of fire iſſued from two of its eminences.

The ſummers in Iceland are generally warm, the ſun being but three hours below the horizon; notwithſtanding which, it ſometimes hails and ſnows, but not violently. In winter the ſun is never more than one hour above the horizon, and the longeſt day at that ſeaſon is only three hours. The ſky is uſually ſerene, and, as in other northern climates, the aurora borealis is very frequently ſeen. The ſoil is tolerably fruitful in graſs, but differs according to different ſituations, being in ſome places ſandy, and in others a ſtiff clay. Corn cannot be cultivated here to any advantage; though cabbages, parſley, turnips, and peas, may be met with in five or ſix gardens, which are ſaid to be all in the whole iſland. It is, however, thought that the ſoil, if properly cultivated, would produce ſeveral kinds of grain, beſides vegetables.

The animals in Iceland are black cattle, ſheep, horſes, a few hogs, bears, foxes, goats, and dogs: but the white bear is not a native of the place, but conveyed hither from Greenland on the ſhoals of ice which float from thence. A number of them arrive yearly in this iſland, and commit great ravages, particularly among the ſheep. The Icelanders attempt to deſtroy theſe intruders as ſoon as they get ſight of them; and ſometimes they aſſemble together and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. On theſe occaſions, the bear-hunters are obliged to make uſe of ſpears, for want of fire-arms. The government encourages the natives to deſtroy theſe animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their ſkins are not allowed to be ſold to the common people, but are always purchaſed for the king.

This iſland abounds in moſt kinds of wild fowl, wild geeſe, ſea-birds, and birds of prey. But the moſt extraordinary bird, and which brings the greateſt emolument to the inhabitants, is a ſpecies of duck, called the down-bird, or eider-duck. The female is about the ſize of the common duck, and the ſame colour, except on the breaſt, which is of a lighter hue; but the male is as large as a gooſe, and has a great number of white feathers. In forming their neſts, the duck plucks the down from her own breaſt, in order to make a ſoft warm lining for the inſide. On this ſhe lays four green eggs, which are delicious eating; and theſe the natives take away, together with the down, and deſtroy the neſt. The duck immediately ſets about repairing this damage, and having once more built her neſt, lays four more eggs, of which ſhe is again robbed. Not diſcouraged, ſhe goes to work the third time; but if ſhe is then deprived of her eggs, ſhe quits that part of the country, and ſeeks a new habitation, for which reaſon the Icelanders always ſuffer her to hatch her laſt eggs, and are certain that ſhe and her young will return the next ſeaſon, and that they ſhall have three neſts inſtead of one. When the young quit their neſts, the people once more gather the down, ſo that every pair of birds yield eight eggs, and three parcels of down, in one ſeaſon. Swans are likewiſe ſeen here in great numbers, which the inhabitants kill for their down and feathers, and they eſteem their eggs a great delicacy.

The ſea of Iceland yields great plenty of cod, haddocks, whitings, and divers other kinds of fiſh. Whales are very numerous here: as alſo the ſea-calf, or white ſhark, called haakal. To theſe we may add the ſword or ſaw-fiſh, the land ſeal, the Iſland ſeal, and the Greenland ſeal. The freſh-water fiſh are eels, ſalmon, and excellent trout.

Some of the lakes here are thirty miles in circumference; and, beſides rivulets and ſtreams, the country is watered with large rivers, which flow from the mountains; and in ſome places there are chalybeat and hot ſprings.

Though there are no remarkable foreſts in Iceland, yet this want is in ſome meaſure ſupplied by drifts of excellent timber, which float aſhore on different parts of the coaſt.

No mines are worked here, yet large lumps of ſilver, copper, and iron ore, have been found on the ſurface. The principal mineral is ſulphur, generally found near hot ſprings.

Through the interior parts of Iceland run two chains of large mountains, called Jokells, one in length, and the other acroſs the country, ſome of which are continually covered with ice and ſnow, yet commonly paſſable to men and horſes: and on the tops of them are plains, extending twenty-five miles. In the year 1728, a dreadful eruption happened from the mountain Krafle, which diſcharged from it a ſtream of lava for the ſpace of eighteen miles, that fell with a horrible crackling noiſe into a great lake, called My-vatne, after having continued its courſe till the year 1730. Other eruptions of the like nature, preceded by earthquakes, have likewiſe been obſerved in this iſland, particularly in 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions from the earth produced very fatal conſequences. Mount Hecla, long famous in hiſtory, has not burnt for many years: the laſt eruption

eruption happened in 1766, and continued five months. Flames proceeded alſo from it in December 1771, and in September 1772; but no eruptions of lava. It is divided into three points at the top, has ſeveral chaſms on its ſides and ſummit, filled with boiling water.

With reſpect to the population of Iceland; it has been affirmed by ſome writers, that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, ſettled there in the ninth century; among theſe, were found ſome Iriſh books, bells, and croſiers; and hence it is conjectured, that the people who were there at that time, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but were at length obliged to ſubmit to the kings of Norway, and afterwards became ſubject to the king of Denmark, by whom a governor is appointed, ſtiled Stiftſamtmann, who conſtantly reſides in the iſland.

The Icelanders are in general middle-ſized, and well formed, though not very ſtrong. They are a ſober, honeſt, induſtrious people, and very faithful and obliging; are much inclined to hoſpitality, which they exerciſe according to their ability. Their chief employment is fiſhing, and the care of their cattle. On the coaſt, the men employ their time in fiſhing, both winter and ſummer; and the women prepare the fiſh, and ſew and ſpin. The men alſo prepare leather, work at ſeveral machanic trades, and ſome few work in gold and ſilver. They likewiſe manufacture a coarſe kind of cloth, called wadmal. The women clean and comb wool, ſpin, and knit gloves and ſtockings.

Their diſpoſitions are ſerious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never paſs a river, or any other dangerous place, without previouſly taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection; and they are always thankful for their preſervation, when they have paſſed the danger. The women are exceedingly fond of their children, whom they bring up with the moſt watchful tenderneſs.

The dreſs of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental, but it is neat, cleanly, and ſuited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear ſeveral gold, ſilver, or braſs rings. The poor women dreſs in the coarſe cloth called wadmal, and always wear black: thoſe who are in better circumſtances wear broad-cloth, with ſilver ornaments, gilt.

The houſes of the Icelanders are generally bad; in ſome places they are built of drift-wood, and in others they are raiſed of lava, with moſs ſtuffed between the lava. Their roofs are covered with ſods laid over rafters, or ſometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and more expenſive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the hearth, between three ſtones, and the ſmoke iſſues from a ſquare hole in the roof.

Their food conſiſts for the moſt part of dried fiſh, ſour butter, which they conſider as a great dainty, and a little meat, chiefly mutton. Bread is ſo ſcarce among them, that there is hardly any peaſant who eats it above three or four months in the year. Their common drink is ſour whey, or, as they term it, ſyre, milk mixed with water and whey; and the moſt wealthy of them import malt and hops, with which they brew their own beer.

When they meet together, their chief paſtime conſiſts in reading their hiſtory. The maſter of the houſe begins, and the reſt continue in their turns when he is tired. They are famous for playing at cheſs; and one of their paſtimes conſiſts in reciting verſes. Sometimes a man and a woman take one another by the hand, and by turns ſing ſtanzas, which is a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occaſionally join in chorus.

The inhabitants of this iſland live chiefly along the ſea-coaſt; their number is computed at 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times, but great numbers have been deſtroyed by contagious diſeaſes. From the years 1402 to 1404, the plague carried off many thouſands: famine has alſo made dreadful havock among them: for though the Icelanders cannot in general be ſaid to be in want of neceſſary food, yet the country has ſeveral times been viſited by great famines, chiefly occaſioned by the Greenland floating ice; which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the graſs from growing, and puts an entire ſtop to their fiſhing. The ſmall-pox has likewiſe been very fatal here; for that diſeaſe deſtroyed 16,000 perſons in the years 1707 and 1708.

Theſe people do not meaſure time by the clock or hour, but take their obſervations from the ſun, ſtars, or tide, which laſt is always regular; and parcel out the day into different diviſions, each of which has its particular appellation; viz. night, midnight, twilight, broad day, forenoon, noon, afternoon, evening mid-evening.

The Lutheran is the only religion tolerated in Iceland. The churches on the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt quarters of the iſland are ſubject to the biſhop of Skalholt, the capital of the iſland, and thoſe of the north quarter are under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Hoolum. The iſland is divided into 189 pariſhes, of which 127 belong to the ſee of Skalholt, and ſixty-two to that of Hoolum. All the miniſters are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly ſtipend of 4 or 500 rix-dollars from the king, excluſive of what they obtain from their congregations. The clergy are generally perſons of good morals, and tolerable education. The biſhop is obliged to maintain the rector and corrector, the miniſter of the cathedral church, and a certain number of ſcholars. In each dioceſe is a Latin ſchool, under the inſpection of a rector and proper aſſiſtants; where the languages, theology, and other branches of literature are taught, in order to qualify youth for the univerſity.

With reſpect to their learning and learned men, we are told that poetry formerly flouriſhed among them; and that Egil Skallagrimſon, Kormuk Ogmundſon, Glum Geirſon, and Thorlief Jarlaa, were celebrated as great poets. But writing was litttle practiſed till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were introduced there before that time, and probably from Norway. Soon after the Chriſtian religion was eſtabliſhed, the Latin characters were adopted, as the Runic alphabet, which conſiſts of only ſixteen letters, was found inſufficient.

The firſt Icelandic biſhop, Iſleif, founded a ſchool at Skalholt; and four other ſchools were ſoon after founded, wherein the youth were taught the Latin tongue, divinity, and ſome parts of theoretic philoſophy. And from the introduction of the Chriſtian religion here, till the year 1264, when Iceland became ſubject to Norway, it was one of the free countries in Europe, and the only one in the north, where the ſciences were either cultivated, or held in eſteem; and this period of time ſeems to have produced more learned men in Iceland, than any period ſince.

From their ancient chronicles it appears, that they had made a conſiderable progreſs in the ſtudy of morality, philoſophy, natural hiſtory, and aſtronomy. They wrote moſt of their works from the 11th to the 14th centuries, ſome of which have been printed. Sir Joſeph Banks preſented 162 Icelandic manuſcripts to the Britiſh Muſeum.

§

In

In 1772, that gentleman viſited Iceland, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Lind. An account of this voyage was publiſhed by Dr. Van Troil, who obſerves, that he found more knowledge among the poorer ſort of people in this iſland, than is to be met with in moſt other places; as a proof of which, he added, that many of them could repeat the works of ſome of their poets by heart; and that a peaſant was ſeldom to be found, who was not only inſtructed in the principles of religion, but alſo acquainted with the hiſtory of his own country; this knowledge in a great meaſure proceeds from the great delight they take in frequently reading, by way of amuſement, their traditional hiſtories, thus happily blending profit with pleaſure. What inconceivable advantage would accrue to the lower claſs among us, what multitudes would be made uſeful members of ſociety, and reſcued from untimely deſtruction, could they be brought thus to employ and improve their time and talents!

About the year 1530, John Areſon, biſhop of Hoolum, employed John Matthieſſon, a native of Sweden, to ſet up a printing-preſs in Iceland; he began with printing the Breviarium Nidaroſienſe; he afterwards printed an eccleſiaſtical manual, Luther's catechiſm, and other books of that nature. In 1578, the Icelandic code of laws appeared; and in 1584, the Icelandic Bible. Several valuable books have likewiſe been printed at a printing-office lately eſtabliſhed and privileged at Hrappſey, in this iſland.

Amongſt all the curioſities in Iceland, the hot-ſpouting-water ſprings are moſt worthy of notice. None of the hot ſprings or water-works in Germany, France, or Italy, can by any means be compared with thoſe. Some of them ſpout columns of water, of ſeveral feet in thickneſs, to the height of many fathoms; and, as many affirm, of ſeveral hundred feet. Theſe ſprings are of unequal degrees of heat. From ſome, the water flows gently as from other ſprings, and it is then called a bath: from others, it ſpouts boiling water with a great noiſe, and then it is called a kettle. The degree of heat is unequal, though ſeldom obſerved to be under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. It was found at Guyſer, Rœynum, and Laugarvatn, to be at 112; and in the laſt place in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. Some of the ſpouting-ſprings have been known to ceaſe, and others riſe up in their ſtead. Earthquakes and ſubterraneous noiſes, which are often heard at the time, cauſe great terror to the neighbouring people. The inhabitants who live near theſe hot ſprings, boil their victuals in them, only by hanging a pot, into which the fleſh is put in cold water, in the hot water of the ſpring. They alſo bathe in the rivulets that run from them which, by degrees, become lukewarm, or are cooled by being mixed with rivulets of cold water. Theſe ſprings are eſteemed very wholeſome when drunk by the people, and the cows that drink of them are ſaid to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk.

About two days journey from Heckla, and not far from Skalholt, is the largeſt of all theſe ſpouting-ſprings, which is called Guyſer. In approaching towards it, a loud roaring noiſe is heard, like the ruſhing of a torrent, precipitating itſelf from ſtupendous rocks. The water here ſpouts ſeveral times a day, but always by ſtarts, and after certain intervals. The water is thrown up much higher at ſome times than at others: When Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmoſt height to which it mounted, was computed to be 92 feet. Some travellers have affirmed, that it ſpouts to the height of 60 fathoms.

Baſaltine pillars, reſembling black marble, are likewiſe very common in Iceland. The lower ſort of people imagine them to have been piled upon one another by giants, who made uſe of ſupernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to ſeven ſides, and are from four to ſix feet in thickneſs, and from twelve to ſixteen yards in length, without any horizontal diviſions. In ſome places, they are only ſeen here and there among the lava in the mountains: but in other places, they extend two or three miles in length, without interruption. They are ſuppoſed to have been produced by ſubterraneous fires.

The whole trade of Iceland is engroſſed by a company of Daniſh merchants, who have been indulged by their monarch with an excluſive charter; and though there is not any conſiderable town in the whole iſland, the Icelanders have ſeveral frequented ports. Their exports conſiſt of dried fiſh, ſalted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarſe woollen cloth, ſtockings, gloves, raw wool, ſheep-ſkins, lamb-ſkins, fox furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports conſiſt of brandy, wine, ſalt, bread, tobacco, timber, fiſhing-lines and hooks, horſe-ſhoes, linen, and a little ſilk; beſides ſome neceſſaries and ſuperfluities for the more wealthy. They have properly no manufactures: they make a coarſe baize, termed wadmal, in a very awkward manner. Some of their woollen yarn they dye in verdigris; and afterwards make into pretty ſtuffs. The women knit great numbers of ſtockings and gloves.

The governor of this iſland, called Staffts-amptmand, is appointed by the king of Denmark, and is generally a perſon of diſtinction. He has the power of chooſing a deputy, called Amptmand, who always reſides in Iceland, and in ſpiritual caſes ſits as judge, with the clergy as his aſſeſſors. A third officer of the crown in Iceland, is a receiver, whoſe buſineſs it is to collect all the taxes and revenues, and tranſmit them to the royal treaſury. Beſides him, there are people termed ſyſſelmen, who farm the king's taxes in certain diſtricts, and act as juſtices of the peace; each within his own province.

For the regular adminiſtration of juſtice in this iſland there are two judges, called Langmænd, one of whom preſides over the northren, and the other over the ſouthern diviſion. Actions are firſt begun in the court of the ſyſſelman, from whence they may be removed to the langret, or general court, held under one of the judges. If ſatisfaction is not obtained there, an appeal may be lodged at the high court, in which the Amptmand preſides, together with the other judge, and eleven ſyſſelmen; and if the cauſe is not determined there, it is carried to the ſupreme court at Copenhagen. The only legal method of putting men to death in Iceland, is by beheading, or hanging them; but when a woman is condemned to die, ſhe is ſewed up in a ſack, and flung into the ſea.

The inhabitants of Iceland depend entirely upon his Daniſh majeſty's protection; and the revenues which the king draws from this country, amounts to about 30,000 crowns per annum. They ariſe chiefly from taxes and dues, a yearly ſum paid by the company of merchants, ſecularized abbey-lands, and other royal demeſnes farmed out to the natives.

The FARO or FERRO ISLANDS are 24 in number, lying in a cluſter in the northern ocean, between 61 and 63 deg. of north lat. and 6 and 8 deg. of weſt long. having Shetland and the Orkneys on the ſouth-eaſt, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-weſt. The ſpace of this cluſter extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the eaſtward of Norway. They are ſeparated from each other by deep and rapid channels; are all indented by the ſea, and furniſhed with

with many inlets, creeks, and harbours, which afford protection to fiſhermen, and trading veſſels, in bad weather. The largeſt of theſe iſlands, called Stromoe, is about 17 miles in length, and eight in breadth; the reſt are much ſmaller, and not inhabited. The revenues of Denmark acquire little addition from the trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 3000 or 4000.

CHAP. III.

NORWAY.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Diviſions, Animal and Vegetable Productions, Towns, &c.

THIS country is ſituated towards the north-pole, Norvegia, Nordway, and Norway, ſignifying the Northern Way. It lies between the 57th and 72d degrees of north latitude, and between the 5th and 31ſt deg. of eaſt long. It is bounded on the ſouth by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the weſt and north, by the Northern Ocean; and on the eaſt it is ſeparated from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, which have the various appellations of Rundfield, Dofrefield, Dourfield, and Fillefield. Its length is computed at 1020 miles, its breath at 290, and its ærea is ſuppoſed to contain 82,824 ſquare miles.

Norway is divided into four governments; viz. 1. The province of Aggerhus, which extends in length about 300 miles, and comprehends the ſouth-eaſt part of Norway. 2. Bergen, ſituated in the moſt ſoutherly and weſterly part of the country. 3. Drontheim, or Trontheim, which ſtretches about 500 miles on the coaſt. And, 4. The province of Wardhus, which extends to the north cape, and includes the iſlands of Finmark and Norwegian Lapland. Beſides theſe, there is the province of Bahus, being a narrow tract of land, about 90 miles in length, ſituated on the coaſt of Scaggerac, which, though now yielded to Sweden, is reckoned part of Norway.

The climate of this country is exceedingly different, according to the difference of its ſituation towards the ſea. In the eaſtern parts, the ground is generally covered with ſnow; and the cold, which ſets in about the middle of October, is very intenſe till the middle of April, during which time the waters are frozen to a conſiderable thickneſs. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, periſhed in the ſnow on the mountains which ſeparate Sweden from Norway, and their bodies were found in different paſtures. At Bergen, the winter is ſo moderate, that the ſeas are navigable both to mariners and fiſhermen, except in creeks and bays, which extend far enough up the country to be affected by the keen north-eaſt winds from the land. In Finmark, a part of Norway, ſituated in the frigid zone, the cold is ſo great, that very little of the country has ever been explored.

In proportion to the extreme cold of this climate in winter, is its heat in ſummer, occaſioned by the reflection of the ſun's rays from the ſides of the mountains, and the ſhortneſs of its duration below the horizon. The warmth in the vallies is in general ſo exceedingly great, that barley is ſown and fit to be houſed in the ſhort ſpace of ſix weeks.

At Bergen the longeſt day conſiſts of nineteen hours, and the ſhorteſt does not exceed ſix; ſo that in ſummer it is very eaſy to ſee to read at midnight, by the twilight; and in the diſtrict of Tromſen, at the extremity of Norway, the ſun never ſets at Midſummer; but in the depth of winter it is inviſible for weeks, and all the light, even at noon-day, is a faint glimmering occaſioned by the reflection of the ſun's rays upon the higheſt mountains. Happily for the inhabitants, however, the ſky at this ſeaſon of the year is exceedingly ſerene and clear, ſo that the moon ſhines without obſtruction, and her light, being reflected from the mountains, illuminates the vallies. The aurora borealis, or northern lights, which are very ſtrong in this country, are alſo of infinite uſe to the people, who by theſe helps employ themſelves in their daily occupations in the open air. This country is ſubject to frequent rains, and ſometimes the ſudden thaws prove terrible to the Norwegians; for vaſt maſſes of ſnow being thereby looſened, fall from prodigious high precipices, and overwhelm men, cattle, boats, houſes, nay ſometimes entire villages.

The air in Norway is generally pure and ſalubrious, and ſo dry in the midland parts of the country, that meal may be kept for many years without being worm-eaten, or otherwiſe damaged; but on the ſea-coaſt the vapours and exhalations render it moiſt, and not ſo healthy, except to people in conſumptions, with whom it is ſuppoſed to agree beſt.

No country in the world contains more mountains than Norway, a long chain of which runs from north to ſouth. The roads over theſe mountains are equally terrible and dangerous, there being often no other path than what is formed by an ill-ſecured wooden bridge, thrown over a breach in a frightful precipice or a roaring cataract. Theſe roads wind in ſuch a manner, as to render the paſſage over the mountain Hardangerfield, about ſeventy Engliſh miles, extremely dangerous. The ſame may be obſerved of that over Filefield, wich is about fifty miles, and the poſt road. To prevent travellers from being loſt or bewildered, the way is pointed out by poſts fixed at the diſtance of two hundred paces from each other; and on Filefield are two houſes furniſhed with fire, light, and kitchen utenſils, at the public expence, for the convenience of thoſe who are obliged to paſs along this dreadful road.

Beſides this chain, there are various other mountains ſcattered over the country, of extraordinary height. On the left hand, in ſailing up Joering Creek, is a cluſter of theſe mountains, which has the appearance of a city, decorated with old Gothic towers and edifices. The ſummit of the mountain Skopſhorn, in the pariſh of Oerſkong, repreſents the figure of a fortification, with regular walls and baſtions. A very high range of mountains, in the diſtrict of Hilgeland, are diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the Seven Siſters, from having ſeven high pinnacles on their tops, diſcernable at ſea for a conſiderable diſtance. The mountain Torghatten, in the ſame diſtrict, derives its name from the reſemblance the ſummit bears to a man with his hat on; an aperture in the mountain one hundred and fifty ells high, and three thouſand ells in length, forming a ſingle eye to the ſuppoſed face.

Innumerable are the difficulties and dangers to which theſe rocks and mountains ſubject the Norwegians. Their journies from place to place are always performed at the hazard of their lives: their habitations are rendered inſecure by the vaſt torrents, and falls of ſnow, which frequently overwhelm them, together with their cattle, and their land. This misfortune is much greater, as a very trifling part of the whole country is arable. Sometimes huge pieces of rock fall into the plains below, and cruſh every thing they meet with into ruins. Entire rifts of rocks, many fathoms in

length and breadth, have been known to tumble all at once, and cauſe ſuch a concuſſion of the air, as ſeemed a prelude to the diſſolution of the globe. At Steerbroc in Laerdale, a ſtupendous body appears to have been ſevered and tumbled from the mountain, in large, ſharp, and ragged fragments, through which the river roars with a continual and dreadful noiſe. Frequently both men and beaſts, by one falſe ſtep, are hurled down theſe dreadful precipices and daſhed to pieces. When a kid, ſheep, or goat, is unlucky enough to fall from ſome height on the projection of a rock, from whence it can neither aſcend nor deſcend, the owner generally endeavours to preſerve the life of his animal, though with the utmoſt hazard of his own. He ſeats himſelf on a croſs ſtick tied to the end of a long rope, whereby he is lowered down, by ſome of his companions, till he arrives at the place where the creature ſtands, which he faſtens to the ſame rope with himſelf, and both are drawn up together.

The caverns in Norway are equally wonderful with the ſtupendous mountains. In the lower part of Torghatten is one of theſe caves, into which a plumbet, faſtened to a line four hundred fathoms in length, being let down, did not reach the bottom. In the year 1750, two clergymen reſolved to make diſcoveries concerning a cavern at Herroe in Sundmoer, called Dolſteen. Accordingly, they entered this ſubterranean cavity, and proceeded till they heard the ſea daſh over their heads. The paſſage was as wide and high as an ordinary church, the ſides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted. They deſcended one flight of ſtairs, and arrived at a ſecond, which they did not venture to go down, but returned again, having conſumed two candles from the time they entered to the time they came back. In the diſtrict of Rake, in the neighbourhood of Frederickſhall, are three cavities in a rock; one of which is ſo deep, that a ſmall ſtone dropped down, is two minutes in arriving at the bottom, when it produces a ſound like that of a bell: and a cavern of a very curious nature penetrates through the ſides of the mountain Limur, and ſerves as a conduit to a ſtream of water.

The large and extenſive foreſts of Norway form the principal ſource of the wealth of that kingdom. In theſe, which are very numerous, are found in amazing quantities, fir, pine, elm, aſh, yew, benreed, birch, beech, oak, eel, or alder, juniper, aſpin-trees, comel, or ſloe-tree, haſel, elder, lyme, willow, and ſome ebony. The Norwegians ſupply foreigners with maſts, beams, planks, and boards. A vaſt quantity of wood is likewiſe expended in home conſumption, for building houſes, ſhips, bridges, piles, moles, fences, and in making charcoal for the founderies. In the timber trade, their lakes and rivers prove of the utmoſt conſequence; for the maſts and large beams are not only floated down them for exportation, but they erect mills on their banks for ſawing balks into planks, and deals, which, by this contrivance, is done with inconceivable expedition. A tenth of ſawed timber is claimed by the king of Denmark, and forms a conſiderable part of his revenue. The beſt timber grows in the provinces of Guldbranſdale, Tellemark, Valders, Romſdale, Saltan, Sognifiord, Oeſterdale, Helleland, Soloe, Hallingdale, and the lordſhip of Nedere. The principal exports of this article are made from Frederickſhall, Frederickſtadt, Chriſtiana, Chriſtianſand, Chriſtian's-Bay, Drontheim, Skeen, Drammen, and Anendal. Great quantities are exported annually from the weſtern coaſt of Norway to Spain and Scotland.

The principal rivers in Norway are the Neid; the Sule Ely; the Gulen; the Otteroen; the Syre; the Nid; the Sheen; the Tyrefiord, or Dramme; the Loven; the Glaaman, or Great River; and the Worme. In the year 1344, the Gulen buried itſelf under ground; from whence it burſt forth again with ſuch violence, that the earth and ſtones, thrown up by the eruption, filled the valley and formed a dam, which, however, was ſoon demoliſhed by the force of the water. Several churches, farm-houſes, and 250 perſons were deſtroyed on this occaſion. The Syre diſcharges itſelf into the ſea, through a narrow ſtreight formed by two rocks, which contraction augmenting its natural impetuoſity, it ſhoots with great ſwiftneſs into the ocean, where it produces vaſt agitation. The water-falls of the Nid and Sheen have been diverted with infinite labour and expence, by canals and paſſages cut through rocks, and they are now of the utmoſt convenience to the inhabitants for floating down their timber. Many of the lakes contain floating iſlands, formed by the coheſion of the roots of trees and ſhrubs in the ſoil, which, though thus ſeparated from the main land, bear herbage and trees. Near Frederickſtadt is a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad, formed by the ſudden ſinking of the noble family ſeat of Borge, into an abyſs 100 fathoms in depth. This accident, whereby 14 perſons and 200 head of cattle were killed, was occaſioned by the river Glaaman precipitating itſelf down a water-fall, near Sarp, and undermining the foundation of the houſe.

The freſh water of this country is very agreeable to the taſte, and remarkably ſalubrious, but it is generally turbid, depoſits a thick ſediment, and is often impregnated with oker and particles of iron.

Norway abounds in quarries of excellent marble, of all colours: ſome detached pieces of alabaſter; ſeveral kinds of ſpar, chalk-ſtone, cement-ſtone, ſand-ſtone, mill-ſtone, baking-ſtone, ſlate, talc, ſwine-ſtone, the magnet, or load-ſtone, and the amianthus, or aſbeſtos, whoſe delicate fibres are woven into cloth, which, when dirty or ſoiled, is cleanſed by being thrown into the fire, which has not the power of conſuming it. In this country are likewiſe found amethyſts, agate, granates, beautiful cryſtals, thunder-ſtones, eagle-ſtones, and pyrites or quartz; but there are no flints.

At preſent there are no gold mines worked in Norway, though formerly a ſmall quantity, found in the dioceſe of Chriſtianſand, was coined into ducats. Mines of ſilver have been diſcovered in ſeveral parts of the country, and there is now one working at Koningſburg, at the ſole expence and account of his Daniſh majeſty, out of which a piece of 560 lb. weight being taken, is preſerved as a curioſity in the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen. The copper mines are worked with the greateſt ſucceſs: the principal of theſe is at Roraas, an hundred Engliſh miles from Drontheim, which yields annually about 1100 ſhip-loads of pure copper. Iron is ſtill in greater plenty, and the profit ariſing from this metal is eſtimated at 300,000 rix-dollars yearly. A few mines of lead have lately been opened in the diſtrict of Poloer, but no very conſiderable advantage has as yet been derived from them.

The minerals found in Norway are vitriol, ſulphur, alum, and ſalt.

The animals found in Norway are all natives of Denmark, with an addition of many more. The wild beaſts peculiar to this country are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall, aſh-coloured animal, its ſhape partaking at once of the horſe and the ſtag; it is harmleſs, and, in the winter, ſocial; and the fleſh of it taſtes like veniſon. The rein-deer (which we ſhall deſcribe more

more particularly afterwards) is a ſpecies of ſtag. The hares are ſmall, and are ſaid to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are ſtrong and ſagacious: they are remarkable for not hurting children: they are hunted by little dogs; and ſome prefer bear-hams to thoſe of Weſtphalia. The Norwegian wolves are very fierce, but at the ſame time ſhy, even of a cow or goat, unleſs impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by ſome called the goupes, is ſmaller than a wolf, but equally dangerous: they are a ſpecies of cat, with claws like thoſe of a tyger. They often undermine ſheep-folds, where they make dreadful havock. The fur of the lynx is very beautiful and valuable. The foxes of Norway are of different colours, white, red, and black; but the ſkin of the latter is the moſt eſteemed: the white and red foxes partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they draw crabs aſhore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crabs lay hold of. The glutton, in ſhape and ſize of a turn-ſpit dog, with a long body, thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth: his fur, which is variegated, is ſo precious, that he is ſhot with blunt arrows, to preſerve the ſkin unhurt. This animal, which is ſometimes called the erven, or vielfras, is remarkably fierce and voracious, and of ſuch an inſatiable appetite, that he will devour a carcaſe larger than himſelf, and diſburthens his ſtomach by ſqueezing himſelf between two cloſe-ſtanding trees: and when he has overgorged himſelf with eating, he becomes an eaſy prey to the hunters: when taken, he has been even known to eat ſtone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, very ſhy, and ſo remarkably cleanly, that, it is ſaid, he will rather ſuffer himſelf to be taken, than run through the leaſt dirt to avoid his purſuers. The marten, or haaren, is of a beautiful gloſſy brown, and the fur very valuable: it reſembles a great foreſt cat, is very fierce, and its bite dangerous.

There are moſt of the birds in this country common to Europe, and its ſea coaſts are covered with innumerable flights of water-fowl, among which are wild geeſe and ducks. But the birds peculiar to Norway are the alk, the berg-ugle, the baſier, the ſtrand-ſneppe, the gagl, the hav-aare, the hav-heſt, the hav-ſule, the imber, or great northern diver, the jo-fugl, the krage, the kryk-kie, the lax-tite, the lom, the gull or maage, the ſavoren, the ſkare or loon, the treſt, the north-wind's-pipe, the ſouden-wind's-fugl, the he-dom-paps or coco-thrans, and the tiur uræ-gallus major, or the cock of the wood. Some of the moſt remarkable of theſe birds will here meet with a particular deſcription. The alk is an aquatic fowl, about the ſize of a large duck: they frequent the rocks in ſuch numbers, as frequently darken the air, and the noiſe of their wings is equal to the roaring of a ſtorm. The north-wind's-pipe is ſomething leſs than a ſtarling, and of a grey colour: this bird makes a particular noiſe before the north wind begins to blow; and the ſouden-wind's-fugl never appears but againſt a ſoutherly wind. The he-dom-paps is a very beautiful bird, the male particularly, whoſe plumage is variegated with red, black, and white: ſome of them are green, with red tufts of feathers on their heads, and theſe are moſt valuable: the hens are generally of a blue-grey. The cock of the wood is a noble bird, and may juſtly be placed at the head of the Norwegian game-fowl. He is very large, and in the bill and feet bears ſome reſemblance to the wild Turkey-cock: his colour is a dark grey, approaching to black, and his eyes not unlike that of a pheaſant.

The eagles of Norway, of which there are two kinds, viz. the land and the ſea, are of a prodigious ſize and ſtrength; the firſt of theſe having been known to carry off lambs, kids, and even children of two years old, in their talons. The ſea-eagle ſurpaſſes the former in ſize: his chief food is fiſh, upon which he darts down with amazing velocity: but this often proves his deſtruction, for when he ſtrikes a large fiſh, too ſtrong for him, the form of his talons, which are long and crooked, prevents him from diſengaging himſelf before his antagoniſt dives, whereby he is always drowned. The tiuren is alſo an inhabitant of this country: he bears ſome reſemblance to an eagle, but is not ſo fierce.

There are thirty different kinds of truſhes in Norway, and a great variety of hawks. The ſwallows are alſo very numerous. About the latter end of ſummer they take wing in large flights, and plunge themſelves into freſh water lakes, chooſing a place filled with reeds and buſhes, where they remain all the winter in a ſtate of inſenſibility, and revive again in the ſpring.

The Norwegians, who reſide upon the ſea-ſhore, are amazingly expert in climbing the ſteepeſt rocks in order to take the birds, with their eggs, feathers, and down; all which prove of the utmoſt advantage to them. When theſe bird-men intend to climb the rocks, two of them tie themſelves together with a rope of a moderate length, each having a pole in their hands with a net fixed to the end; this net is applied to the mouth of the holes from whence the birds take their flight, which are by theſe means ſecured; but ſome of them will ſuffer themſelves to be taken with the hand out of their neſts. The man who firſt begins to climb is puſhed on by the pole of his comrade, till he arrives at a proper ſtanding place, where he fixes himſelf; and the ſecond man clambers up by the aſſiſtance of the rope which is tied round the waiſt of his fellow. In this manner they proceed alternately, till they arrive at the place moſt frequented by the birds. If one of theſe men makes a falſe ſtep, which, notwithſtanding their great care and dexterity, too often happens, he drags his companion down with him, and both periſh in the fall. Sometimes theſe men are lowered down, by upwards of a hundred fathom of rope, over dreadful precipices; which method is likewiſe attended with the utmoſt danger, for ſometimes the looſe fragments of the rock, being put in motion by his deſcent, fall upon, and cruſh him to death; and at others, the rope being cut aſunder by the ſharp pointed ſtones, he is precipitated and daſhed in pieces among the rocks. The farmers in the northern diſtricts train their dogs to aſſiſt them in bird catching, and theſe animals will take birds from holes almoſt inacceſſible.

There is ſcarcely a fiſh to be named which is not found in the lakes, rivers, or ſeas of Norway, and the latter is the habitation of ſeveral extraordinary monſters, a deſcription of which we ſhall add for the ſatisfaction of the reader; but ſhall firſt take notice of the prodigious ſhoals of herrings which annually come from under the ice at the north pole, where they breed, to the weſtern coaſts of Norway. Theſe fiſh are the prey of the whale, porpoiſe, ſhark, &c. which purſue them along ſhore into inlets and creeks, where they may be taken up by pails. One of theſe ſhoals extends a conſiderable way in length and breadth, and will reach from the bottom to the ſurface of the water, even in the depth of two hundred fathoms. Theſe fiſh are in the greateſt perfection from Chriſtmas to Candlemas; at which ſeaſon the country people aſſemble in multitudes on the ſea-ſhore with their boats, caſks, fiſhing-tackle, and ſalt. Three hundred boats, within the compaſs of a mile, may meet with employment for a whole month; and frequently, at one ſingle caſt, a fiſherman will take more fiſh than he can diſpoſe of. About the lati-

tude

tude of Iceland the herrings divide themſelves into three bodies; one of which ſupplies the weſtern iſles and coaſt of Scotland; a ſecond directs its courſe round the eaſtern parts of Great Britain down the channel; and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. The cod fiſhery is another great ſource of wealth to the Norwegians; and this, together with the herring-fiſhery, is computed to employ and maintain above 150,000 people.

The coaſts of Norway abound in ſhell-fiſh; among which are exceeding fine rock oyſters; and on the weſt ſide of this country is found the pearl muſcle.

There are ſeven different ſpecies of whales found in the Norwegian ſeas, whither they follow the herrings and other fiſh. The largeſt of theſe reſembles the cod, having ſmall eyes, a dark marble ſkin, and white belly. They meaſure 70 feet in general from head to tail, ſometimes more, and the water, which they take in by inſpiration, they ſpout again through two apertures or holes in the back part of the head. Their throats are exceedingly narrow in proportion to their ſize; their tails are placed horizontally, and under the ſkin the fleſh is covered with fat two or three feet thick, which is called the blubber. The whales copulate like land animals, and the female brings forth one, and ſometimes two at a birth, about nine or ten feet long. Beſides ſmall inſects, which float in myriads upon the water, they feed upon cod, herring, and divers other fiſh, which they drive together in ſhoals, and ſwallow in ſuch amazing numbers, that their bellies are diſtended almoſt to burſting, in which caſe they roar moſt hideouſly from pain. Numberleſs are the enemies which encounter the whale. The threſher faſtens on his back, and beats him without intermiſſion; while another, called the ſaw-fiſh, furniſhed with a ſharp horn, aſſaults him from below, and frequently rips open his belly. The ſpekhuggeren, a ſpecies of porpoiſe, having very long and ſharp teeth, bites and tears the fleſh from his body; and, when he comes up to the ſurface, he is aſſaulted by divers birds of prey. In the midſt of theſe tortures he roars moſt dreadfully, and leaps ſo as to raiſe himſelf perpendicular above the ſea, and then plunges down again with ſuch violence, that, if he happens to be in ſhallow water, where there are rocks, he uſually fractures his ſkull, and comes floating up quite dead.

A ſpecies of ſhark are found in theſe ſeas, called haac-mæren, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three caſks of train-oil. The tuella-flynder is ſhaped like a turbot, but exceedingly broad. It is reported that a fiſherman in ſtriking at one of theſe fiſh happened to fall overboard, and ſink to the bottom, upon which the tuella-flynder immediately dived and ſpread his enormous body over the man to prevent his riſing again; and he muſt have been inevitably drowned, though there was only between two and three fathom water, if his companions in the boat, who ſaw all that paſſed, had not drove the fiſh away with their boat-hooks. The rana-piſcatrix, or ſea-devil, is about ſix feet in length, and is ſo called from its monſtrous appearance and voracity. The ſea-ſcorpion, found in the ſeas of Norway, is about four feet long, with a head larger than the whole body. The aſpect of this animal is frightful: he has a wide mouth, monſtrous jaws, and his bite is ſaid to be poiſonous.

It is now a generally received opinion that the kraken, or korven, and the ſea-ſnake or ſerpent of the ocean, are no longer the fictitious productions of travellers and authors, but that theſe monſters really exiſt in the ſeas of Norway. The firſt of theſe is of the polypus kind, and ſuppoſed to be about a mile and a half in circumference. In ſummer, when the Norwegian fiſhermen find no more than 20 or 30 fathoms water, where the depth is uſually 80 or 100, they are certain that the kraken is below them, and if, by their lines, they perceive that he riſes, they row away with the greateſt expedition. As ſoon as part of the kraken has attained the ſurface of the water, it has the appearance of a number of ſmall iſlands, interſperſed with ſand-banks, covered with ſea-weeds, and abounding with a great variety of ſmall fiſh. On his further emerging, a number of pellucid antennæ riſe upon his back, as large and as high as the maſts of a moderate veſſel; by means of theſe arms, or tentacula, he moves himſelf and gathers in his food, which conſiſts of ſmall fiſh. Having remained a ſhort time in this ſituation, he begins to ſink again, and, though the motion is very ſlow and gradual, it produces a dangerous ſwell and whirlpool in the water. In 1680, a young kraken periſhed among the rocks and cliffs in the pariſh of Alſtahong, where it had by ſome means entangled itſelf, and the ſtench of the putrified carcaſe was for ſome time ſo great, that it rendered the channel impaſſable.

In 1756, a ſea-ſnake was ſhot at by a maſter of a Norwegian veſſel. The head of this monſter reſembled that of a horſe; the mouth was very large and black, as were the eyes; and a long white mane hung down from its neck and floated upon the ſea. Beſides the head, which this animal held about two feet above the ſurface of the water, they ſaw ſeven or eight coils of him, about the diſtance of a fathom one from another, and each about the ſize of a hogſhead. Immediately upon its being ſhot at, this ſnake diſappeared, though it was undoubtedly wounded, as the water for ſome ſpace was tinged with blood.

Egede, an author of veracity, ſays, that on the 6th of July, 1734, a large and frightful ſea monſter raiſed itſelf ſo high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-maſt of the ſhip: that it had a long ſharp ſnout, broad paws, and ſpouted water like a whale: that the body ſeemed to be covered with ſcales, the ſkin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a ſnake. Though it is impoſſible to aſcertain the exact dimenſions of this frightful animal, yet from the teſtimony of numbers who have ſeen it, it is natural to ſuppoſe, that he is 100 fathoms in length, and the circumference of his body as large as that of an hogſhead. His ſkin, which he is ſaid to ſhed annually, is ſmooth and variegated like tortoiſeſhell, and his excrement, which floats upon the ſurface of the water, is ſo corroſive, that if the ſeamen touch it, their hands immediately bliſter. The ſailors ſuppoſe that this creature has an exquiſite ſenſe of ſmelling, from his avoiding a veſſel which has caſtor on board; for which reaſon all maſters of ſhips provide themſelves with that drug, to prevent being overſet or ſunk, the ſerpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquiſite.

The mer-man and mer-maid, are likewiſe ſaid to reſide in the Norwegian ſeas, and in 1719 one of the males of this ſpecies was found dead on a point of land in Norland. This animal was of a dark grey colour, with a face reſembling, in ſome reſpects, that of a man; the mouth was large, the noſe flat, the forehead high; the eyes were exceeding ſmall, and it had neither chin nor ears. The arms, which were ſhort and without joints or elbows, were faſtened to the ſides by a thin membrane, and terminated in members ſomewhat like a human hand, having the fingers connected by a membrane. The body tapered into a fiſh's tail, like that of a porpoiſe, which is always kept under water, and the length extended to three fathoms. The mer-maid is formed in the ſame manner, except the difference of ſex, which is diſtinguiſhed like that of the human race, and they have breaſts at which they ſuckle their young. Theſe creatures

tures have been ſeen in different parts of the North, and are of various ſizes, from two feet to three fathom.

With regard to the vegetable productions, it will be ſufficient to obſerve, that the cultivated parts of Norway yield plentiful crops of barley, oats, and rye; but the whole country does not produce corn ſufficient to ſupport half its inhabitants. Peas, buck-wheat, hemp, flax, and hops, are propagated there, but not with any great degree of ſucceſs. Till within theſe few years the Norwegians imported their roots, cabbages, and every other kitchen vegetable from England and Holland; but, by taking ſome pains in the culture of their own lands, they now have gardens which produce theſe ſalutary neceſſaries of life in as much perfection as in other northern countries. There are numbers of plants which grow wild; and many of them peculiar to the country. The meadows afford plenty of excellent paſture for ſheep and cattle; and among the other kinds of graſs found there, is that called by the botaniſts viola canina, deſcribed below.

Here are many wild plants, the infuſion of one of which ſome of the inhabitants drink in the manner of tea, and deem it an admirable pectoral.

As the ſcurvy is a prevailing diſorder in Norway, nature hath bountifully ſupplied that country with a profuſion of antiſcorbutic herbs, ſuch as angelica, roſewort, gentian, creſſes, trefoils, ſorrel, ſcurvy-graſs, &c. But to counterbalance theſe conveniences, Norway abounds with many nauſeous and poiſonous herbs and plants, that are prejudicial both to men and cattle.

That admirable graſs, called viola canina, which grows here, was rendered particularly famous by having, in the year 1652, contributed, in a moſt aſtoniſhing manner, to the preſervation of two Norway youths: The ſtory of this tranſaction is as follows:

On the firſt day of Auguſt, in the ſaid year, two brothers made an excurſion of about ſeven leagues from their father's houſe, to take their pleaſure in hunting, ſhooting, fiſhing, &c. After having enjoyed the diverſion of fiſhing for the ſpace of four days, in the lake Riff, they rowed, in a little ſkiff, to a very ſmall iſland on the ſaid lake. While they ſtaid here a ſudden ſquall of wind occaſioned the ſkiff to break looſe, and drive to the ſhore, where their dog ſtood waiting for them. As neither of the youths could ſwim, they ſaw themſelves ſuddenly abandoned to famine, on a deſolate iſland, and ſequeſtered from all intercourſe with mankind.

Their firſt care was to build a kind of hut, with ſmall ſtones, that they might, in ſome degree, be ſcreened from the inclemency of the weather. Towards the cloſe of the ſecond day, their appetites being whetted to the keeneſt ſenſe of hunger, they induſtriouſly ſought ſome vegetable food, and ventured to eat the viola canina, each to the amount of an ounce twice a day; and this was all that they could find at one ſearch. Their ſtomachs were eaſed, their ſpirits refreſhed, and the acute pains which had begun to ſeize their arms and ſhoulders immediately abated. Eleven days did they ſubſiſt on this vegetable, but it failed on the twelfth, and they were reduced to the brink of deſpair; when they accidentally found a little ſpot overgrown with ſorrel, which they conſumed at one meal: nevertheleſs it was reproduced in leſs than twenty-four hours, and the devout young men, with tears of gratitude to heaven, owned it as an interpoſition of Providence in their behalf.

During the firſt days of their ſuffering they had called and beckoned to their dog, and uſed every poſſible allurement to induce that animal to ſwim over, that they might kill him for their ſubſiſtence, but he would not obey their ſignals. They were now reduced to ſuch a weak condition that they could not ſtand, and could hardly make ſhift to creep from their hut in queſt of the ſorrel. The eldeſt was ſeized with a violent palpitation of the heart; and the youngeſt carved their names, and a ſhort account of the ſad accident they had met with, upon a piece of timber, pointing out, at the ſame time, a text of the pſalms, on which he requeſted that their funeral ſermon might be preached. Then having joined in fervent prayer, they embraced each other, and became perfectly reſigned to their approaching fate.

Their dog, in the mean time, having tarried eight days with their baggage on the ſhore, returned to their father's houſe, where he refuſed food, and inceſſantly moaned in a moſt diſmal manner: hence the parents concluded that their ſons had met with ſome misfortune, and diſpatched a man in ſearch of them. The meſſenger arrived at the lake, found their baggage, and concluding they were drowned, returned with the melancholy tidings. On the thirteenth day of their being on the iſland, and after having reſigned every hope of relief, they heard the trampling of horſes feet, and exerting their utmoſt efforts, they called out loud enough to be beard. The travellers immediately came to the ſhore, and, having found the ſkiff, humanely put off to the iſland, where they found the brothers almoſt exhauſted. The eldeſt, when food was offered him, could ſcarce bear the ſmalleſt portion; and, after being conveyed to his father's houſe, remained for ſome time in great danger; but at length recovered, and ſurvived this diſaſter thirty-ſeven years. The younger recovered his ſtrength ſomewhat ſooner, and afterwards drew up this narrative as a pious acknowledgment of God's providence in their favour.

Common fruits grow tolerably well here; but the ſuperior ſort but very indifferently. Norway, however, produces a great variety of excellent berries, ſuch as juniper-berries, ſun-berries, gooſeberries, barberries, cranberries, coriander-berries, raſpberries, blackberries, bilberries, ſtrawberries, &c.

With reſpect to the ſtones of Norway, they have a brown pebble, which eaſily decays; black, white, blue, grey, and variegated marble; alabaſter, chalk-ſtone, cement-ſtone, ſand-ſtone, mill-ſtone, baking-ſtone, load-ſtone, ſlate, talc, amianthus or aſbeſtos, ſwine-ſtone or a kind of cryſtal, real cryſtals, granates, amethyſts, agates, various kinds of ſpars, thunder-ſtones, and eagle-ſtones. The eagle-ſtone is very ſingular, and ſeems to conſiſt of ſeveral ſhells, or cruſts, laid one over another: but that which diſtinguiſhes it from all others is its being hollow in the inſide, in which cavity there is another ſtone that is ſmaller. This, when it is ſhaken, may be heard to rattle. It is of various colours, as white, grey, dun, or brown. Modern authors mention only three ſorts of this ſtone; the firſt of which is rough on the out-ſide, and is of different colours, but commonly of a black dun. This makes a very diſtinct noiſe when rattled. The ſecond is of an aſh colour, and contains a ſort of marle in the inſide, which is ſometimes white, yellow, red, or blue; the outſide is rough and ſandy, and ſeems to conſiſt of the particles of flint. A third is of ſeveral colours, but has the like contents as the former. The firſt kind is no larger than a peach-ſtone, but the other two are often as large as a man's fiſt. Theſe ſort of ſtones are found in moſt parts of the country.

The curioſities of Norway are only natural, conſiſting of ſtupendous mountains, caverns, waterfalls, and whirlpools. The moſt remarkable vor-

tex, or whirlpool, is on the coaſt, lat 67, called Maleſtroom or Moſkoeſtrom, and, by navigators, the navel of the ſea. Moſkoe, the iſland from whence this whirlpool takes its name, belongs to the diſtrict of Lofoden, in the province of Norland, lying between the mountains Heſleggen in Lofoden, and the iſland Ver, which are about a league diſtant; and between the iſland and coaſt, on each ſide, the ſtream makes its way. Between Moſkoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but, between Moſkoe and Ver, it is ſo ſhallow as not to afford paſſage for a ſmall ſhip. When it is flood, the ſtream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moſkoe with a boiſterous rapidity; and, at ebb, returns to the ſea with a violence and noiſe unequalled by the loudeſt cataracts, and is heard at many leagues diſtance. At the ſame time, it forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth and extent; ſo violent, that, if a ſhip comes near it, it is immediately drawn irreſiſtibly into the whirlpool, and there diſappears, being abſorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is daſhed into pieces againſt the rock; and juſt at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes ſtill for a quarter of an hour, the wreck riſes again, but in fragments ſo ſmall as ſcarcely to be diſtinguiſhed for parts of a ſhip. When the natural fury of this vortex is heightened by a ſtorm, it is dangerous for a veſſel to venture within a league of it. Whales, and even land animals, in attempting to ſwim from the coaſt to the iſland, have ſometimes, notwithſtanding their utmoſt efforts and hideous bellowings, been abſorbed in the vortex, and deſtroyed. If brutes are thus affected by the view of their approaching danger, how muſt it affect a whole ſhip's crew with horror, when, beholding themſelves on the brink of inevitable deſtruction, they cry out for that help which they know cannot be obtained; and ſee before them the dreadful abyſs in which they are about to be plunged, and daſhed among the rocks at the bottom of the water. Bears, in their attempts to ſwim to the iſland, to prey upon the ſheep, have frequently experienced the ſame fate.

The inhabitants of Norway are a middling kind of people, between the ſimplicity of the Greenlanders and the Icelanders, and the more poliſhed manners of the Danes. In their perſons, the men are well formed, tall, and robuſt. The women are likewiſe tall, have good ſhapes and comely features, and are remarkably fair. They are an honeſt, hoſpitable, and ingenious people, but, at the ſame time, raſh, quarrelſome, and litigious.

Every man is in ſome degree a ſoldier, and the method of deciding their quarrels, even among the farmers, is by ſingle combat with their knives. There is no nation where the nobility and merchants live better than in Norway, but the lower claſs ſubſiſt in a very frugal manner. Their common bread is made of oat-meal, and, when that is ſcarce, they mix it with the bark of the fir or elm tree, ground into powder, of which compoſition they make haſty pudding and ſoup, the latter being enriched with the addition of a pickled herring, or ſalted mackerel. Fiſh, grouſe, partridges, hares, red deer, and rein deer, form their ſummer proviſions, as the fleſh of cows, ſheep, and goats, pickled, ſmoked, or dried, does their winter. Their common drink is a liquor made from ſour whey, which they call ſyre, mixed with water; but, againſt feſtivals and holydays, they have always a reſerve of ſtrong ale, with the uſe of which, at ſuch times, they indulge themſelves even to intoxication; and this exceſs, added to the natural warmth of their tempers, ſeldom fails to produce bloodſhed, if not murder. They are remarkable for longevity, nothing being more common than to ſee a peaſant of an hundred years of age following his profeſſion with alacrity and cheerfulneſs; and, in the year 1733, four men, together with their wives, danced before his Daniſh majeſty at Frederickſhall, whoſe ages, when added together, exceeded 800 years.

Some of the Norwegians, however, are ſubject to the gout, epilepſy rheumatiſm, catarrhs, leproſy, ſcurvy, &c.

Both ſexes wear jackets, girt round them with leathern belts; thoſe of the women being adorned with ornaments of ſilver, and their hair, caps, and handkerchiefs, are decorated with ſmall plates, rings, and buttons of the ſame metal, if they can afford it, and, if not, its place is ſupplied by braſs and tin. Thoſe in affluence likewiſe wear ſilver chains round their necks. The men, except upon particular occaſions, never cover their boſoms, but ſuffer the wind, rain, and ſnow, to beat into them, without receiving the leaſt injury in their health. In winter, they wear buſkins made of leather, ſnow ſhoes, and long ſkaits, with which they travel at an amazing rate; and it is ſaid, that a corps of Norwegian ſoldiers, thus accoutred, will outmarch the ſwifteſt horſes. Their uſual diverſions are riding, ſwimming, ſkaiting, blowing the horn, or playing upon a ſort of guittar, and the violin, and in making verſes.

Their houſes are in general made of the trunks of fir and pine-tree laid upon each other, and joined by mortiſes at the corners; ſome have neither chimnies nor windows, but a ſquare hole on the top, for admitting the light, and letting out the ſmoke. The church, public edifices, and houſes of the people of faction, are built of ſtone.

There is a tincture of Paganiſm in their funeral ceremonies: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpſe is carried to church, which is often done in a boat. In ſome places, the mourners aſk the dead perſon why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other ſuch queſtions, frequently kneeling down, and aſking forgiveneſs of the deceaſed, if they had ever offended him.

The Norwegians profeſs the Lutheran religion. Their church is governed by an archbiſhop, who reſides at Drontheim, and four ſuffragans, whoſe ſees are Bergen, Staffanger, Hammer, and Chriſtiana. They ſpeak the ſame language that is uſed in Denmark; but their original tongue is that of Iceland.

Their commerce differs little from that of Denmark, which we ſhall particularize in our deſcription of that kingdom. Their exports amount annually to 100,000 rix-dollars; and conſiſt of wrought and unwrought copper, iron, lead, marble, mill-ſtones, cow-hides, goat-ſkins, fox-ſkins, ſeal-ſkins, bear-ſkins, beavers, martins, ermines, maſts, deal boards, timber, herrings, cod, ling, ſalmon, lobſters, flounders, down, feathers, butter, tallow, train oil, juniper, and other berries, ſalt, glaſs, tar, nuts, alum, vitroil, pot-aſhes, &c. The commodities imported chiefly conſiſt of luxurious articles, and moſt of the neceſſaries of life.

We are aſſured, from the beſt calculations, that Norway can furniſh out 14,000 excellent ſeamen, and above 30,000 brave ſoldiers, for the uſe of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000l. and, till his preſent Majeſty aſcended the throne, the army, inſtead of being expenſive, added conſiderably to his income, by the ſubſides it brought him in from foreign potentates.

The principal cities in Norway are Chriſtiana, Bergen, Chriſtianſand, Konigſberg, Frederickſhall, Frederickſtadt, and Drontheim.

Chriſtiana, conſidered as the chief city of Norway, is thirty miles diſtant from the Baltic, ſituated

on the weſt ſide of a bay, and defended by the caſtle of Aggerhus. It is a large and regular city, the buildings in general are good, and ſome of them elegant. Its trade is conſiderable; and, in the year 1636, an academy was eſtabliſhed here, but it has lately declined, and is now little better than a public ſchool.

Bergen, the capital of Norway, is 137 miles diſtant from Chriſtiana, to the north-weſt, This is a conſiderable city and port on the German ocean, and carries on a very large trade. It ſtands in the middle of a valley, forming a ſemicircle, or rather horſe-ſhoe, on the ſhore of a bay called Waag, and is the principal place of trade in this kingdom. On the land ſide it is defended from any attack by a range of lofty mountains, and, towards the ſea, the harbour is defended by ſeveral ſtrong fortifications. There were formerly no leſs than thirty churches and convents in Bergen; but, at preſent, there are only ſix. All the churches, public ſtructures, and moſt of the burghers houſes, are of ſtone. The caſtle is a conſiderable building, which, together with the ſchool built and endowed for twelve ſcholars in the year 1554, by biſhop Petri, and the Frederick ſeminary, are worth notice. The number of inhabitants are computed at 30,000. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Drontheim.

Chriſtianſand, ſo called from Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, and the ſandy beach on which it is ſituated. The city is of a quadrangular form, has broad and regular ſtreets, and a good town-houſe. It is advantageouſly ſituated, and has a pretty good trade. In 1734, the church and the greater part of the city were reduced to aſhes by an accidental fire.

Konigſberg is more remarkable for the ſilver mines in its neighbourhood, than for its buildings. It has, however, ſome good houſes, and a few public edifices.

Frederickſhall is ſituated on the Categate, at the mouth of the river Glammen, and carries on a pretty good trade. It is well fortified, and is conſidered as the key of the kingdom. Charles XII. of Sweden beſieged this place in December 1718, but was killed by a ſhot from the ramparts, as he was viewing the trenches, about nine at night.

Frederickſtadt is a conſiderable place, well fortified, and ſituated on the frontiers of Sweden. It carries on an extenſive trade, and ſome of the buildings are neat and elegant.

Drontheim, ſituated on a little gulf at the mouth of the river Nider, is about 220 miles diſtant from Bergen to the north-eaſt. This was formerly the capital, where the kings of Norway reſided, and the city had once ten churches and five convents; but, at preſent, there are only two churches, and a chapel belonging to the hoſpital. The cathedral, a beautiful ſtructure, was burnt in 1530, except the choir, which ſtill remains. It is fortified on the land ſide, and its harbour is defended by Monkholm fort, erected on a rock ſurrounded by the ſea. There is a good Latin ſchool, a miſſion ſeminary, an orphan houſe, an infirmary, and an hoſpital. It carries on a conſiderable trade in timber, fiſh, coarſe cloths, and copper from the neighbouring works at Meldal and Roraas.

The ancient Norwegians were certainly a very brave and powerful people, and the hardieſt ſeamen in the world. If we may believe their hiſtories, they were no ſtrangers to America long before it was diſcovered by Columbus. Many cuſtoms of their anceſtors are yet diſcernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent deſcents, and ſome ſettlements, which are generally confounded with thoſe of the Danes. When the two kingdoms of Denmark and Norway were united under one monarch, by the marriage of Aquin, King of Norway, with Margaret, Queen of Denmark, in the year 1376, the people of both nations enjoyed conſiderable privileges; but, from the time that the Daniſh government became abſolute, Norway has been governed by a viceroy, who preſides in the ſupreme court of judicature, and regulates his conduct according to the laws of Denmark. Since the union, from the moſt turbulent, they are become now the moſt loyal ſubjects in Europe; which we can eaſily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings when a ſeparate people. We muſt refer to Denmark for further particulars relating to their hiſtory, and ſhall conclude this part with the character of the peaſantry of Norway, and a view of the preſent ſtate of the country, extracted from Mr. Coxe's Travels into Poland, &c.

"The Norwegians, being the ſame race with the Danes, and ſo long connected with them in religion and government, ſpeak the ſame language, with a neceſſary mixture of provincial expreſſions. Wilſe, a native of Norway, informs us, that the gentry and inhabitants of the principal towns, allowing for a few provincial expreſſions, ſpeak purer Daniſh than is uſual even in Denmark, not excepting Copenhagen; that the inhabitants of the eaſtern confines bordering on Sweden naturally blend many Swediſh words; that, throughout the whole country, the general accent and cadence is more analogous to the Swediſh than to the Daniſh pronunciation: and that the inhabitants on the weſtern coaſts, who have a more conſtant communication with the Danes, partake leſs of this peculiarity.

"The people of this country maintain their own army, which conſiſts of 24,000 infantry, and 6,000 cavalry. The troops are much eſteemed for their bravery, and, like the Swiſs mountaineers, exceedingly attached to their country. The horſes which ſupply their cavalry are ſmall, but ſtrong, active, and hardy. Every peaſant (thoſe excepted who inhabit the coaſts, and are claſſed as ſailors) not born in a town, or upon ſome noble eſtate, is by birth a ſoldier, and enrolled for ſervice at the age of ſixteen. From that year till he has attained the age of twenty-ſix, he is claſſed in the young militia. At twenty-ſix he enters into the old militia, and continues till thirty-ſix, at which period he receives his diſcharge. The militia take the field every year in the month of June, and remain encamped about a month.

"The Norwegians are bleſſed with a particular code, called the Norway Law, compiled by Grieffelfeld, at the command of Chriſtian the Fifth, the great legiſlator of his country. By this law, the palladium of Norway, the peaſants are free, a few only excepted on certain noble eſtates near Frederickſtadt. But the virtue of this law extends itſelf even to thoſe ſerfs, for no proprietor can have more than one of theſe privileged eſtates; and unleſs he poſſeſſes a title or certain rank, and reſides on his eſtate, he loſes his privilege, and the peaſants are free. The benefits of the Norway code are ſo viſible in its general effects on the happineſs and in the appearance of the peaſants, that a traveller muſt be blind who does not inſtantly perceive the difference between the free peaſants of Norway and the enſlaved vaſſals of Denmark, though both living under the ſame government.

"Many of the peaſants pretend to be deſcended from the ancient nobles, and ſome even from the royal line: they greatly pride themſelves upon this ſuppoſed deſcent, and are careful not to give their children in marriage but to their equals in birth and blood.

"A curious cuſtom prevails in Norway, called odels right, or right of inheritance, by which the proprietor

proprietor of certain freehold eſtates may re-purchaſe his eſtate, which either he or any of his anceſtors have ſold, provided he can prove the title of his family. But, in order to enforce his claim, his anceſtors, or he, muſt have declared every tenth year, at the ſeſſions, that they lay claim to the eſtate, but that they want money to redeem it; and if he, or his heirs, are able to obtain a ſufficient ſum, then the poſſeſſor muſt, on receiving the money, give up the eſtate to the odels-man. For this reaſon, the peaſants, who are freeholders, keep a ſtrict account of their pedigree.

"This cuſtom is attended with advantages and diſadvantages. As to the advantages, it fixes the affections of the peaſant on his native place, and he improves with pleaſure thoſe poſſeſſions which are ſo ſtrongly ſecured to him: it increaſes the conſequence and excites the induſtry of his family. On the contrary, the eſtate loſes its value when ſold to another perſon, becauſe, as he poſſeſſes only a precarious eſtate, which he may be obliged to reſign, he is not inclined to improve the lands, as if they were irrecoverably his own.

"The Norwegian peaſants poſſeſs much ſpirit and fire in their manner, are frank, open, and undaunted, yet not inſolent; never fawning to their ſuperiors, yet paying proper reſpect to thoſe above them.

"Their principal mode of ſalute is by offering their hand; and, when we gave them or paid them a trifle, the peaſants, inſtead of returning thanks by words or by a bow, ſhook our hands with great frankneſs and cordiality.

"The peaſants here are well cloathed and well lodged, and appear to poſſeſs more comforts and conveniencies of life than any which I have ſeen in the courſe of my travels, excepting in ſome parts of Switzerland.

"They weave their ordinary cloth and linen; they make alſo a kind of ſtuff like a Scotch plaid. The cloth which the men uſe for their coats is principally of a ſtone colour, with red button-holes, and white metal buttons.

"The women, while employed in their houſehold affairs, frequently, as in Sweden, appear only with a petticoat and a ſhift, with a collar reaching to the throat, and a black ſaſh tied round the waiſt. Their linen is remarkably fine; and, as they are uſually well made, this mode of dreſs ſets off their ſhapes to the higheſt advantage.

"The common food of the peaſant is milk, cheeſe, dried or ſalted fiſh, and ſometimes, but rarely, fleſh or dried meat, oat-bread, called fladbrod, baked in ſmall cakes about the ſize and thickneſs of a pancake; it is uſually made twice a year. I obſerved a woman employed in preparing it: having placed over the fire a round iron plate, ſhe took a handful of dough, and rolled it out with a rolling-pin to the ſize of the iron plate; ſhe then placed it on the plate, and baked it on one ſide, then turned it on the other with a ſmall ſtick. In this manner ſhe baked an aſtoniſhing number in leſs than a quarter of an hour; and I was informed that one woman, in one day, can bake ſufficient for the family during a whole year. The peaſants alſo, in times of ſcarcity, mix the bark of trees, uſually of the fir tree, with their oatmeal; they dry this bark before the fire, grind it to powder, mix it with oatmeal, then bake it, and eat it like bread: it is bitteriſh, and affords but little nouriſhment.

"As a luxury, the peaſants eat ſharke, or thin ſlices of meat, ſprinkled with ſalt, and dried in the wind, like hung beef; alſo a ſoup made like a haſty-pudding, of oat-meal or barley-meal; and, in order to render it more palatable, they put in it a pickled herring or ſalted mackerel. The uſe of potatoes has been lately introduced, but theſe roots do not grow to any ſize in a country where the ſummer is ſo ſhort.

"Fabricius ſtrongly recommends, in times of ſcarcity, the moſſes and lichens, and particularly the *lichen iſlandicus*, which yields a very nouriſhing ſuſtenance, and is commonly uſed for food in Iceland.

"According to a ſeries of meteorological obſervations taken by Mr. Wilſe, paſtor of Sydeborg, it ſnows moſt in December and in the middle of January. It rains moſt in April, October, and Auguſt. The cleareſt weather is during the whole month of March, and from the middle of June to the middle of July. Winds are moſt violent in the middle and latter end of April, May, and October. The ſtilleſt ſeaſon is in January; from the 10th of June to the 11th of July, and in the middle of Auguſt, a circumſtance very profitable to the oat-harveſt, which of all corn is more eaſily ſubject to caſt its ripe grain in windy weather. If we compare the climate of Norway with the climate of London, March at London is like April and the beginning of May in Norway; and the March of Norway is our January. On account of the frequent ſpring froſts, ſeeds ought not to be ſown in gardens before the 20th of May; and the froſts of the latter end of Auguſt are no leſs detrimental.

"The heat and cold varies ſo much in Norway, that, in June or July, the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer, as obſerved by Mr. Wilſe at Sydeborg, near Frederickſhall, not unuſually riſes to 88, and, on the 1ſt of January, 1782, fell to 22, or 54 degrees below the freezing point. At Eger, cording to Profeſſor Stroem's obſervaitions, it fell on that ſame day, to $36\frac{1}{2}$; and, at Konigſberg, to 40, or 72 below the freezing point, a degree of cold by which quickſilver is congealed. This extreme riſe and fall of the quickſilver makes a difference of 110 degrees between the greateſt heat and the greateſt cold at the ſame place; a difference much more conſiderable than is obſerved at Upſal or Stockholm, which lie nearly in the ſame latitude as Sydeborg.

"In ſome places vegetation is ſo quick, that the corn is ſown and cut in ſix or ſeven weeks. Tillage cannot generally be very flouriſhing in a country which is in many parts ſo rocky as to defy the plough; where the climate is ſo ſevere, that the hoar-froſts begin in September, and where the cold in the high lands prevents the maturity of the corn. It is true, indeed, that the ſmall vallies, and the intervals between the rocks, are uſually provided with a fruitful ſoil, and that the induſtry of the peaſants covers the naked rocks, and the ſandy grounds with a new earth; yet the arable grounds are few, and no parts of Norway yield ſufficient corn for interior conſumption, the diſtricts of Hedemark, Toten, and Ringerike, excepted. This deficiency is occaſioned hy the nature of the climate and ſoil.

"In ſpring, and in the firſt ſummer months, the drought and heat are frequently ſo intolerable, and the vegetable mould ſo thin, that the roots of the corn and graſs are burned up, if a few days of ſunſhine ſucceed each other without rain. Alſo the greateſt part of the ſoil is ſo much blended with ſand, that too much rain cannot fall in ſpring and ſummer. In autumn, on the contrary, the decreaſed warmth, and the great quantity of rain, prevents the corn from ripening, and it is frequently cut green. Not unuſually, when a favourable ſeaſon has ripened the corn, the frequent and violent autumnal rains hinder the carrying of it in until it is almoſt ſpoiled. Alſo the ſmall quantity of arable land ſeldom lies fallow, but is ſowed every year, and therefore requires more manure than can be eaſily procured.

"All theſe circumſtances ſo much counteract the induſtry of the Norwegian farmers, that even in the moſt

moſt favourable ſeaſons, a conſiderable importation of corn is annually neceſſary; and in unfavourable harveſts the utmoſt dearth is experienced in all the inland parts, as the tranſport of the corn from the ſea coaſts is highly expenſive.

"In order to dry the corn expoſed to the heavy rains, the peaſants fix forked poles, about ten feet high, place rows of other poles tranſverſely, on which they file the ſheaves, the lowermoſt row hanging about two feet from the ground. They are alſo frequently obliged to bake the corn in wooden ſheds, heated by means of ſtoves.

"As Norway, therefore, does not produce ſufficient corn for its own conſumption, Denmark enjoys the excluſive privilege of ſupplying with grain that part called Sudenfields, comprehending the two governments of Aggerhuus and Chriſtianſand. This monopoly frequently occaſions a ſcarcity of corn; but though ſometimes attended with great inconveniencies and occaſional diſtreſs, yet will not be aboliſhed without great difficulty, becauſe the Daniſh nobles, who are always at the head of affairs, find their intereſt in its continuance.

"But Norway, however deficient in arable land, is exceedingly rich in paſture; and, conſequently, produces much cattle. The mode of keeping the cows is ſimilar to that practiſed in the mountains of Switzerland. About the middle of May they are driven to the meadows, towards the middle of June are ſent to paſture on the heights, or in the midſt of the foreſts, where they continue till autumn. The cows are uſually attended by a woman, who inhabits a ſmall hut, milks them twice a day, and makes butter and cheeſe on the ſpot. On their return the cattle are paſtured in the meadows, until the ſnow ſets in about the middle of October, when they are removed to the ſtables, and fed during winter with four-fifths of ſtraw, and one-fifth of hay. The horſes are uſually foddered with hay during winter, and are ſeldom paſtured before the beginning of June. In ſome places the cattle are fed alſo with ſalted fiſh.

"Agriculture has been of late years greatly improved in theſe parts, and the landed eſtates are increaſed, within theſe laſt fifty years, near one-third in their value. This improvement is conſiderably owing to the labours and encouragement of the patriotic ſociety, which gives premiums for the beſt improvements and inſtructions in every part of farming.

"The fiſheries, particularly on the weſtern coaſt, furniſh employment and wealth to the natives, and are the means of ſupplying the fineſt ſailors for manning the Daniſh fleet in times of war.

"The principal fiſh, which, dried and ſalted, furniſh ſo conſiderable an article of exportation, are the cod, the ling, and the whiting: their livers, beſides, yield train oil, and the ſmalleſt are given as winter fodder to the cattle.

"The herring fiſhery is not ſo profitable as formerly, as theſe fiſh, which uſed to frequent the coaſts of Norway, in their progreſs from the north pole, now keep at a greater diſtance from theſe ſhores, and firſt approach the rocks of Marſtrand and Stroemſtrand, which has transferred to the Swedes the principal herring-fiſhery in theſe parts, though ſtill ſufficient profit accrues to thoſe enterpriſing fiſhermen who venture further from the coaſts.

"The ſalmon are taken partly in the bays and partly in the rivers, the ſtreams of which they aſcend for the purpoſe of ſpawning in ſpring. This is the moſt coſtly fiſh in theſe parts, and is cured by ſalting and ſmoking.

"Mackerel might alſo be taken in much larger quantities, if many of the Norwegians were not prejudiced againſt eating them, from a ſtrange notion, that ſhoals of mackerel often attack and devour the human ſpecies when bathing in the ſea.

"The extenſive foreſts of Norway, which furniſh riches to the proprietors, and ſo much employment to the natives, are applied to the following purpoſes:

"1. For ſpars, beams, and planks, which are exported in ſuch large quantities. 2. For charcoal, which is required for the ſmelting of the ores, for the glaſs furnaces, and other manufactures. The wood uſed for this purpoſe is uſually of an inferior ſort, and chiefly in the inner parts, where the tranſport of the planks is too expenſive. 3. For building, the greateſt part of the houſes in Norway being conſtructed of wood; for, although there is plenty of ſtone, yet the tranſporting of the materials, and the lime, are too expenſive for common uſe. 4. For the roads, which, in the more northern parts, are almoſt entirely formed with wood. 5. For turpentine, for which the oldeſt trees are moſtly uſed. 6. For fencing and encloſing the fields, quickſet hedges being almoſt unknown. The wood uſed for encloſures is chiefly pine or fur, and muſt be renewed every three or four years. 7. For fuel. 8. For manure, by the ſame proceſs of burning the trees and manuring the ſoil with the aſhes, which is practiſed in Sweden, and is ſo deſtructive to the foreſts.

"Beſides theſe general uſes derived from the foreſts, the particular trees are beneficially employed to the following purpoſes:

"The bark of the pine or fir, and alſo of the elm, which is not common in Norway, is dried, ground, and mixed among meal, and is boiled up with other food, to feed ſwine, who thrive much upon it.

"The birch, which flouriſhes in theſe northern regions, is particularly uſeful for various purpoſes. It is more generally uſed for fuel than any other wood. The outer bark, or the white rind, on account of its firmneſs and ſap, eaſily eſcapes putrefaction even in the dampeſt places: and, for this reaſon, is employed for covering the roofs of the houſes, in order to keep out the rain.

"This mode of roofing occaſions ſuch a large conſumption of the outward bark, that the birch, which are felled, would not ſupply a ſufficient quantity; it is, therefore, not unuſual to ſtrip off the outward bark while the tree is ſtanding, and, if peeled with care, it always grows again.

"The inner bark of the birch is applied, like the bark of oaks, for tanning hides, fiſhing-nets, and ſails, which it renders more durable.

"This tree alſo ſupplies a kind of wine by the following proceſs: a hole is bored in the trunk, and the wine diſtils into a flaſk placed under it. The tree ſuffers little damage, if the hole is immediately cloſed by a wooden peg. The twigs of the birch, as well as the elder and aſpen, are given to horſes in ſcarcity of fodder. A decoction of oak-leaves in beer is uſed by the peaſants as a cure for the rheumatiſm, by applying a cloth dipped in the decoction to the part affected.

"The general exports of Norway are tallow, butter, ſalt, dried fiſh, timber and plank, horſes and horned cattle, ſilver, alum, Pruſſian blue, copper, of which the celebrated mine of Roraas yields annually to the value of 67,500l. and iron, of which the moſt productive mine is near Arendal.

"Norway is remarkable for the number and beauty of the bays fringed with wood. Many of the lakes (ſome of which we have deſcribed above) are ſo large, that they appear like inlets of the ſea; and the bays are ſo ſmall, that they appear like lakes."

CHAP. III.

DENMARK.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Climate, Soil, Produce, Population, Cities, Inhabitants, and Hiſtory.

THIS kingdom, commonly ſtyled Denmark Proper, is ſituated between 54 and 58 deg. of north lat. and 8 and 11 deg of eaſt long. It extends, from north to ſouth, near 240 miles; and the breadth, in ſome parts, is only about 24, and, in others, near 180. It is bounded on the north from Norway by the Scaggerac ſea, and from Sweden on the eaſt by the Sound; on the ſouth by Germany and the Baltic; and, on the weſt, by the German Ocean, which ſeparates it from Great Britain. It is divided into two parts; the peninſula of Jutland, anciently called Cimbria Cherſoneſus, and the iſlands at the entrance of the Baltic, mentioned in the table. Though all theſe together conſtitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one of them is ſeparately called by that name.

The air is not ſo piercing cold in Denmark as it is in ſome parts of Germany, ſituated much further to the ſouthward, being here tempered by the vapours of the ſea, which ſurrounds it in almoſt every part. Theſe vapours alſo greatly mitigate the heats of ſummer. Spring and autumn are ſeaſons ſcarcely known in Denmark, on account of the ſudden tranſitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which diſtinguiſh the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark the winters are very ſevere, ſo that the inhabitants often paſs arms of the ſea in ſledges upon the ice; and, during the winter, all their harbours are frozen up. The ſoil, as in all other countries, is various, but principally conſiſts of the ſandy and clayey; the former abounds in the iſlands, and the latter on the continent. The mountains, near their ſummits, are barren, but the vallies fertile.

Jutland is one of the largeſt and moſt fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom, produces abundance of all ſorts of grain and paſturage, and is a kind of magazine for Norway on all occaſions. A great number of ſmall cattle are bred here, and afterwards tranſported into Holſtein, to be fed for the uſe of Hamburgh, Lubeck, and Amſterdam. This province is every where interſperſed with hills, generally barren; and, on the eaſt ſide, has fine woods of oak, fir, beech, and other trees; but, the weſt ſide being leſs woody, the inhabitants are obliged to uſe turf and heath for fuel.

Zealand is, for the moſt part, a ſandy ſoil, but rather fertile in grain and paſturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes of water. The climate is more temperate here, on account of the vapours from the ſurrounding ſea, than it is in many more ſoutherly parts of Europe.

In ſome parts of the country there are large foreſts, which produce excellent timber, and are full of game. Moſt of the lakes abound with fiſh of a very delicate flavour. There are few rivers in Denmark; the moſt conſiderable is the Eyder, which riſes at the foot of a mountain near Segeberg, and falls into the ſea at Tonningen.

The Danes have an excellent breed of horſes, greatly eſteemed for the ſaddle and carriage; above 5000 are ſold annually out of the country, and of their horned cattle near 30,000. Beſides numbers of black cattle, they have ſheep, hogs, and other uſeful animals; alſo plenty of poultry and wild fowl.

In 1559, a numeration was made, by authority, of the number of people in his Daniſh majeſty's dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holſtein, the iſlands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt, in Weſtphalia, and found it to amount to 2,444,000, excluſive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. But the moſt accurate account of the population is that made under the direction of the famous Struenſee, by which Jutland numbered 358,136; Daniſh Iceland, 283,466; Funen, 143,988; Norway, 723,141; Iſlands of Ferro, 4754; Iceland, 46,201; duchy of Sleſwick, 243,605; duchy of Holſtein, 134,665; Oldenburgh, 62,854; Delmenhorſt, 16,217: in all, 2,017,027. Several of the ſmaller iſlands, included in the diſtrict of Fionia, are omitted in this computation, which may add a few thouſands to it.

Though the above number may ſeem diſproportioned to his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, yet, every thing conſidered, it is far greater than could have been expected from their uncultivated ſtate. The nobles of Denmark formerly lived at their country-ſeats with great magnificence and hoſpitality, and poſſeſſed a degree of courage which approached to ferocity; but by a continual ſeries of tyranny and oppreſſion, their national character is much changed, and from a brave, enterpriſing, and warlike people, they are become indolent, timid, and dull of apprehenſion. The corruption and arbitrary proceedings of the Daniſh miniſters have greatly ſhackled the trade of the country; and her merchants are ſo terrified by the deſpotiſm of her government, that, inſtead of being rich and flouriſhing, it is at preſent one of the moſt indigent and diſtreſſed ſtates in Europe. Theſe circumſtances prevent Denmark from being ſo populous as it would otherwiſe be, if the adminiſtration of government were more mild and equitable, and if proper encouragement were given to foreigners, and to thoſe who engage in uſeful arts and agriculture.

The higher ranks of people value themſelves extremely upon thoſe titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are exceedingly fond of pomp and ſhew. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dreſs, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very contraſt of that nation.

The lower claſs of people are as abſolute ſlaves as the negroes in the ſugar iſlands, and ſubſiſt on much coarſer proviſions. They have not the leaſt piece of furniture of any value in their houſes, except feather beds, which are excellent in Denmark, from the amazing quantity of feathers annually collected.

The warlike genius of the Danes ſubſiſts no longer: the common people are timorous and diſpirited, nor do they poſſeſs that talent for mechanics and natural ingenuity, ſo remarkable in other nations of the North.

The Danes, like other northern nations, are greatly given to intemperance, in eating, drinking and other convivial entertainments. There was great reaſon to hope, at the beginning of his preſent majeſty's reign, that theſe and ſeveral other vitious cuſtoms would have been reformed; but theſe pleaſing expectations are now vaniſhed, and the good of the people ſeems to be forgotten.

The Lutheran doctrine is univerſally embraced through all Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, ſo that there is not another ſect in theſe kingdoms. Denmark is divided into ſix dioceſes; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland: but the biſhops are, properly ſpeaking, no other than ſuperintendants of the church. They have no cathedrals, eccleſiaſtical courts, or temporalities. Their buſineſs is to inſpect the doctrine and morals of the inferior clergy. They are only diſtinguiſhed from other miniſters by their habit. The revenue of the biſhop of Copenhagen amounts to about

two

two thouſand rix-dollars, and this is the richeſt benefice in the kingdom. The clergy are wholly dependent on the government: they never intermeddle, nor are employed or conſulted in civil affairs: they nevertheleſs have acquired great influence over the minds of the common people, by whom they are greatly revered. Their churches are kept extremely neat, and have organs in them. They preach without notes, and inveigh ſeverely againſt the vices of the great, whom they ſcruple not to attack perſonally. The commonalty admire their courage, and the government connives at their preſumption, while they confine themſelves to their own province of preaching. They are, generally ſpeaking, men of good morals, exemplary lives, and ſome erudition.

Literature receives very little encouragement in Denmark, which may be the principal cauſe of its not being more cultivated there, though, it muſt be confeſſed, they begin now to make ſome promiſing attempts in hiſtory, poetry, and the drama. This kingdom has formerly produced ſeveral men of eminence, eſpecially in aſtronomy and medicine, among whom Tycho Brahe, Borrichias, and the Bartholines, have done honour to their country: but though the univerſity at Copenhagen has funds to the amount of 300,000 rix-dollars, for the gratuitous ſupport of 328 ſtudents, yet the Danes in general make no great figure in letters. The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are ſpoken at court, and the nobility have lately made great advances in the Engliſh, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen, as a neceſſary part of education. As they are great lovers of muſic, and encourage the drama, a company of Engliſh comedians occaſionally viſit the capital, where they meet with a pretty favourable reception.

We ſhall now proceed to deſcribe the diviſions, cities, and towns of this country, with their reſpective ſubdiviſions and circumſtances.

Denmark is divided into the four following duchies: 1. Jutland, properly ſo called, or North Jutland. 2. The duchy of Sleſwic, or South Jutland: 3. The duchy of Holſtein; and, 4. The Daniſh iſlands.

JUTLAND PROPER, or North Jutland, is bounded on the ſouth, by the duchy of Sleſwic; on the north and weſt, by the German Ocean; and towards the eaſt by the Baltic, the Categate, and the Leſſer Belt.

This country is divided in four dioceſes, viz. Ripen to the ſouth, Arhuſen to the eaſt, Wyburg to the weſt, and Aalburg to the north.

Ripen dioceſe is bounded, on the ſouth, by the duchy of Sleſwic; on the north, by the dioceſes of Arhuſen and Wyburg; and extends eaſt and weſt from the Baltic to the German Ocean. It contains 30 prefectorſhips, or bailiwicks, 282 pariſhes, 10 royal palaces, 100 noblemen's ſeats, and ſeven cities, which are as follow:

Ripen, Rypen, or Ripa, is ſeated on the river Nipſaw, which, before it comes to this city, divides itſelf into three branches, the largeſt of which runs on the north ſide of the town; the middle branch, which is the ſmalleſt, runs on the ſouth of it; the third alſo on the ſouth, but at ſome diſtance: they join again a little lower, and fall into the German Ocean, three miles below, forming a commodious harbour. This city is 26 miles diſtant from Tonderon, towards the north, and 24 from Colding, to the north-weſt. It is a place of conſiderable trade: the neighbouring paſtures and fields produce abundance of cattle and corn. Hither are driven almoſt all the black cattle from many parts of Jutland, which are here ſhipped off for foreign countries, eſpecially for Holland; and their corn they export into the neighbouring countries. Theſe articles afford them very great profit. But the city is often expoſed to imminent dangers from the tides flowing in with prodigious violence from the ſea, ſo that the water ſometimes comes into the very churchyard of the cathedral, which ſtands on a hill; and even during the terrible inundation that afflicted Jutland in the year 1734, the water roſe an ell high in the very cathedral. This town is ſtrong by nature only, without much aſſiſtance from art. Towards the weſt there is a caſtle flanked with four bulwarks, after the old faſhion, built in the year 1150. The citizen's houſes are pretty well built, and the inhabitants were formerly in better circumſtances than they are now; but they ſuffered very much during the wars with Sweden, the city being taken by the Swedes in 1645, but ſoon after recovered by the Danes. Before the Reformation this was a biſhop's ſee, as it is now of a ſuperintendant or Lutheran biſhop. The cathedral is a noble pile, built with free-ſtone, as well as its ſteeple, which is ſquare, very high, and covered with lead. This church is adorned within with ſeveral marble columns, and with the tombs of ſome kings. There is another church dedicated to St. Catharine. Here are alſo two public ſchools for the education of youth in polite literature, and a college for divinity, in the court of the biſhop's palace, where there is alſo a public library. The city is governed by two burgomaſters, or conſuls, and by a ſenate, who formerly adminiſtered juſtice with ſo much ſeverity, that *the juſtice of Ripen* was become a proverbial ſaying, to expreſs a rigorous execution of the law.

Colding, or Kolding, an ancient city mentioned by Ptolemy, ſtands on the banks of a little river called Coldinger Aa, which parts North Jutland from the duchy of Sleſwick, and falls into a little gulf, thence named the Gulf of Colding. The city is about 11 miles diſtant from Haderleben to the north. It was burnt down during the civil wars in 1247. In 1268, king Eric VI. redeemed it out of the hands of Eric, duke of Sleſwick, and ſon to king Abel. He built a citadel there, to be a bulwark to Denmark, and fortified the town, eſpecially towards the ſouth. Chriſtian III. who liked the city very much, on account of its agreeable ſituation, and wholeſome air, built the caſtle of Arnſburg, above the city, removed thither with his court, and died there January the 1ſt, 1559. The hoſpital was built by Frederick II. whoſe ſon endowed it conſiderably.

In May 1664, the Danes gained a conſiderable victory over the Swedes near Colding. This town is but ſmall, ſince it does not contain above 100 or 120 houſes; but what makes it chiefly conſiderable is its bridge over the Aa, which is called Boherit, and gives name to the whole country about it. All the black cattle and horſes that come from Jutland, and go into Sleſwick, muſt paſs over this bridge, and pay each a crown for toll; whence ariſes a conſiderable part of the king of Denmark's revenue. Though this town lies commodious for trade on the Leſſer Belt, over-againſt Middlefort in Funen, yet they have hardly any trade but in cattle. They have good fiſh, and the river Aa produces excellent eels.

Frederick's Ode, or Frederici Oda, ſtand on the banks on the Leſſer Belt, 10 miles from Colding to the north-eaſt, and about 27 from Ripen towards the eaſt. It was built by king Frederick III. of Denmark, and is well ſeated on a point of land, with an eaſy deſcent to the ſea-ward: it has been well fortified, being a paſs over the Leſſer Belt, or Middlefort Sound. The works are very high on the land ſide; and on the other ſide of the point there are eight baſtions: it has four gates, and before each a ravelin, but ruinous. Towards the

ſea

ſea the fortifications are lower, and of a greater extent; where there are baſtions, platforms, and ſome batteries on the ſhore. Theſe fortifications encloſe a great deal of ground, but the fifth part of it is not inhabited, for there are many corn-fields and orchards within the walls. This place was formerly a refuge for bankrupts and Jews; but king Frederick IV. recalled thoſe privileges. Here are two churches, one Daniſh, and another German, but they have no ſteeples. In 1558 this town was taken by Charles Guſtavus's troops, commanded by Wranget; the garriſon, conſiſting of 2000 men, were all killed or taken. This opened a way to the king of Sweden to undertake his expedition over the ice from this place to Funen, where the paſſage over the Belt is above three Engliſh miles.

Weille, or Weel, is ſix miles diſtant from Frederick's Ode to the north-weſt, and about 12 from Colding to the north. It ſtands on a little river, which falls into a great bay that communicates with the Leſſer Belt, and makes a good harbour. The city is neat, and well-built, but not large. About 22 miles to the north-weſt ſtands Warde, on a river that falls in the German Ocean, 10 miles below the town, which is conveniently ſituated for trade.

Ringcoping, or Ringkiobing, is 45 miles from Ripen, and 24 from Warde, to the north. It lies on a bay of the German Ocean, made by a neck of land 25 miles in length from north to ſouth, ſo that ſhips ride in the port ſafe from all winds.

Lenwick ſtands on the gulf of Limford (from whence it has its name) on the north-weſt borders of this dioceſe, 10 miles from the German Ocean to the eaſt, 56 from Ripen, and 81 from Ringcoping, to the north.

Haſtlebrow, or Hodſelbrow, ſtands about 11 miles from Lenwick to the ſouth-eaſt, and 12 from Ringcoping to the north-eaſt. It is an inland town, but lies on a river which communicates with the German Ocean by a lake, into which the river falls.

Arhuſen dioceſe is the eaſtern part of Jutland, having on the north the dioceſes of Wyburg and Aalburg, on the weſt and ſouth that of Ripen, and on the eaſt the Categate and Leſſer Belt. It extends about 60 miles along the coaſt of the Baltic, but is not much above 30 miles in breadth at the wideſt part. It contains 31 prefectorſhips, or bailiwicks, 304 pariſhes, five caſtles, or forts, and eight cities, or walled towns, viz. 1. Arhuſen, the capital of the dioceſe, ſtands at the mouth of the river Gude, which runs through it, and a little lower falls into the Categate. It is 86 miles to the northward of Sleſwick, and 42 north-eaſt of Ripen. The ſituation is pleaſant, being ſurrounded with foreſts full of game, paſtures that are exceeding rich for the country, and fields which produce a conſiderable quantity of grain. The town itſelf is neat and agreeable, well furniſhed with proviſions and domeſtic neceſſaries from the neighbouring country, and with other commodities and luxuries from various countries, by the means of ſhipping. The harbour is tolerable, and the cathedral church erected after a curious ſtile of architecture, beautified and embelliſhed with various monuments of noblemen, prelates, &c. The biſhop's palace was once a magnificent ſtructure, but is now fallen to decay. The city was made an epiſcopal ſee in the year 1014, and is now the ſee of a ſuperintendant. 2. Scanderburg, ſix miles from Arhuſen to the ſouth-weſt, is a good fortreſs, near the ſpring of the river Gude. 3. Horſens, 12 miles diſtant from Arhuſen to the ſouth-weſt, is a ſmall city or town ſituated on a little gulf, which ſerves it inſtead of a harbour, and falls into the Baltic. 4. Randers is a very ancient city, ſituated on the river Gude, which, about 12 miles lower, falls into the Baltic, and thus affords this place a good conveniency for navigation. It is a place of great trade, and famous for the beſt ſalmon in Jutland. The neighbouring fields produce plenty of corn. 5. Ebelſtot is ſeated at the bottom of a bay of the Categate, about 18 miles from Arhuſen to the north-weſt. 6. Grinaa ſtands near the point or cape of a peninſula, which juts out into the Categate, and is ſeven miles diſtant from Ebelſtot to the north. It is defended by a caſtle. 7. Mariager ſtands on the ſouth-ſide of a large bay of the Categate, 16 miles diſtant from Arhuſen to the north. 8. Hobro, or Hebro, is a ſmall town on the ſame bay, ſix miles above Mariager to the weſt.

Wyburg dioceſe has that of Aalburg on the north, from which it is partly ſeparated by the gulf of Limford, Arhuſen on the eaſt, and Ripen on the ſouth and weſt. It is not above 24 miles from ſouth to north, and 26 from eaſt to weſt, being almoſt of a round figure. Though it is an inſland country, yet it wants not the conveniency of navigation; for here are large lakes, that branch out into ſeveral parts of this land, and from whence, by means of the Limford, into which they run, and which communicates with the Baltic Sea, they receive veſſels of great burthen. Among theſe lakes there is one named Othoſunde, from the emperor Otho, ſurnamed the Great, who, about the year 948, made an inroad this way, penetrated even as far as this country, and, caſting his javelin into the water, gave it the name it ſtill retains. The beſt horſes in Denmark are bred in that part of the dioceſe named Salling. In this territory are comprehended 16 prefectorſhips, or bailiwicks, 218 pariſhes, and three garriſons. The moſt conſiderable towns are, 1. Wyburg, which ſtands in the middle of North Jutland, of which it is the capital city. It is a place of great reſort, being the ſeat of a high court of judicature, which receives the appeals from inferior courts, but none can be made from it, except to the king. This Wyburg has been the ſee of a biſhop for above 600 years; but the exact time cannot be fixed; for it is a matter ſtill diſputed whether this or Aalburg be the moſt ancient. The biſhop and chapter ſtill ſubſiſt. It ſtands near a branch of the gulf of Limford, called Virkſund, and was anciently called Cimmerſburg, as being the chief city of the Cimbri; but whence it had its preſent name is not certain. 2. Scheve, or Schiffhnis, which ſtands on the ſame gulf, and is ſituated 12 miles from Wyburg to the north-weſt. The peninſula of Salling, ſurrounded on all ſides by the ſame gulf, except towards the ſouth, is the moſt noted place in Denmark for fine horſes, which are exported by foreigners. 3. Nibe, one the ſame gulf, 18 miles from Wyburg to the north-eaſt, is alſo noted for a good breed of horſes.

Aalburg dioceſe is the moſt northern part of Jutland, and ſurrounded by the ſea on all parts, except on the ſouth, where it is divided from Wyburg and Ripen by the gulf called Limford, which runs from the Baltic Sea above 50 miles acroſs the country, and is ſhut out of the German Ocean by a narrow iſthmus, or neck of land, made by the ſand-hills on the weſt ſhore of Jutland, over-againſt a great ſhoal called Juſche-Riff. This dioceſe is about 70 miles long, from the ſouth-weſt to the uttermoſt point of Schager-Riff, in the north-eaſt; but as it is of a triangular form, its breadth is not equal every-where, being but about 40 miles where broadeſt. The north part of this dioceſe, which is cut off by the gulf (for the city of Aalburg lies on the ſouth-ſide of it) is called Wenſuſal, and by Latin authors Vandalia, whence ſome apprehend it was the ſeat of the Vandals.

Vandals. The inhabitants are the hardieſt of the king of Denmark's ſubjects. The country is fruitful, and pretty well enriched by trade. It is divided into 13 bailiwicks, which contain 177 pariſhes, 100 caſtles, and the following cities and towns. 1. Aalburg, ſo called from the great quantity of eels taken in the gulf of Limford, ſtands on the ſouth ſhore of it, about ſix miles from the Categate to the weſt. It is the ſee of a biſhop, founded about the year 1060; but the biſhops reſided anciently at Burglaw, whence the dioceſe was then called the dioceſe of Burglaw; but ſince the reformation, the Lutheran biſhops have had their palace at Aalburg. 2. Wenſuſal, or Burglaw, ſtands on the river Ryaa, which, 14 miles lower, falls into the gulf of Limford, from which this city is as many miles diſtant to the north. It was formerly the ſee of a biſhop, which has been removed to Aalburg. 3. Schagen, Scagen, or Skau, as the inhabitants call it, is ſeated on the promontory, or cape, which it gives name to; and is the moſt northern land of Jutland, betwixt the Norwegian ſea and the Categate, or Schager-Rack. The town is more frequented by merchants from all parts of Europe than any other town in Jutland, becauſe they touch here in their way to the Sound. Its trade would be far greater ſtill, were it not for the dangerous coaſt it lies on. 4. Nikioping ſituated in the Iſle of Mors, made by the gulf of Limford, is a conſiderable town. 5. Tyſted, on the ſouth-weſt part of this dioceſe, ſtands near 30 miles from Aalburg to the weſt, in the middle of the iſthmus made by the German Ocean and gulf of Limford, which is the moſt fruitful place of this diſtrict. This town is noted for a kind of univerſity, which was firſt a free-ſchool only, founded by Chriſtian the Third. 6. Seeby is a ſmall ſea-port town on the eaſtern ſhore, 15 miles diſtant from Schagen, towards the ſouth-weſt.

SLESWICK, or SOUTH JUTLAND, is an ancient duchy dependent on the kingdom of Denmrk; for, in the year 1128, king Nicolas the Firſt gave it to his nephew Canute, the ſon of Eric. Denmark was afterwards deprived of it; but, in the year 1459, Chriſtian the Firſt re-united it to that kingdom. It is about 86 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, being bounded by Jutland on the north, by the Baltic on the eaſt, by the duchy of Holſtein on the ſouth, and by the German Ocean on the weſt. It is watered by ſeveral ſtreams, which render it exceeding fruitful in moſt parts, and in general abounds in meadows and paſtures. The eaſtern parts lie conſiderably higher than the weſtern, and in the latter there are large plains, which produce a great plenty of all ſorts of corn. The nobility here are rich, and the common people enjoy a great ſhare of independence. This duchy is divided into four circles, viz. Gottorp, Tonderon, Flenſburg, and Haderſleben. The principal cities and towns are the following:

1. Sleſwick, the capital of the whole duchy, which is ſituated on a ſmall arm of the ſea, called the Sley, at the diſtance of about 38 miles from Gluckſtadt to the north-eaſt, and 28 from Lemden to the eaſt. Chriſtianity was eſtabliſhed here in the ninth century, and the great church founded by Eric Barn, in conjunction with St. Anſchar, biſhop of Hamburg; and in the year 930, king Harold Blatand erected an epiſcopal ſee. Afterwards the Sclavonians invaded theſe parts in the year 1065, deſtroyed the church, and reſtored the pagan ſuperſtitions; but ſoon after theſe foreigners were expelled, Chriſtianity was reſtored, and the cathedral rebuilt. In the next century it became a place of great trade, and much frequented by merchants from Great-Britain, France, Spain, Flanders, &c. The ſoil, eſpecially towards the ſouth and eaſt, is not very fruitful; but the town is ſufficiently ſupplied with all neceſſaries of life from the neighbouring country, and the Sley affords abundance of fiſh. They brew beer here, which is not very palatable; but they import ſome from abroad, as well as wine, which is pretty cheap.

Among the public buildings is a ducal palace, which they ſhew to ſtrangers: it does not contain much that is worthy of notice, except a library, which contains a few ancient manuſcripts, and a cabinet of rarities in natural hiſtory, which has ſeveral things that are really curious. In the gardens are ſome water-works, and many walks in the old taſte, which the poor people of this country think great exertions of magnificence. The principal church is ancient, and a very large fabric; it contains many monuments of the ducal families, but none that will yield much entertainment to a traveller. In the ſuburbs there is a church dedicated to St. Michael. Sleſwick was formerly the ſee of a Roman Catholic biſhop, and is now that of a Proteſtant ſuperintendant.

A few miles diſtant from Sleſwick, to the ſouth, are yet to be ſeen, in many places, the ruins of the famous wall and trench which was built in ancient times by the Daniſh kings, againſt the incurſions of the Saxons. It is thought to have been begun by Gotherick, or Gothofred, king of Denmark, to keep out the armies of the emperor Charles the Great, about the year 808; and afterwards improved by queen Thyra, and other Daniſh monarchs, and rendered ſo ſtrong, as to be eſteemed impregnable by the counſellors of Henry, ſurnamed the Lion, duke of Saxony. This rampart was called Danewark, and, like Hadrian's wall in England, is reported to have reached from ſea to ſea, quite acroſs this neck of land.

2. Gottorp was the ancient ſeat and patrimony of the dukes of Holſtein, the chief branch of which family, after the royal one, took from thence the title or ſurname of Gottorp. It is about ſix miles diſtant from Sleſwick to the ſouth-weſt, and ſtands on the Sley, which almoſt ſurrounds it, and carries veſſels of ſmall burthen to and from the Baltic. This place is, at the ſame time, a fortreſs, and a noble palace, being accounted one of the fineſt ſeats in all theſe northern parts. The caſtle ſtands to the weſt of the Sley, in the middle of a little lake, and is built in the form of an oblong ſquare, fortified with four baſtions of earth; the bottom is paved with free-ſtone, the curtains are long, and the ſides ſtand north and ſouth. You approach the caſtle by a bridge, which joins it to the ſouth ſhore. It is commanded by a mountain that ſtands north-eaſt of it, from whence the Danes annoyed the caſtle in the year 1675, when the duke was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by the king of Denmark at Rentſburg. The duke, before his death, had deſigned to rebuild the caſtle, but the front only is finiſhed; if the whole had been completed, it would have been one of the fineſt palaces in Europe. A rampart encompaſſes the firſt court, and the gate of the caſtle is a fine blue ſtone, as hard as marble, with a lantern over it that has 27 lights.

On the north ſide of the caſtle there is a bridge of 200 paces over the lake; and, at the end of the bridge, a walk, between two rows of trees, that lead to the garden, which is adorned with many fine water-works and caſcades. On the left there is a baſon, or fiſh-pond, 200 paces ſquare, with rows of trees on all ſides, except to the north; there are, alſo, fine arbours on the ſides of the pond; and, in the middle, a Hercules, of a monſtrous ſize, repreſented with his club, going to kill the Lernæan hydra. Out of every part the water plays. In every corner of the pond, there are ſtatues which form caſcades. On the north there

is a parterre, in the form of a creſcent, divided into ſeveral compartments, with niches round, containing buſts of many kings, and modern princes. There are alſo the repreſentations of many fabulous animals, that throw water. At the end of the walk there is a ſmall room, in which is to be ſeen a globe, made by the famous Tycho Brahe, ſo contrived, that, by mechaniſm, it repreſents his ſyſtem of the world. There is another admirable globe of copper, 10 feet and an half in diameter, with a ſphere, wherein the ſun moves in the ecliptic, and all the heavenly bodies are carried round in exact order, by means of certain wheels, which are turned about by water conveyed from the adjacent mountain. Before this houſe there is a level ground 50 paces broad, and three times as long, divided into three parts: thoſe on the ſides have fine parterres, and that in the middle has a great baſon in the centre, with water-works; the next terrace is higher; and the whole is encloſed with green pales, as high as each terrace, with buſts all round.

From the higheſt terrace there is the fineſt proſpect perhaps in the world, viz. the caſtle in the front, in the middle of a lake ſurrounded with a charming country, and a fine plain before it. On the left there is a great orangery, or green-houſe, where they keep the Indian trees, myrtles, pomegranates, and other exotics, in boxes. The park is noble, about four Engliſh miles in circumference, and full of fallow deer and ſtags. There is a toll-booth, or cuſtom-houſe, where all toll is paid for great numbers of black cattle that paſs from Jutland into Germany; this produces a conſiderable ſum to the king of Denmark, ſince, in ſome years, toll is paid for above 50,000 head of cattle.

3. Eckrenford ſtands on a little gulf of the Baltic, which makes a very commodious haven, and affords it a conſiderable trade, being one of the ſafeſt ports on that ſhore. It is about 22 miles diſtant from Gottorp to the eaſt, and ſix from Kiel towards the north.

4. Chriſtianpreis, the capital of a bailiwick of that name, which borders on the duchy of Holſtein, is ſituated on a gulf of the Baltic, at the entrance of the haven of Kiel, and is commanded by a caſtle that was built in 1637, by Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark. It is about five miles diſtant from Kiel to the north, and four from Eckrenford to the eaſt. It has about 500 houſes, and two gates, defended with ſtrong works. The Eyder ſerves for a ditch, and makes it inacceſſible; and where the river grows narrower they have built a creſcent in the water, with port-holes for 16 pieces of cannon.

5. Frederickſtadt, thus called from its founder, Frederick, duke of Holſtein and Sleſwick, who built it in the year 1621, peopled it with Hollanders, and granted them great privileges. He endeavoured alſo to ſettle a ſilk trade there, and, for that purpoſe, ſent an embaſſy to Muſcovy and Perſia, which gave occaſion to Adam Olearius, ſecretary to it, to publiſh an account thereof in an excellent book of travels. This town ſtands on the banks of the river Eyder, and is 24 miles diſtant from Sleſwick towards the weſt, and 24 from Gluckſtadt to the north. It is built after the Dutch faſhion, and all religions are tolerated there. The town is ſquare, and ſurrounded with a large canal, planted with rows of trees. It is divided into two parts by another canal, alſo with trees on the ſides. The Lutheran church is built with bricks, and very neatly.

6. Tonderon is alſo ſituated on the river Eyder, 10 miles below Frederickſtadt, and about 14 miles from the German Ocean. It is not an ancient town, but it has a good trade, which increaſes daily, by means of its commodious harbour formed by the Eyder. It was formerly well fortified, but the fortifications were demoliſhed in 1714 by the Danes, who, after a long blockade, forced the town to ſurrender upon terms. This is the capital of the bailiwick of Eyderſtadt, and much frequented by the Dutch, who buy black cattle here.

7. Flenſburg, the capital of a diſtrict known by the ſame name, as well as that of Angelen, or Engeland (the country of the Angles, who invaded South Britain, and beſtowed upon it the appellation of England) is ſituated eight miles to the northward of Sleſwick, on the gulf of Flens, formed by the Baltic; and the harbour is ſo commodious, that ſhips of great burden may come up, and lie loaded from the warehouſes.

8. Huſum, which is 10 miles from Tonderon, and ſituated on the gulf of Hover, was formerly flouriſhing and opulent, but it is now greatly decayed; its ruin being deduced from the three capital cauſes, war, inundations, and conflagrations.

9. Lohm-Cloſter is an inconſiderable town ſituated on the river Lohm-Beoke, about 10 miles from the German Ocean.

10. Haderſleben is a large ſea-port town, by the lake of Haderſleben, which runs into a narrow gulf, that diſembogues itſelf into the Baltic. The inhabitants carry on a tolerable trade by means of the fiſh that are caught in great plenty, both in the lake and gulf.

11. Timder, 12 miles to the weſtward of Haderſleben, is a remarkable neat town, ſituated in a fertile ſoil, on the ſouthern bank of the river Wydaw. Here is a ſmall ſtrong fort, which the king keeps in excellent repair. The harbour, however, is choked up at preſent, and the town hath ſcarcely any trade.

12. Apenrade is ſituated at the bottom of a gulf of the Baltic, 25 miles north of Sleſwick. It is defended by a tolerable citadel; but has, nevertheleſs, been fequently plundered in time of war.

13. Luxburg, or Gluckſburg, is four miles to the eaſtward of Flenſburg, near the ſame gulf, but on the oppoſite ſide. It is but a ſmall town, yet has a caſtle, and gives title to the dukes of Holſtein-Gluckſburg.

The Duchy of HOLSTEIN, part of the king of Denmark's German dominions, lies on the north-eaſt ſide of the river Elbe, and is one of the richeſt provinces in the dominions of that monarch. A traveller, who had acceſs to the public records of the kingdom of Denmark, and received many curious particulars from the unfortunate prime miniſter Count Struenſee, thus deſcribes this duchy.

The great duchy of Holſtein, which is all united to the Daniſh dominions at preſent, is famous for its fine paſtures, and for producing excellent beef. Great quantities of horned cattle are brought up in Jutland, and other provinces of Denmark, and brought here to be fattened: and their beef, beſides what is uſed for the conſumption of Hamburg and Lubeck is ſalted, dried, and exported; the former to Holland, and the latter to all parts of Lower Germany; and, together with an excellent breed of horſes, of which great numbers are exported yearly, bring conſiderable ſums of money into the province, of the whole of which the court of Denmark has not hitherto found the means to drain them; ſo that this province may juſtly be ſaid to be the richeſt in the Daniſh dominions.

Holſtein is bounded on the weſt by the German Ocean, on the eaſt by the Baltic, on the ſouth-eaſt by Mecklenburg, on the ſouth-weſt by the river Elbe, and on the ſouth by the territory of Hamburg, and by Lauenburg. It is 80 miles in length, 60 in breadth, where broadeſt, and divided into four principal parts, or provinces, viz. Holſtein Proper, Wagria, Stormar, and Ditmarſh.

This

This duchy is remarkably fertile, and contains many rich marſh, paſture, and meadow lands. Dykes have been cut through the marſh lands at an immenſe expence, not only to drain off the waters, which naturally accumulate there, but to drain off ſuch as are occaſioned by the inundations both of the ſea and rivers, which are frequent. Theſe, however, give ſuch a richneſs to the ſoil of the marſhes, that cattle are bred in great numbers, and fattened in them; and vaſt quantities of excellent butter and cheeſe are made of the milk. In ſome parts of them they ſow wheat, barley, peas, beans, rape-ſeed, &c. which thrive exceedingly. Sheep are bred in the more ſandy, heathy, and barren diſtricts; and woods and orchards abound in other parts. The beef, veal, mutton, lamb, and pork, are all fat and palatable; and the beſt ſea and river fiſh are caught in great plenty. The Holſtein horſes are exceeding beautiful, and, on that account, are highly prized both in Denmark and Germany. The principal people uſually farm out their cattle to a kind of bailiff, who runs all hazards, receives all profits, and allows the proprietor ſo much per head for the whole: thus the gentry receive a certain income without having any trouble, and the bailiff is ſufficiently rewarded for his pains, as he uſually makes a fortune by the extra profits.

In general, the country is plain and level, and watered by the rivers Eyder, Stor, and Trave, with many rivulets, dykes, &c. An odd cuſtom prevails here, which is, to drain the lakes and ponds, at certain times, and ſell the carp, lampreys, pike, perch, &c. which are found in them; and then ſome years after to ſow them with oats, or uſe them for paſture; and after that to lay them under water, and breed fiſh in them again. The houſes and churches are very neat; for the people here, with reſpect to nicety, reſemble the Hollanders. The duchy contains about 30 cities and towns, great and ſmall, and 600 pariſhes. The clergy are annually choſen, and removeable at pleaſure. The people are rigid Lutherans; ſo that they give but very little countenance to Calviniſts, and are ſtrongly prejudiced againſt the Roman Catholics. With regard to their character, in other reſpects, they are, in general, well made, finely featured, fair, ſtrong, courageous, and ſo celebrated for their integrity, that the expreſſion Holſteinglaube, or *honeſt Holſteiner*, is proverbial throughout Germany, Denmark, &c.

The principal cities, towns, &c. in Holſtein, are,

1. Lubeck, an imperial city, and chief of the Hans Towns, is ſituated at the conflux of ſeveral rivers, the largeſt of which is the Trave. It is 12 miles from the Baltic, where it has a fine harbour, 25 miles north of Lauenburg, 40 north-eaſt of Hamburg and 117 ſouth-weſt of Copenhagen. It is a biſhopric, under the archbiſhop of Bremen, and was tranſlated hither from Oldenburg in 1163.

This is a government or republic within itſelf, with royal juriſdiction, viz. to make and execute its own laws, as well in civil as in capital cauſes. From the conſiſtory there lies an appeal to the ſenate of the city, which conſiſts of four burgomaſters, two ſyndics, who are civilians, and ſixteen common-council-men; each of whom has his particular province, and they are all for life: but the common council is only formed of lawyers and merchants, with an excluſion of mechanics. Father and ſon, or two brothers, cannot be in the regency at the ſame time.

The name of Lubeck is ſuppoſed to be derived from Lob-eck, the German word for a point of land, which agrees with its ſituation. It is an ancient place, and, as the Poles ſay, was founded by one of their kings, who conquered this part of the kingdom; but the Germans aſcribe its foundation to Codeſchalk, one of the kings of the Vandals, in 1040. It has ſuſtained wars, both offenſive and defenſive, for ſeveral years, not only againſt the dukes of Mecklenburg, but againſt the king of Sweden. It is ſaid to have been a conſiderable city when taken in the year 1134, by Crito, a prince of Reugen, who deſtroyed it; but it was rebuilt in the year 1140, by Adolph II. count of Holſtein, and then firſt endowed with the immunities of the city. In 1158 it was again reduced to a heap of ruins by fire, and was afterwards reſtored by Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, in whoſe time the collegiate church was founded. In 1164, the famous league of the Hans Towns was begun here; and their college is ſtill kept, together with their records, and common ſtock raiſed by contributions. In 1181 the emperor Frederick I. brought it under ſubjection to the empire; but Henry the Lion retook it; upon which it fell into the hands of Holſtein, and afterwards of Denmark. The city having ſuffered greatly by fire, particularly in 1276, was rebuilt in the handſome manner now ſeen; the ſenate having made an order that none of the houſes ſhould, for the future, be built with timber, or covered with thatch. In 1350 it was almoſt depopulated by the plague, which carried off vaſt numbers of the inhabitants.

At preſent, this is a fine noble city, ſpacious, and well fortified; two miles in length, and more than one broad; the ſtreets being ſtraight, uniform, and wide. Many of the ſtreets have rows of lime-trees on the ſides, and a canal in the middle. The churches are magnificent, and about twenty of them have high ſpires. The two chief ſtreets leading from the cathedral, and the Miller's Gate, to the royal and caſtle gate, being the higheſt parts of the city, are interſected by others that deſcend gradually on each ſide to the Trave and Wagnitz rivers. The houſes are large and ſtately, being built of brick, covered with tiles, generally high, and adorned with ſculpture. The river Trave brings ſhips into the very heart of the city, which is near ten miles from the ſea. The largeſt veſſels, however, unload at Travermund, a fort on the bay of Lubeck. The principal trade is to Riga, Revel, Narva, and Peterſburg; and the magazines and warehouſes are well ſtocked with the productions and commodities of England, France, Spain, Holland, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, &c. The fortifications are ſtrong, well finiſhed, and kept in good repair. The baſtions are lofty and extenſive, the out-works numerous, and the haven defended by ſeveral forts and ramparts. The ſeveral market-places are large, and well ſupplied; and the public buildings ſtately, particularly the ſenate-houſe, arſenals, hoſpitals, &c. All parts of this city are ſerved with water by pipes from a reſervoir.

St. Mary's church is the moſt conſiderable in the place, being a lofty edifice, ſtanding in the midſt of the city, and has a double ſteeple, 217 yards high, built in 1304. The inſide of it is profuſely ornamented with pillars, monuments, &c. but there are few of them which deſerve much notice. The great altar is very richly executed in marble, by Quillin, who executed ſo many at Antwerp; and near it is a famous clock, which is the moſt remarkable object at Lubeck, exhibiting the ecliptic, zodiac, equator, and tropics, and the planets in their ſeveral courſes; which are ſo minutely done, that the ſtation of any of them is to be found at every hour of the day. It ſhews the regular variations of the celeſtial bodies, ſun riſing and ſetting, the eclipſes, feſtivals, and other remarkable days; all which it will continue to ſhew till the year 1875. Beſides all this, there are ſeveral automatons; and, among others, a figure of our Saviour, with a door on its right hand, which opening at twelve at noon,

out come, in order of proceſſion, the emperor and the ſeven eldeſt electors, and, turning to the image, make a profound obeiſance; this the figure returns by a wave of his hand; after which the whole group retires in the ſame order, through a door on the left, and both doors ſhut directly. In the tower is another piece of machinery, the chimes, which play the hours with a pleaſing melody, and minute exactneſs. Under them is the bell, on which is ſtruck the hour. This is performed by a figure of Time; whilſt a leſſer figure, repreſenting Mortality, and ſtanding at the other ſide of the bell, turns aſide his head at every ſtroke. This work, for its preſervation, is ſurrounded with a frame of wire. By the inſcription it appears to have been erected in 1405.

Here is, among others, a very curious piece called Death's Dance, which repreſents human beings in all ſtations of life, from an emperor to the meaneſt perſon, and from an old man to an infant, led round a circle by ſo many ſkeletons, ſhewing that death ſpares neither age or condition.

Lubeck cathedral is a building of very great antiquity, being erected in the year 1170, by duke Henry the Lion, anceſtor of the preſent elector of Hanover. The occaſion of building it is mentioned in an inſcription on one of the walls, viz. that Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, hunting in this part of the country, caught a ſtag, with a gold collar and croſs about its neck, on which was this inſcription, *Hoc me Cæſar donavit*, "Cæſar gave me this;" containing the date of the year, which which was in the reign of Charlemagne: and the duke, from ſurpiſe at this accident, erected this cathedral, for commemoration of it, on the ſame ſpot, and endowed it with a handſome revenue. In the top of the church is to be ſeen the figure of the ſtag.

The next ſtaple commodity to corn is beer, which is in high eſtimation, not only as a pleaſant liquor, but as a medicine, when externally applied to bruiſes, wounds, &c. Here are ſeveral hoſpitals, which are well ſupported. There is one for ancient people of both ſexes, which was once a caſtle, from whence the citizens drove out the Daniſh garriſon. St. Ann's is for orphans, and other children of poor burghers, who are inſtructed in ſome handicraft buſineſs; and there is an apartment for the confinement of libertines and lunatics. There are two other hoſpitals for the reception of poor travellers, where they are allowed three days refreſhment, and then ſent forward with a paſs; but ſuch as happen to be ſick, are provided with all neceſſaries till they recover or die. The richeſt foundation of this ſort is St. George's Cloyſter, which is chiefly for the maintenance of ſuch artificers as are grown old and paſt their labour. There is alſo St. Gertrude's hoſpital, which is a peſt-houſe. There are, moreover, ſeveral alms-houſes, endowed by the merchants, for the maintenance of the widows of poor members; beſides ſeveral little ſtreets of houſes for the widows of other poor citizens.

2. Travemund, dependent on Lubeck, from whence it is but nine miles to the north-eaſt, and thirty-two weſt of Wiſmer, is a little town near the mouth of the river Trave. One of the counts of Holſtein ſold it, in 1320, for 4000 marks, to the Lubeckers, who fortified it with four good baſtions, erected a light-houſe to guide the ſhips at night, and commonly keep a garriſon here of 3 or 400 men, commanded by a burgher of Lubeck, who receives his orders from the burgomaſters, and admits no perſons into the place without a paſſport. It was ſeized by the czar in 1617, in order to ſecure tranſports for his troops; but he was perſuaded to quit it. There is a peninſula over-againſt it, about a quarter of a league in circumference, which belongs to the duchy of Mecklenburg. The river Trave riſes out of a great lake, in the juriſdiction of Segeberg; and, after a ſerpentine courſe from north to ſouth, by Segeberg and Oldeſlo, turns ſhort to the eaſt, waters the city of Lubech, of which this town is the port, and then falls into the Baltic.

3. Oldeſlo, or Odelſo, on the river Trave, ſeven miles ſouth of Segeberg, eighteen weſt of Lubeck, and thirty-one north-eaſt of Hamburg, is a little old town, which was formerly a very flouriſhing place, and the capital of this part; but ſuffered ſo much by the nighbouring princes, who contended for this province, and by a duke of Brunſwick, who deſtroyed its ſalt-works, to favour thoſe of Lunenburg, that it is greatly decayed.

4. Travendal, on the ſame river, within a mile of Segeberg, is only noted for ſeveral treaties betwixt the king of Denmark and the duke of Holſtein in 1700, for adjuſting the duke's rights.

5. Eutin, or Utin, about ſixteen miles from Lubeck, has given title of duke, and ſeat, to the younger ſon of the duke of Holſtein, ever ſince the year 1596.

6. Ploen is a town almoſt ſurrounded by lakes: it is the capital of what is deemed a principality of the ſame name. It has a palace, which ſtands high, and commands a beautiful proſpect, and is adorned with pleaſant gardens and a park. The neighbouring lakes and woods furniſh great quantities of fiſh and timber, upon the ſale of which the inhabitants principally ſubſiſt.

7. Oldenburg, or Altenburg, was once a very conſiderable town, but is now fallen to decay. It is ſituated near the Baltic, twenty-ſeven miles north of Lubeck, and gives name to a ſmall diſtrict. In ancient times the Sclavonian kings kept their court here.

8. Lemden is a market-town on the confines of Sleſwick, not far from the Eyder. It is celebrated for its beer, which is ſent into many parts of the circumjacent country, and even tranſported abroad.

9. Meldorp, or Meldorf, is a large town, ſtanding on a river or ſtream, called the Meele. It has ſome trade, and three market-places round its church, diſtinguiſhed by the names of the north, ſouth, and weſt markets. Here is likewiſe a public ſchol for the ſtudy of the claſſics and rhetoric.

10. Heyde is a large but poor town, ten miles to the north of Meldrop.

11. Krempi is a ſmall open town, on a little river of the ſame name.

12. Gluckſtadt is ſituated on the north ſide of the Elbe, twenty-ſix miles ſouth-weſt of Hamburg, It is a neat well-built town, and ſo ſtrong as to be deemed impregnable. The Danes have 2000 men in garriſon here, and ſome men of war in the harbour, which is very ſafe and ſpacious. Here the Calviniſts have a church, the Roman Catholics a chapel, and the Jews a ſynagogue. The town was founded in 1620, when Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, ordered it to be called *Gluckſtadt*, which implies *Fortunate-Town*. There being no ſprings about the town, the inhabitants uſe rain-water, or that of the river. Thoſe who are convicted of theft receive this ſentence—to draw, during life, the duſt-carts belonging to the town, to which they are chained like ſlaves.

13. Bredenberg, or Breitenburg, is a village on the Stor, defended by a caſtle; it gives name to a lordſhip that has long been the property of the ancient and celebrated family Ranzau.

14. Primeburg is a market-town on the Pinace, thirteen miles from Hamburg, and fourteen from Gluckſtadt. It is only remarkable for giving name

name to a county which fell to the crown of Denmark by the death of its laſt count, in 1640.

15. Altena, a large and populous village, is joined by a row of houſes on the Elbe to Hamburg. It had its name from the king of Denmark, as it is ſaid, purely to banter the deputies of Hamburg. The latter remonſtrated to him againſt building this town too near their city; and having frequently obſerved thereupon, in their diſcourſe to the king, Dat is al te na," which, in the language of this country, is, " It is too near;" the king, taking particular notice of the three laſt monoſyllables, ſaid to the deputies, he could not excuſe himſelf if he did not go on with the buildings; but that, to oblige them, he would call it by the name they had given it. It was formerly a refuge, not only for inſolvent debtors, but even malefactors, that came from Hamburg; becauſe, although the inhabitants, a few fiſhermen and ſailors, ſubject to the king of Denmark, depended entirely on the trade and buſineſs of that city, yet it was quite out of his juriſdiction.

This place is noted for a treaty in 1689, between the king of Denmark and the duke of Holſtein-Gottorp; but much more for its calamity in 1712, when count Steinboch, the Swediſh general, having juſt defeated the king of Denmark and his army at Gadebuſch, came and burnt this town to the ground. The reaſons pretended by the Swedes were, that magazines of bread, beer, &c. were preparing here for the Muſcovites and Saxons; and that it was partly in repriſal for the burning of Staden, and other cruelties committed by the Danes and Muſcovites in the duchies of Bremen and Pomerania: but there was this difference as to Staden, that the Danes beſieged it in form, and deſtroyed it by their bombs; whereas, Steinboch was judged to act the part of an incendiary. As ſoon as he appeared before Altena, he ſent in a meſſage to adviſe the inhabitants to retire with what they could carry off, for that he was going to deſtroy their town. The magiſtrates came out in a body, and, falling at his feet, offered him 50,000 rix-dollars to ſave the town; but Steinboch inſiſted on 200,000, which they were ready to comply with, and only deſired time to go to Hamburg for the money; but the General would admit of no delay; ſo that the poor inhabitants were obliged to turn out; the mothers with their infants at their breaſts, and ſons with their aged and infirm parents on their backs, others groaning under loads of houſehold goods, and all lamenting their fate with the moſt lamentable cries. The Swedes ſtood at the barriers with flaming torches in their hands while they paſſed, and, before they were all gone out, entered the town, and ſet fire to all parts of it, which burnt 2000 houſes, with ſeveral fine magazines, and the Popiſh church. Several old men and women, beſides infants, periſhed in the flames; but they ſpared the Lutheran and Calviniſt churches, with about 80 houſes that lay neareſt to Hamburg. Never was greater deſolation known. But what completed the ruin of this place was the raging of the plague at the ſame time in Holſtein, inſomuch that the Hamburgers were forced, for their own preſervation, to ſhut the gates againſt the diſtreſſed neighbours, many of whom periſhed with cold and want. The king of Denmark relieved them as far as the neceſſity of the times would permit, and cauſed them to be ſupplied with materials for rebuilding their town.

The buildings at Altena are now better in appearance than thoſe of Hamburg; the ſtreets are ſtraight and regularly built, wide, and well paved. There is a town-houſe erected; and ſeveral other public buildings ſhew that the place is on a flouriſhing and improving hand. The merchants' houſes are on the water ſide, ſo that ſhips unload and load at their doors. The king of Denmark made it the ſtaple of the Daniſh Eaſt India company, which has been of very great importance to the town. This meaſure was an admirable one; for Altena, by means of her ſituation, diſtributes the India goods where no other town in Denmark could: ſhe ſends large quantities into moſt parts of Germany, and herein rivals the Hamburgers, who are forced to buy theirs of the Dutch. In all theſe points the intereſt of Denmark has been very well conſidered for this laſt century, from a noble attention in their kings to promote whatever has been moſt for the intereſt of their ſubjects.

Toleration is allowed here, which is denied at Hamburg, to all Chriſtian ſects, of whom there is ſaid to be a greater variety at Altena than in any city of Europe, except Amſterdam. The Calviniſts of Holland and France have handſome churches, built altogether on two ſides of the ſame court. The Papiſts, though tolerated, are not ſo publicly countenanced as the Proteſtants.

16. Kiel is a town of great trade at the mouth of the river Swentin, on a bay of the Baltic, and the capital of all Holſtein, 17 miles eaſt of Renſburg, 24 of Gottorp, 36 north-weſt of Lubeck, and 48 north of Hamburg, and ſtands between hills on an arm of the ſea, where it forms a lake. It has a good harbour, well frequented by ſhips from Germany, Sweden, &c. and is populous and wealthy.

Both the town and harbour are defended by a caſtle on a neighbouring hill. On the right, or eaſt ſide of this caſtle, the ſea waſhes its walls; and on the other ſide of the bay there is a delightful country, though woody. On the left there is a ſmall arm of the ſea, and another delicate country adjoining to it. There is a garden facing the caſtle, which is the only place whereby Kiel has communication with the main land; only to the left of the caſtle there is a row of houſes leading to a village called Brunſwick. This garden, which ſtands along the ſea ſide, is above 200 paces broad, and conſiſts of a terrace walk, levelled with the foundation of the caſtle, from whence there is a deſcent to parterres full of all ſorts of flowers, and adorned with a fountain and wilderneſs; and this leads to other parterres, from whence there is a ſmall aſcent to another terrace. It ſuffered very conſiderably during the war between Sweden and Denmark. An univerſity was eſtabliſhed here by the duke in 1665, which has had many learned profeſſors.

It is divided into the new and old towns, of which the former is the largeſt and moſt pleaſant, the ſtreets being planted with rows of trees. The old town, which is a ſort of peninſula, is fortified by deep ditches; and there are fine walks of trees on the harbour. There is a palace facing the town on the north ſide, but it is in very bad repair. Here are ſeveral conſiderable buildings, particularly a large church and an hoſpital, which, before the Reformation, was a Franciſcan monaſtery.

In this town, the trade is not ſo conſiderable as it was in the time of duke Frederick, who ſent an embaſſy to Perſia in 1633, to ſettle a commerce with that country. But it is much enriched by its yearly fair, which is kept for three weeks after Twelfth-day, and frequented by multitudes of all ranks, eſpecially by the nobility and gentry of the duchies of Sleſwick and Holſtein, who meet every evening at a houſe, where there is a variety of gaming; and very often parties are made for ſupper, which is generally followed with a ball. Vaſt ſums of money are here negotiated; and payments made of ſums contracted beforehand, as punctually as by an Amſterdam banker upon the Exchange; inſomuch that the man who does not preſerve his credit at this fair, is looked upon as a bankrupt, and ſubjected to puniſhment, beſides

the ſcandal. During this fair Hamburg looks like a deſert, becauſe every body hurries hither to pay their rents, to renew their leaſes, or to let out money, &c. by which means the town, which at other times is but inconſiderable, is ſo full, that it is difficult to get lodgings. The old town is ſeparated from the new one by a bridge, at the end whereof is a draw-bridge and gate, guarded.

17. Renſburg is ſituated near 20 miles weſt of Kiel, and 32 ſouth-eaſt of Lunden, being near the borders of Sleſwiek. It is ſmall, but well built, and very ſtrong, having modern built fortifications, a capacious moraſs on one ſide, and a neat old caſtle, with a round tower, on the other. The town is ſurrounded by the river Eyder, which forms two ſmall lakes, that abound with fiſh. It is divided into the old and new town.

18. Wilſter is a ſmall town on a river of the ſame name, ſix miles from Gluckſtadt.

19. Itzehoe is a ſmall town on the river Stor, which is navigable from thence to the Elbe. The country from hence to Hamburg is remarkably pleaſant, and exceeding fertile. The town is divided into the old and new, the latter of which is extremely well built. Here is a Lutheran nunnery for ladies of quality, but they do not make vows, or lie under thoſe reſtrictions which are cuſtomary in Roman Catholic convents. It conſiſts of an abbeſs and 19 other ladies, and has the advowſon of ſeveral churches annexed to it.

To our deſcription of the continent of Denmark, we ſhall here add its iſlands, which comprehend the principal parts and places in the Daniſh dominions, becauſe, collectively conſidered, they are the ſeat of regal and legiſlative government, contain the metropolis of the realm, the general archives of the nation, and are the ſources whence flow the chief political, civil, and eccleſiaſtical decrees, ſtatutes, &c. They are likewiſe ſo abſolutely blended with, and nearly contiguous to, the other main parts of the nation, that it would be impoſſible to deſcribe Denmark as a kingdom, without taking them into particular conſideration. But, before we enter into a deſcription of theſe parts of the Daniſh monarchy, it will be neceſſary to premiſe a few obſervations concerning the Baltic.

This ſea, or rather inland gulf, ſituated between Denmark, Sweden, Germany, and Ruſſia, receives into its boſom ſeveral other gulfs, particularly the gulfs of Finland, Bothnia, Livonia, and Dantzick. It is remarkable that this ſea, or gulf, neither ebbs or flows; and there is always a current from it, that ſets through the Sound into the ocean. It is likewiſe generally frozen over three or four months in the winter ſeaſon.

ZEALAND, called alſo Zeeland, or Seeland, is the moſt extenſive and fertile iſland of the Baltic, and the principal part of the kingdom of Denmark. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Sound, which divides it from Schonen, and on the weſt by the Greater Belt, which ſeparates it from Funen. The iſlands of Moon, Falſter, and Laland, lie on the ſouth; and on the north are the Categate and Schagerack. It is almoſt of a round form, being 70 miles in diameter, and about 200 in circumference. The land, in general, is low, and very fertile; and its woods, foreſts, &c. abound with game. The coaſt is indented with many gulfs, bays, creeks, &c. which are of great commercial uſe, as they afford many ſecure harbours. The ſea vapours render the air thick, but not unwholeſome, as the people here, in general, live to a very old age; but they are dull, diſpirited, and inactive. Zealand is divided into 26 bailiwicks, called herrits, and theſe contain 346 pariſhes, with ſeveral conſiderable cities, towns, &c. The principal of theſe is,

†

Copenhagen, the capital of the whole kingdom. This city takes its name from the commodiouſneſs of its port; for the word itſelf ſignifies, *The Merchant's Port, or Haven.* It is ſituated on the eaſtern ſhore of Zealand, upon a fine bay of the Baltic, near the ſtreight called the Sound, in 55 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 12 deg. 56 min. eaſt long. This city was originally a mean little village of fiſhermen's huts, which, by the aſſiſtance of the biſhops of Roſchild, gradually roſe to be a conſiderable town, and at length was declared a city, and made the royal ſeat of the Daniſh ſovereigns. The houſes were formerly of wood; but, in the year 1728, almoſt the whole city was reduced to aſhes by fire; and ſince that time it has been more ſumptuouſly and ſecurely built of free-ſtone. The then reigning king exhauſted immenſe treaſures to erect a ſuperb palace; and the town is embelliſhed with elegant houſes, belonging to the nobility, and many magnificent churches, and other elegant public edifices.

An ingenious gentleman, who lately took an accurate ſurvey of this city, ſays, "So few perſons viſit this metropolis, or kingdom, from motives of curioſity, that they are quite ſurpriſed when I aſſure them I have no ſort of buſineſs here, and am only employed in the ſearch of knowledge. There is no face of induſtry or buſineſs here; and Copenhagen, though one of the fineſt ports in the world, can boaſt of little commerce. The public places are filled with officers, either in the land or ſea ſervice; and they appear to conſtitute three-fourths of the audience, both at the comedy and the opera. The number of forces are indeed much too large for this little kingdom. They can boaſt, it is true, a vaſt extent of dominion; but of what importance are the barren and almoſt uninhabited mountains of Norway and Lapland, ſtretching to the pole, or the plains of Iceland, where the inhabitants are yet, and will probably ever remain, in the moſt profound barbariſm? Their dominions in Holſtein are by far the moſt rich, and furniſh a large part of the royal revenue. There needs, indeed, no ſtronger proof of the poverty of the kingdom, than the ſcarcity of ſpecie. I have ſeen no gold, and hardly any ſilver. They pay every thing in paper; and if you loſe a ſingle dollar at the card-table, or the billiard-table, it is given in a bill." The excellency of the harbour is owing to the iſland of Amack, which breaks off the waves, and ſhelters it from the ſurge of the ſea. Here ſtands the arſenal, the exchange, the caſtle, and the mint, with about 500 houſes, known by the name of the New Town.

"The whole city of Copenhagen is about five miles in circumference. It lies very low; but there is a riſing ground within about half a league of it, and two or three little hills that cover it on the weſt-ſide, from whence the city may eaſily be bombarded. It has a very regular citadel on the north and north-weſt, built on the ſhore, with ſeveral fine baſtions, with ravelins of earth, well ſtored with cannon, and paliſadoed. The other ſides are of more difficult acceſs, by reaſon of marſhes. There are ſeveral royal baſtions, with ravelins before the curtains, which reach from the citadel to the ſouth part, and continue beyond the arm of the ſea which ſeparates Zealand from Amack. A circuit of fortifications, conſiſting of eight royal baſtions, and a ravelin, encloſes the new city, the port, and fleet, and faces the tolbooth, or cuſtom-houſe battery, which ſecures the entry into the haven. Theſe fortifications make the city of a round form. The houſes, which are not above 7000 in number, do not take up above half the ground encloſed. The entrance into the harbour is ſo narrow, that one ſhip only can paſs at a time; and this entrance is ſhut up every night

with

with a ſtrong boom. The citadel on one ſide, and a good block-houſe, well furniſhed with cannon on the other, command the mouth of it. Within this haven rides the royal navy, every ſhip having its place aſſigned to it. A wooden gallery ranges round the whole encloſure where the fleet lies, and is laid over the water in ſuch a manner, that all the ſhips may be viewed near at hand, as eaſily and commodiouſly as if they lay on dry land. This harbour is capacious enough to hold 500 ſail, where neither the wind or the enemy can do them the leaſt miſchief. The road without is very good and ſafe, being fenced from the ſea with a large ſand-bank, on the points of which are always two buoys floating, to direct all the ſhips that come in or go out. Here are no tides to fear, and there is always a ſufficient depth of water. Sometimes, indeed, according as the wind blows in or out of the Baltic, there lies a current; but it is neither frequent or dangerous.

AMACK lies eaſt from the city of Copenhagen, on the other ſide of the haven, and is called the Garden of Copenhagen. It is almoſt of an oval form, and was chiefly peopled by Hollanders, ſent thither by Margaret, ducheſs of Savoy, and governeſs of the Low Countries, at the deſire of Chriſtian II. who had married her niece, ſiſter to Charles V. emperor of Germany. He wiſhed that his queen might have pulſe, and other garden-ſtuff, planted there, which none knew ſo well how to cultivate as the Hollanders. Half the iſland was granted to them, and keeps to this day the name of Hollandeſby. They ſtill retain the Dutch faſhions, and ſupply Copenhagen with milk, butter, and cheeſe. The other half of the iſland is inhabited by Danes. Beſides pulſe, and other fruit, which this iſland produces, here is alſo plenty of wheat, barely, and oats. It alſo produces abundance of hares. The inhabitants are induſtrious, and their houſes neat and cleanly.

On this iſland is a place which approaches nearer to the nature of a circus than a ſquare. Each ſide is formed of only one ſingle palace; and in the centre is an equeſtrian ſtatue, in bronze, of king Frederick the Fifth. This place has a good effect, and is much more handſome than the Place des Victoires at Paris. There is a fine collection of paintings in one of theſe palaces, and a very curious private muſeum in another. But the greateſt curioſities, natural and artificial, both of variety and intrinſic value, are preſerved in the Royal Muſeum, in eight chambers, erected over the king's library. The chambers, or apartments, are large and well furniſhed. One of theſe rooms is wholly taken up with medals, antique and modern, each ſort being kept by themſelves, and very judiciouſly arranged; and in a ſeparate caſe are contained the Paduans, and other counterfeit medals, which, in workmanſhip, ſo nearly reſemble the true Grecian and Roman antiquities, that a good judge can ſcarcely diſtinguiſh them from originals. The ſeries of the modern medals of European nations are abſolutely complete, and thoſe of each nation kept diſtinct. Here it is proper to obſerve, by way of explanation, that a Paduan, amongſt medaliſts, is a modern medal ſtruck with all the marks and characters of antiquity. The name is taken from a famous Italian painter, called the Paduan, from Padua, the place of his birth, who ſucceeded ſo well in the cheat, that the beſt judges are at a loſs to diſtinguiſh his medals from thoſe which are really antique.

Among the natural rarities preſerved in the chambers, one of the moſt remarkable is a petrified child. It was cut out of the mother's belly at Sens, in Champagne, in the year 1582, after having lain there between 20 and 30 years; and that it is a human fœtus, and not artificial, is evident beyond all diſpute. Its head, ſhoulders, and belly, are of a whitiſh colour, and very much reſemble alabaſter; the back and loins are ſomewhat brown and harder; but, from the hips downwards, it is of a red colour, and as hard as perfect ſtone can be, exactly reſembling the hard ſort of ſtones generated in the bladder. This fœtus, after it was taken from the mother, was firſt carried to Paris, where it was ſold to a jeweller of Venice, who happened to be there, for about 20l. ſterling; of whom it was afterwards purchaſed by Frederick III. king of Denmark, for 60l. and added to this collection. In one of the chambers are to be ſeen two elephants teeth, each weighing an hundred and fifty pounds, which were dug out of a ſtone quarry in Saxony.

In this fine collection of curioſities there are ſeveral large pieces of ſilver ore, dug out of the mines of Norway in 1666, one of which weighs 460 pounds, and is valued at 5000 crowns. Another piece, ſomewhat leſs, is valued at more than 3000; both being ſo rich, that they are reckoned to contain at leaſt three parts ſilver. They are compoſed of a whitiſh ſtone, the cracks or cavities whereof ſeem to be filled with pure virgin ſilver, which, in ſome places, lie in broad flat plates, and in others like pieces of fine ſilver lace. But what is moſt admired in theſe pieces of ore, are the threads, or branches of ſilver, which ſhoot out an inch or two beyond the ſurface of the ſtone, appearing in the form of ſmall ſhrubs or buſhes. Several other rarities of this kind are to be ſeen among the ſilver ores preſerved in this muſeum. Here are alſo ſeveral large pieces of amber, ſome weighing 40 or 50 ounces; which, upon opening the ditches about Copenhagen, when they fortified the city, were found ſticking to the ſides of old trees that were buried there, like the gum on the plum-trees in our gardens.

In the ſame chamber are a great many large branches of white and red coral, and one of black; likewiſe a pair of ſtag's horns growing out of a piece of wood in a ſurpriſing manner. Here is a human thigh bone three feet three inches long; and two very large ſcollop ſhells, holding about three gallons each, and weighing 224 pounds each. Theſe were brought from the Eaſt-Indies; and, it is ſaid, the fiſh they belong to is of ſuch ſtrength, that if a man happens to get his arm or leg between the ſhells when they open, it claps them together ſo forcibly as to cut the limb clear off.

In this collection a piece of marble is preſerved, which the Lutherans reckon a very valuable curioſity, the natural veins of the ſtone running in ſuch a manner as to repreſent the exact figure of a crucifix. Some, indeed, have ſuſpected the repreſentation to have been by art; but, upon the niceſt examination, it appears to be entirely the work of nature.

Among the artificial curioſities there is a ſkeleton made of ivory, two feet ſix inches high, in imitation of a human one; and it is ſo nicely formed and put together, that it may be eaſily taken for a natural one. There are likewiſe two crucifixes of ivory, and the whole hiſtory of our Saviour's paſſion, beautifully expreſſed in a piece of carved work. A ſmall man of war in ivory, with ſilver guns, is a curioſity much admired; as is alſo a watch made of ivory, with all its wheels and movements. Beſides theſe, there are many other curioſities in ivory, ebony, box, amber, and other materials, which are kept for the ſake of their elegant workmanſhip. There is likewiſe a common cherry ſtone, on the ſurface of which are engraved 220 heads, but their ſmallneſs makes them appear imperfect and confuſed.

In this royal repoſitory are ſix golden ſepulchral urns, which were found in the iſland of Fuen, in

in 1685, by a peaſant, as he was ploughing his land, and contained each of them ſome aſhes of a greyiſh colour. The largeſt of them weighs two ounces and a half, and the others two ounces and a dram. They are extremely thin, and each has three rings of gold about its neck, and ſeveral circles carved upon the outſide of the urn, having one common centre. This diſcovery confirms the accounts given by various writers, that it was an ancient cuſtom among the northern nations to burn their dead, and then bury their collected aſhes in golden urns. There is another ſepulchral urn of cryſtal, of a conical figure, which has alſo a golden ring about it, and was found near Bergen, in Norway.

There are likewiſe in this collection ſeveral veſſels of different ſizes, ſome of glaſs, and others of earth, which are called lachrymal urns, or lachrymatories, being uſed by the ancient Romans to catch the tears of weeping friends, which were afterwards mixed with the aſhes of the deceaſed.

We ſhall cloſe our account of this celebrated muſeum with a deſcription of the Daniſh and Oldenburg horns, two curioſities which are greatly admired. The Daniſh horn is of pure gold, weighs an hundred and two ounces and a half, is two feet nine inches long, and holds about two quarts of wine meaſure. This horn was accidentally diſcovered in the year 1639, by a country girl, in the dioceſe of Ripen, in Jutland, and is undoubtedly a piece of great antiquity, by the figures carved on the outſides, which ſeem to be hieroglyphics, &c. It is likely that ſome of theſe figures were deſigned to repreſent their deities; and the horn was probably uſed in ſacrifices, as among the ancient Aſſyrians, and other nations, who upon ſuch ſolemnities, made a great noiſe with horns and trumpets, and uſed them to drink out of at their ſolemn entertainments.—The Oldenburg horn is of pure ſilver, gilt with gold, weighs about four pounds, and is curiouſly enamelled with green and purple colours. The Daniſh antiquaries relate many fabulous ſtories of this horn, which are not worth repeating; and as to what they ſay of its being given to Otho, earl of Oldenburg, in the year 982, it is plain it cannot be of that date, for the figures and characters on the outſide are modern; which, however, with the enamelling, and other ornaments, are of excellent workmanſhip, and make it a very fine and valuable curioſity.

An ingenious traveller, in his deſcription of the palace of Roſenburg, in the iſland, ſays, it was conſtructed by our famous Inigo Jones, and ſtands in the middle of a large garden. It is ſmall, and at preſent very little uſed by the king, or royal family. There is an air of antiquity in all the apartments, tapeſtry, and furniture, which is not diſpleaſing, and impreſſes with reſpect. The grand ſala, or dining-room in particular, is in this ſtile. The hangings, which are not ill executed, repreſent the various actions by ſea and land, which diverſified the ancient laws between the Swedes and Danes, who ſeem always to have had the ſame rivalſhip and animoſity which the French and Engliſh are diſtinguiſhed for, and which, it is probable, they will ever, in ſome degree, retain. At one end of this grand apartment are three ſilver lions as large as life, who ſeem, by the ferocity and rudeneſs of their appearance, deſigned to characterize the age and nation in which they were caſt. Here are ſeveral cabinets full of curious rarities, which the various ſovereigns of Denmark have ſucceſſively collected and left to their poſterity. Many of them are intrinſically valuable, others only preſerved from ſome event or accident connected with them. Among the firſt is a ſaddle, on which Chriſtian IV. made a ſort of triumphal entry into Copenhagen. It is covered with pearls, diamonds, and other precious ſtones; and the ſpurs are of ſtones enriched with jewels. The coat worn by the king, and a light helmet on the ſame occaſion, are likewiſe covered with pearls. They preſerve likewiſe, with great care, a handkerchief of this prince, dyed with his blood from a wound which he received by a ball, that deprived him of an eye. The man who accompanied us ſhewed me, with exultation in his countenance, a ſword of Charles XII. of Sweden. It is juſt ſuch a ſword as ſuch a monarch may be ſuppoſed to have uſed, and would well become the meaneſt ſoldier. It, indeed, evinces his ſtrength and vigorous frame of body, by its ſize and weight: the blade is at leaſt four feet long, and both the hilt and garde are entirely compoſed of braſs.

The gardens of this place conſtitute one of the chief diverſions of this city, as they are always open, and on feſtivals or Sundays crowded with company. They are large, but not laid out with taſte, or adorned with any productions of art, one ſtatue only excepted, of Hercules vanquiſhing the Nemæan lion, which ſtands under a portico, raiſed to defend it from the inclemency of the weather. This is of Italian workmanſhip; and the artiſt has found means to diſplay great anatomical ſkill and beauty in the attitude and muſcles of the hero, who, by an extraordinary exertion of ſtrength, forces open, and breaks the jaw of his adverſary.

The other principal buildings of Copenhagen are the king's muſe, or ſtables, the orphan-houſe, the opera-houſe, the military ſchool, the royal library, which contains above 40,000 printed books and manuſcripts, in various languages, and the univerſity. With reſpect to the latter, it muſt be obſerved, that, prior to the reign of Chriſtian I. (who was one of the beſt kings that ever ruled the Danes, and, indeed, may be deemed the Alfred of Denmark) the Daniſh nobility and gentry, for want of proper ſeminaries of learning in their own country, were under the neceſſity of ſending their children to the French and German univerſities and colleges for education. To remedy this great inconvenience Chriſtian applied to, and obtained leave of, the pope, to eſtabliſh a public ſeminary of learning in his own dominions, when the univerſity of Copenhagen was accordingly founded in the year 1475. But neither the ſucceſſors of this wiſe and patriotic monarch, or even the clergy, have ſeconded his laudable endeavours with a proper degree of ſpirit: for a very intelligent gentleman, who recently viſited this city, ſays,

"There are ſeveral hundreds of ſtudents in the univerſity of Copenhagen, who were entered upon eſtabliſhments which were made by former kings, when all the neceſſaries of life were very cheap, and when their young men could live decently upon what were allowed them; but now, as all theſe neceſſaries are become much dearer, and as few of thoſe ſtudents have any private fortune, many of them are in the greateſt miſery. I have met with ſeveral young men of lively parts, in the univerſity, which might make a conſiderable figure in the world; but ſince the new titular nobility bear the ſway here, ignorance and impudence, as coming the neareſt to their own character, are rewarded; whilſt real merit, modeſty, and decency, are treated with the greateſt contempt. Some time ſince, the king had a French comedy eſtabliſhed at Copenhagen, to the ſight of which every decent perſon was admitted gratis: but I was really aſtoniſhed to ſee three or four young men of genius refuſed admittance to this comedy, becauſe they were ſtudents in the univerſity, though they were very decently dreſſed, and even ſolicited to be admitted into the galleries; while

while thoſe places were filled with valets de chambre, and others of that claſs. No claſs of people are held in more contempt, in this country, than the ſtudents of the univerſity. What encouragement, then, have men of genius to ſtudy and cultivate the ſciences?"

Elſineur is ſituated about 20 miles north of Copenhagen, on a neck or ſtreight of the ſea, called the Sound, and ſurrounded by walls. The caſtle of Cronenburg, which defends Elſineur, and the caſtle of Helſinburg, on the oppoſite ſhore, command the commerce of the Baltic; for between theſe two forts all veſſels that trade into that ſea muſt paſs; ſo that this ſtreight is moſt frequented of any in Europe, that of Gibraltar excepted. The caſtle of Cronenburg was built by Frederick II. of free-ſtone, brought from Gothland. Every ſhip that paſſes this ſtreight muſt ſtrike ſail at Cronenburg, and come to the town to compound for the cuſtom, under the penalty of forfeiting the veſſel and cargo. Elſineur was ſurrounded with walls under the reign of Chriſtian IV. and peopled not only with Danes, but alſo with citizens from ſeveral nations. The city ſuffered very much when Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, beſieged Cronenburg in 1658. It was taken by him, but reſtored to the Danes by the treaty of Copenhagen in 1660. This was the native place of the celebrated John Iſaac Pontanus, though his parents were of Haerlam in Holland. He was doctor of phyſic, profeſſor in the univerſity of Hardewyck, and hiſtoriographer to the king of Denmark, and the province of Gelderland.

Cronenburg caſtle is 4 or 500 paces diſtant from Elſineur, on the ſpot where ſtood formerly the fortreſs of Orekrange. It is built upon oaken piles, faſtened with hewn ſtones; and ſo ſolid, that it ſupports the fury of the tide, which ſometimes beats againſt it moſt violently, without damaging it in the leaſt. It makes a large ſquare court, and was adorned with fine ſtatues; the apartments alſo being very ſplendid. The pipes of the ciſtern, which ſupplied the garriſon with water, and the locks of the doors, were all of fine ſilver, before it was plundered by the Swedes. It has four little towers at each corner, covered with copper: but the caſtle, with the chapel, ſteeple, and ornaments of it, are all going to decay. It has a ditch towards the ſea, ſurrounded with another ditch; and the land ſide is ſecured by five baſtions, and a half baſtion. They have five cannons upon them: but the baſtion that ſecures the paſſage of the Sound has but two cannons, 36 pounders each; and 11 more of ſmaller ſize. The rampart is vaulted with free-ſtone. Frederick II. who built this caſtle, ſpent none but his own money in the building of it; and declared, that if he knew there was one ſingle ſtone in it that coſt his people a farthing, he would have it removed. The unfortunate queen Caroline Matilda was confined in this caſtle.

There is a little hunting-ſeat, or palace, about a quarter of a mile from Elſineur, to which the king reſorts, for a few hours, in ſummer. There is nothing worthy of obſervation in the ſtructure itſelf; but from the roof the proſpect is enchanting, as it commands the town of Elſineur, the caſtle of Cronenburg, the Sound, and the coaſt of Sweden, for a conſiderable way.

Oppoſite Elſineur, lies the iſland of HUEN, or Ween, remarkable only for the caſtle of Uraniburg, built by the famous Tycho Brahe. King Frederick II. had given him that iſland for his life, that he might build an obſervatory there, with other buildings proper for his purpoſe. The king gave him alſo a penſion of 2000 golden crowns, a conſiderable fief in Norway, and a prebend in the church of Roſchild. This iſland was perfectly well ſuited to Tycho Brahe's deſign; for it is properly a hill, which riſes in the middle of the ſea, the top of which is flat and ſmooth, and commands a proſpect all over the coaſt of Schonen, and the neighbouring country, affording thus a very extenſive horizon. Add to this, that the ſky is here generally clear, there ſeldom ariſing any fogs. Tycho Brahe laid, towards the middle of the iſland, the foundation of his caſtle, which he named Uraniburg, that is to ſay, the Town of Heaven; and finiſhed it in four years time. From the diſpoſition and convenience of the apartments, together with the engines and inſtruments for obſeration it contained, it was looked upon as a building that had not its equal in the world. In the neighbourhood of it were lodgings for workmen of all kinds, maintained at the expence of the maſter; a printing-houſe, a paper-mill, forges for making of inſtruments, laboratories for chymical experiments, &c. Four years after he built, in the ſouth part of the iſland, another houſe, which he called Stelburg, that is, Starburg; there he kept ſeveral inſtruments, and lodged ſome ſtudents and ſervants, who applied themſelves to ſome particular ſtudy. But Uraniburg is now gone to decay; and the the iſland of Huen belongs now to the Swedes.

The chair in which Tycho Brahe uſed to ſit, to make his aſtronomical obſervations, is ſtill preſerved in the royal muſeum, and held, by the Danes, in the higheſt veneration. "Thus," ſays a judicious traveller, in a letter to a friend, "it ever happens! I need not remind you that the aſtronomer himſelf was driven from his native country by faction and malevolence; or that he died at Prague, in the court, and under the protection, of the emperor Rodolphus, who ſheltered this illuſtrious fugitive, and afforded him an aſylum."

Frederickſburg is a ſmall town, twenty miles diſtant from Copenhagen to the north-weſt, and eighteen from Elſineur to the ſouth-weſt. It is conſiderable only by the ſtately caſtle and royal palace which ſtands near it. That caſtle was formerly but a ſmall ſeat belonging to a private gentleman. King Frederick II. being charmed with its ſituation, bought it of him, and began to enlarge it. His ſon, Chriſtian IV. finiſhed it. This is the Verſailles of Denmark. The houſe is built on piles in a lake. The body of the caſtle conſiſts of a very fair front, with two great wings. The chapel is well adorned, and covered with gilt copper. It has twelve ſilver ſtatues of the apoſtles; and all the locks, bolts, &c. were ſilver, till it was plundered by the Swedes. The hall is adorned with paintings, and has the pictures of ſeveral of the kings of Denmark, and of the royal family, as large as the life; and a frame of paintings, which repreſent the ſea and land battles of the kings of Denmark. It is hung with rich tapeſtry of mohair, repreſenting the actions and battles of Chriſtian IV. There is a gallery which leads from the caſtle to the hall of audience, adorned with pictures, moſt of which were bought in Italy. Here is a park about nine miles long, of a proportionable breadth, and interſperſed with pools and fiſh ponds, with a mixture of green plods, hillocks, and ſmall vallies. It was ſtocked with fallow-deer from England. There is a pretty flower garden behind the caſtle, in the very lake; in which, though it is exceeding deep, they have built a kind of terrace on piles that coſt an hundred thouſand crowns.

The town of Roſchild, or Roſkild, lies at the bottom of the bay of Iſefiord, and is eighteen miles diſtant from Copenhagen to the weſt. It was formerly the capital of Denmark, when the king reſided there; but ſince they have choſen Copenhagen for their reſidence, it has dwindled greatly in point of importance, and is much de-

cayed with reſpect to wealth and commerce. Of twenty-ſeven churches, which formerly embelliſhed this town, only two are now ſtanding. It continues, however, to be the burial-place of the royal family. Among the monuments of the Daniſh ſovereigns, ſome of which are extremely magnificent, ſtands a beautiful marble pillar, erected by queen Margaret, as a ſupport to the whetſtone ſent her by Albert, king of Sweden, to ſharpen her needles, in deriſion to her ſex. But it whetted her reſentment in ſuch a manner, that he ſuffered ſeverely for his ſarcaſm; for he was taken priſoner by the queen, detained ſeven years in cuſtody, and obliged to relinquiſh all his pretenſions to the crown of Sweden.

Here is a convent of Lutheran nuns belonging to the beſt families; but they are not obliged to wear any particular habit, or to be reſtricted by the vows uſual in convents; but are permitted, if they think proper, to quit the convent, and marry. In 1658 the famous treaty of peace was here concluded between Denmark and Sweden. The univerſity is in a declining condition; and, indeed, the whole town exhibits evident marks of poverty and decay.

Sora is ſituated on the banks of a lake, about the centre of Zealand, was formerly the ſeat of a rich abbey, and has many pleaſant fields and foreſts near it. To this place the academy of Frederickſburg was removed, and the foundations of the univerſity were augmented by Chriſtian IV. Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, was educated here, and retained ſuch a veneration for the place, that when he invaded Zealand, he would not ſuffer his ſoldiers to enter the town. But the revenues of this ſeminary have been annexed to the crown of Denmark, and the whole is gone to decay. Abſalom, archbiſhop of Lunden, once founded here an eſtabliſhment for the maintenance of thoſe who ſhould write the hiſtory of Denmark; and to this foundation we owe the hiſtory written by the celebrated Saxo Grammaticus.

FUNEN is the next iſland to that of Zealand, in the ſcale of importance among the ſeveral parts which form the Daniſh kingdom. It is bounded by the Greater Belt on the eaſt, by the Leſſer Belt on the weſt, by the Baltic on the ſouth, and by a little channel, which ſeparates it from the iſland of Samſæ, on the north. It is about 36 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 30 from north to ſouth. The country is fertile and agreeable, being finely diverſified with verdant hills, ſhady woods, pleaſant groves, fruitful fields, rich paſtures, &c. The ſoil is good, well cultivated, and affords a great deal of grain, not only for home conſumption, but exportation. Great quanties of black cattle, horſes, hogs, &c. are bred here. This iſland is an appendage to the eldeſt ſons of the kings of Denmark, and is deemed one of the richeſt governments belonging to that ſovereignty. It contains four garriſoned towns, and 264 villages; but the moſt conſiderable places, and the only ones, indeed, worthy of deſcription, are the following:

Odenſee, the capital of the iſland, ſtands about the centre, and is a capacious, well-built, pleaſant town. Here the kings once reſided, and the aſſembly of the ſtates met before the crown became hereditary, and the ſovereign abſolute. In a church here, which is dedicated to St. Canute, the body of that prince was found near a century and a half ago. It was depoſited in a copper coffin, gilt, and adorned with precious ſtones. The moſt particular circumſtance relative to this town, at preſent, is, that the inhabitants brew the beſt beer in the whole kingdom.

On the narrower part of the Greater Belt, between Funen and Zealand, lies Nyburg. This place has ſome trade, the harbour is good, and the adjacent country is fertile. The damages done to the fortifications in the late wars with Sweden, are not yet thoroughly repaired. Embarkations for the iſland of Zealand are made at this town.

Schwenborg is an agreeable town, with a commodious harbour, ſituate on the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland. From hence Charles Guſtavus, in the year 1658, began his march, over the ice, to the iſlands of Langeland, Zealand, and Falſter.

The ſmall town of Woburg, or Foburg, is ſituate on a little gulf on the ſouthern coaſt of Funen, over-againſt the iſland of Arroe, and is about 10 miles diſtant from Schwenborg to the weſt.

In the duchy of Sleſwick, on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of this iſland, over-againſt Haderſleben, lies Aſſens. It is about 11 miles diſtant from Odenſee to the ſouth. In the year 1535 the army of king Chriſtian III. commanded by John Rantzaw, routed that commanded by Chriſtopher, earl of Oldenburg, and killed Guſtavus Troll, archbiſhop of Upſal. Rantzaw afterwards levelled this town with the ground.

On the weſtern ſhore of the iſland, lies Middlefar, on the Leſſer Belt, hence alſo called Middlefar-Sound. It is 17 miles diſtant from Aſſens to the north-weſt, and as many from Odenſee towards the ſouth-weſt. It is a ſmall, but neat town, in a country abounding with all the neceſſaries of life. It is the common paſſage from this iſland to Colding in Jutland; the Belt not being broader here than the Thames is at Graveſend. On the 13th of January 1652, Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, led his army over the ice to this place, routed the Daniſh forces that oppoſed him, and made himſelf maſter of the whole iſland of Funen.

FALSTER lies to the north-eaſt of Laland, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtreight. This iſland has Zealand on the north, and the iſland of Moon on the north-eaſt. It is 20 miles in length, and eight in breadth. Its ſoil is very fruitful; and much corn is ſent from hence to Mecklenburg, and other parts of Germany. It is divided into two bailiwicks; that of the ſouth, or Synder-Herrit; and that of the north, or Norre-Herrit. It has ſeveral towns; among which the chief are Nycoping, on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland, of which it is the capital. It is one of the moſt pleaſant and well-built towns in the whole kingdom, and ſtiled, by Dr. Heylin, the Naples of Denmark. It has a ſtrong caſtle, and a well frequented harbour. Stubcoping, in Latin, Stubcopia, ſeated on the north coaſt, is a place of ſome trade, being the uſual paſſage from Zealand into Germany.

ARROE is ſituated near the coaſt of Funen, being eight miles in length, and two in breadth. It is extremely fruitful in corn, and abounds in aniſeed, with which the inhabitants give a flavour to their bread, and ſeaſon their meat. In this iſland are plenty of horſes and black cattle; and ſome woods, in which are abundance of hares. The whole iſland has but three pariſhes, the moſt conſiderable of which is Kopin, or Kioping. The town belonging to it ſtands on the ſouthernmoſt part of the iſland, and bears the ſame name as the pariſh. It has a trade on account of its port, and is ſituated at the bottom of the bay.

LALAND is ſituated on the eaſtward of Langeland, and to the ſouthward of Zealand, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtreight, called Grone Sound. From its lowneſs, or flatneſs, it has the appellation of Laland, or Lowland. It is near 40 miles in length, and about 20 in breadth, where wideſt. The ſoil is very fertile; ſo that Copenhagen is ſupplied from hence with great quantities

quantities of corn, beſides what the Dutch traders are furniſhed with for exportation. This iſland is divided into five diſtricts, or bailiwicks, is the ſeat of a governor, and has ſeveral ſmall iſlands ſubject to its juriſdiction. It contains various pleaſant little villages and hamlets, and a few ſeats belonging to the nobleſſe, excluſive of four towns, Naſcow, Saxcoping, Levenſcoping, and Nyſted.

Naſcow, or Naxkow, the capital, is 59 miles ſouth-weſt from Copenhagen, and has a commodious harbour for trade. The fiſhery is of ſome conſequence, and the circumjacent country is rich in meadow and paſture lands.

MOON lies to the ſouth-eaſt of Zealand, and to the north-eaſt of Falſter. It is about 20 miles long, eight broad, and full of high chalky hills. Here is ſome paſture ground, but very little corn land. It was formerly part of the Daniſh admiral's allowance, as being the firſt place for him to reſide in. There are in this iſland ſeveral villages, large pariſhes, and a conſiderable city, called Stege, or Stekoe, which lies on the north of the iſland, on a little rivulet, that a mile lower falls into the ſtreight called Grone Sound. This city made a brave defence againſt the Lubeckers in the year 1510, and forced them to retreat: and the valour of the inhabitants of the whole iſland was ſignalized in 1659, when they defended themſelves better againſt the Swedes than the larger iſlands had done.

LANGELAND is 22 miles long, and eight broad, is ſituated on the Greater Belt, to the ſouthward of Funen. This iſland abounds with wheat, rye, and barley, of which the natives export great quantites. It is divided into 16 pariſhes, and Rutcoping, on its weſtern coaſt, is the moſt conſiderable town, being defended by the fort of Traneker, which is always furniſhed with a ſtrong garriſon.

FEMEREN lies near the coaſt of Holſtein, from whence it is ſeparated by a ſtreight which is not above two miles broad, and is called Der Femmer Sundt, i. e. the Streights of Femeren. Though it is but a ſmall ſpot of ground, yet it has always been looked upon as one of the keys of Denmark, with regard to the empire. Therefore king Chriſtian IV. was more afraid of the Germans becoming maſters of this iſland, than of their overrunning Jutland, which cauſed him to fortify all the old caſtles, and put ſtrong garriſons in every place of importance here. This iſland is extremely fruitful in corn and paſtures, and yet has but two pariſhes, namely, Borg and Peterſdorp. There is a fort at the place where people land from Holſtein, called Fethſchans, that is, the Fort of the paſſage.

BORNHOLM, anciently called Boringia, is ſaid to have been diſcovered by Thicloraus, the ſon of a prince of Jutland. It is the remoteſt and moſt eaſterly of all the iſlands belonging to the king of Denmark, being about 75 miles diſtant from Zealand to the eaſt, and not above 15 from the neareſt coaſt of Schonen to the ſouth-eaſt. It is about 18 miles long, from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt; and about 10 in breadth, from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt. Bornholm is a place of great importance for its ſituation and fruitfulneſs, and belonging once to the archbiſhop of Lunden; but king Chriſtian II. took poſſeſſion of it in the year 1524, as being abſolutely neceſſary for the fleet he was preparing againſt Sweden; which uſurpation George Seſteburg, who was then archbiſhop, oppoſed with all his power, but in vain; for he was forced afterwards to fly into Germany, to avoid the effects of the king's diſpleaſure. The Swedes have frequently laid this iſland waſte; and in the war with Frederick II. they made themſelves maſters of it, and deſigned to keep it; but they were obliged to reſtore it by the treaty of Copenhagen, concluded May 27th, 1660. The moſt conſiderable places are Sandwyck, on the northern coaſt; Ratenby, on the ſouth-weſtern; Nex, on the eaſtern; and Sand-Hamer, to the north of Nex, on the ſame coaſt; beſides which here are ſeveral villages.

Many little iſlands ſurround the above-mentioned more conſiderable ones; but they are either uninhabited, or of ſo little importance, as not to be thought worthy of notice by travellers, or of mention by geographers. Some others are contiguous to them, and belong to the other provinces of Denmark; the moſt conſiderable of which are Samſoe and Leſſaw, on the coaſt of Jutland.

SAMSOE, or SAMSOI, is in the Baltic, eight miles from the coaſt of Jutland. It is near nine miles in length, three in breadth, fruitful, healthy, and pleaſant.

LESSAW belongs to the dioceſe of Aabur, oppoſite to which it lies, at about the diſtance of 12 miles from the ſhore. It is ſurrounded by ſand-hills, but has two places where ſhips may ride ſafely at anchor, on the north and eaſt ſides, and contains three ſmall villages.

Appertaining and contiguous to the duchy of Sleſwick, are the following iſlands, viz.

1. ROM, which is in length ſeven, and in breadth four miles, contains ſeveral ſmall hamlets, and about 1500 inhabitants. Towards the eaſtern parts the paſturage for cattle is excellent; and on the weſtern ſide of the iſland are ſeveral harbours, in which ſmall veſſels may ride in ſafety.

The greateſt part of Manoe, formerly a conſiderable iſland, has been ſwallowed up by the ſea.

2. SYLT, ſituated to the northward of Fora, and is of a triangular form, the longeſt ſide being about 14 miles in length. It is ſandy, barren, and inhoſpitable; and the people, who are a hardy, clowniſh race, are annually engaged in the whale fiſheries, on the coaſts of Iceland, Greenland, and Spitzbergen. Earthen urns, containing human bones, aſhes, &c. have been found in the hills of this iſland, which further evinces that the ancient inhabitants burned their dead.

3. NORTHSTRAND lies oppoſite to the bailiwick and town of Huſum, and was, it is ſaid, ſeparated from the continent by a violent ſtorm. When it became an iſland it was about 12 miles long, and four broad, in ſome places, and in others leſs. Its ſoil is very fruitful, and produced abundance of corn before the inundations we ſhall mention hereafter. It had alſo very fat paſtures, where they fed exceeding good cattle; and they uſed to ſend daily to Huſum, and other places, a prodigious number of ſheep, fowls, ducks, and geeſe, and great quantities of butter. It contained 21 or 22 pariſhes, and about 8000 inhabitants; but it has ſuffered prodigiouſly at ſeveral times by fatal inundations. In the year 1300 the little city of Rungholt, with ſeveral churches and villages, were carried away by the waves, which drowned alſo great numbers of people, as well as cattle.

In 1532 there aroſe ſuch a violent ſtorm here, that almoſt the whole iſland was overflowed; when 1600, or, according to others, 1900 perſons periſhed in the water. The next year another ſtorm damaged the dykes very much. From 1612 to 1618, there happened every year ſuch inundations, as occaſioned prodigious loſſes, and put the inhabitants to very great expence; and particularly in 1615, when 300 perſons periſhed in the

waves. They were afterwards free for ſome years, and had time to repair their banks and dykes; but all their care and precautions proved ineffectual againſt the ſtorm that happened October the 11th, 1634. At ten of the clock at night the whole iſland lay under water, above 6000 perſons were drowned, and, of all the inhabitants, there were hardly 1500 that ſaved their lives. The churches, which ſtood on the riſing grounds, held out the ſtorm indeed, but fell down afterwards; and 28 windmills were carried away by the waves. The loſs of cattle of all ſorts was reckoned to amount to 50,000 heads; and the dykes were broke in 44 different places. The whole iſland continued thus overflowed, except a ſmall ſpot of ground which ſtood higher than the reſt. Since that time the inhabitants have laboured, with the aſſiſtance of ſome Dutchmen, to regain part of the land they had loſt.

4. AMRON, or Amroen, is a ſmall iſland to the north-weſt of Northſtrand, from which it is about ſeven miles diſtant. It is in the form of a creſcent, and is only conſiderable for its oyſter fiſhery.

5. FORA, or Foehr, lies towards the north-eaſt of Amron, and nearer the coaſt of Sleſwick, between Northſtrand and Sylt. It belongs to the prefectorſhip of Tunder, and is of an oval figure, about ſix miles in length, and four in breadth. It abounds in cattle and corn, has about 4200 inhabitants, and ſeveral villages. The inhabitants ſtill preſerve the language, manners, and dreſs of the ancient Friſons, though ſome of them ſpeak the dialect of Lower Saxony.

Denmark is extremely well ſituated for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ſhips of all burthens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Daniſh majeſty furniſh a great variety of timber, and other materials for ſhip-building; and there are many productions for exportation in ſome of his provinces. Beſides fir, and other timber, here are black cattle, horſes, butter, ſtock-fiſh, tallow, hides, furs, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which being the natural product of the country, are properly denominated exports; theſe enable Denmark to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; but the exportation of oats is prohibited. Salt, wine, brandy, and ſilk from France, Portugal, and Italy, are the imports. The Danes have lately had a great intercourſe with England, from whence they import broad-cloths, clocks, cabinet and lock-work, hardware, &c.

But the commercial ſpirit of the Danes appears in a very favourable light, when we conſider their ſettlements in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies. A company for carrying on the former was eſtabliſhed at Copenhagen in the year 1612, under the protection of Chriſtian IV. About four years after the eſtabliſhment, four large ſhips ſailed for the Eaſt-Indies; and the Danes made a ſettlement at Tranquebar on the coaſt of Coromandel. Here they built a fort, which is reckoned the ſtrongeſt in the Indies. This colony ſoon increaſed from the encouragement given by the Danes to the Indians, who, finding themſelves protected in their privileges, and permitted to carry on their trade without oppreſſion, reſorted to Tranquebar in ſuch numbers, that the commerce ſoon became very valuable, and the company received a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix dollars. But not content with this increaſing eſtabliſhment, the Danes attempted, in the year 1620, to make a ſettlement on the iſland of Ceylon, in order to acquire the ſpice-trade, then monopolized by the Portugueſe.—This ſcheme, however, failed in the attempt, and the Danes having embroiled themſelves with the Indian princes on the continent, their ſettlement at Tranquebar muſt have been taken by the rajah of Tranjour, had not Mr. Pitt, an Engliſh Eaſt-India governor, generouſly ſent them aſſiſtance.

After the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, when the wars in Europe were ended, the Daniſh Eaſt-India company found themſelves ſo much in debt, that they publiſhed propoſals for a new ſubſcription for enlarging their ancient capital ſtock, and for fitting out ſhips to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. The capital was conſiderably enlarged for theſe purpoſes by a ſpirited ſubſcription, which alarmed France and the maritime powers. The Dutch raiſed a proceſs againſt the projects of Van Aſperin, who, being a ſubject of the States, was condemned and executed in effigy. Every objection that could be ſtarted againſt the accompliſhing of the ſcheme, was publiſhed in the newſpapers of Paris, London, and Amſterdam, with a view to diſcourage people from engaging in the commerce. The miniſters of Great-Britain and Holland, who reſided at the court of Denmark, were ordered to make remonſtrances to his Daniſh majeſty againſt this new charter, which they apprehended would interfere with the Eaſt-India trade of their ſubjects. The king prudently anſwered, that he was not reſtricted by any treaty whatever from ſupporting and extending the traffick of his ſubjects by every means in his power, provided he did not infringe the laws of nature and nations, which he had no intention to violate. After great difficulties the company was eſtabliſhed, their commerce extended, and they now carry on an advantageous trade to China, and the coaſt of Coromandel. Their credit is extenſive; their funds are conſiderable; their ware-houſes, magazines, yards, and docks in complete order; and they ſend annually two or three ſhips richly laden to the Eaſt-Indies.

Beſides the trade to the Eaſt-Indies, the Danes have extended their commerce to the Weſt-Indies, where they poſſeſs the iſlands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the ſmall iſland of St. John, which are free ports, and celebrated for ſmuggling; alſo the fort of Chriſtianburg on the coaſt of Guinea, and to Greenland. Within a ſhort period of time, the Daniſh merchants have opened new channels of trade, particularly with the Mediterranean; the number of ſhips has been doubled, and the revenues of the kingdom increaſed in proportion.

Denmark is not famous for its antiquities, if we except the royal Muſeum at Copenhagen, which conſiſts of a very numerous collection of them. Beſides artificial ſkeletons, curious carving in ivory, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony made by a Dutch artiſt who was blind, here are a great variety of aſtronomical, optical, and mathematical inſtruments, which are placed in the round tower at Copenhagen, ſo contrived that a coach may drive to its top: a ſet of medals ancient and modern: and two famous antique drinking veſſels, one of gold, and the other of ſilver, and both in the form of a hunting horn. That of gold ſeems to be of Pagan manufacture, and from the raiſed hieroglyphical figures on its outſide, it was probably made uſe of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two Engliſh pints and a half, and was found in the dioceſe of Rippen, in the year 1739. The other, of ſilver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed Cornu Oldenburzicum; which, they ſay, was preſented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghoſt. Some, however, are of opinion that this veſſel was made by order of Chriſtian I. king of Denmark, the firſt of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448.

The conſtitution of Denmark was heretofore of the free Gothic original. The convention of the

ſtates, even including the repreſentatives of the boors or peaſants, elected a king for his perſonal virtues, having a due regard to the ſon of their late monarch, whom, however, they made no ſcruple of ſetting aſide, if they deemed him unworthy of the royal dignity. They enacted laws, conferred the great offices of ſtate, debated all affairs relative to commerce, peace, war, and alliances; and occaſionally gave their conſent to the impoſition of neceſſary taxes. The king was in reality no other than chief magiſtrate, generaliſſimo, and, as it were, prime miniſter to his people. His buſineſs was to ſee juſtice adminiſtered impartially; to command the army in time of war; to encourage induſtry, religion, arts and ſciences, and to watch over the intereſts of his ſubjects. He had no public revenue from the ſtate, but lived like a private nobleman from the produce of his own lands and demeſnes. Such was the conſtitution of Denmark till the year 1660, when it underwent a very extraordinary revolution.

At the concluſion of the peace with Sweden, the nation reſounded with the clamour of miſery and diſcontent. There was nothing left in the public treaſury to pay off and diſband the army, which therefore became inſolent and licentious. The common people, and even the burghers, were exhauſted by the long expenſive war: the clergy were unſatisfied with their condition and want of importance, and the nobility were become proud and tyrannical. When the eſtates aſſembled to deliberate and redreſs the grievances of the nation, the commons propoſed that an equal tax ſhould be laid upon all perſons without diſtinction, in proportion to their circumſtances. The nobles pleaded their privilege of being exempted from all impoſition. The burghers alledged, that as the nobility engroſſed all the lands and riches in the kingdom, it was reaſonable they ſhould bear their ſhare of the common burthen; in conſequence of this, violent diſputes enſued. At length a nobleman, named Otto Craeg, ſtood up, and in a tranſport of paſſion told the commons, that they neither underſtood the privileges of the nobility, who were always exempted from ſuch impoſitions, nor the condition of themſelves, who were no other than their ſlaves. This inglorious term produced an immediate ferment in the aſſembly, and the hall reſounded with murmurs and altercations. Nanſon, ſpeaker of the commons, ſtarting up in a rage of indignation, ſwore that the nobility ſhould repent their having branded the commons with ſuch an opprobrious epithet. He had previouſly concerted the deſign with the biſhop of Copenhagen, and the court was not ignorant of their intention. The clergy and burghers breaking up in diſorder, marched under the auſpices of theſe leaders to Brewer's-Hall, where, after much debate, they agreed to make a ſolemn tender of their freedom and ſervices to the king, that he might become abſolute monarch of the realm, and ſee the right of hereditary ſucceſſion eſtabliſhed in his family. Next morning they marched in couples, each burgher being paired with a clergyman, through the ſtreets, which were filled with the populace, who ſhouted as they paſſed to the council-hall, where the nobles had re-aſſembled. There Nanſon, in a ſhort harangue, ſignified the intention of the clergy and commons, demanded the concurrence of the nobles, and threatened that, in caſe of a refuſal, they would forthwith proceed without them to the palace. The nobles, confounded and abaſhed, endeavoured to gain time: they profeſſed a deſire of concurring with the other ſtates, but deſired that an affair of ſuch infinite conſequence might not be precipitated. The others, being deaf to their remonſtrances and entreaties, continued their proceſſion to the palace, where they were met by the prime miniſter, who conducted them to the hall of audience. There the biſhop of Copenhagen, in a florid ſpeech, as deputy from the two orders, made a ſolemn tender to the king of an abſolute and hereditary dominion; aſſuring his majeſty, that he might command their purſes and arms, to ſupport a meaſure ſo neceſſary to the welfare of his people. He received them graciouſly, aſſented to the propoſal, thanked them for their zeal and confidence, and aſſured them they might depend upon his royal favour and protection. The city gates were immediately ſhut, that none of the ſenators ſhould eſcape, a precaution by which the nobles were ſo greatly intimidated, that they immediately ſignified their readineſs to concur with the ſtep which the other two orders had taken. Preparations were forthwith made for this ſtrange inauguration. Scaffolds were raiſed in the open ſpace before the caſtle, and the troops and burghers received orders to appear in arms, under their reſpective officers. On the ſixteenth day of October, in the year 1660, the king, queen, and royal family, aſcended an open theatre, and placing themſelves on chairs of ſtate, under canopies of velvet, received in public the homage of all the ſenators, nobility, clergy, and commons, couched in an oath of allegiance compoſed for the purpoſe. Thus the people, with a raſh and deſperate hand, from motives of revenge, fomented by an artful miniſtry and ambitious clergy, reſigned their liberty and independence, and inveſted their ſovereign with a deſpotic power over their lives and fortunes.

Soon after this extraordinary revolution took place, the king of Denmark diveſted the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; though he took no method to relieve or reward thoſe poor people by whoſe means he was inveſted with the ſovereign power, but left them in the ſame ſtate of ſlavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the preſent age.

When the revolution in the reign of Frederick III. had been effected, the king re-united in his perſon the rights of the ſovereign power; but as he could not exerciſe all by himſelf, he was obliged to intruſt ſome part of the executive power to his ſubjects. The ſupreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace at Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal preſident. The German provinces have likewiſe their ſupreme tribunal; which for the duchy of Holſtein is holden at Gluckſtadt, and for the duchy of Sleſwick in the town of Sleſwick.

The king for the moſt part decides matters of importance in his council, the numbers of which are named and diſplaced at his will. In this council the laws are propoſed, diſcuſſed, and receive the royal authority; here likewiſe great changes or eſtabliſhments are propoſed, and approved or rejected by the king; and in the council, or in the cabinet, he grants privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws, their extenſion, or their reſtriction, and upon the moſt important affairs of the kingdom, according to his ſovereign will and pleaſure.

The kings of Denmark not only preſide nominally in the ſovereign court of juſtice, but they have a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always addreſs their diſcourſes in pleading, and the judges the ſame in giving their opinion. The king is preſent every year at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges ſuch inſtructions as he thinks proper. The deciſion of thoſe judges is final in all civil actions; but no criminal ſentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution till it is ſigned by the king. There are

three courts in Denmark, and an appeal in extraordinary caſes lies from the inferior to the ſuperior tribunal. As every man is permitted to plead his own cauſe, a trial is attended with very little expence; nor can any ſuit be ſuſpended longer than 18 months.

In Denmark, the judges are puniſhable for any miſdemeanors they may be guilty of, and there are many excellent regulations for the due adminiſtration of juſtice; but notwithſtanding this, it is ſo far from being diſtributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can ſcarcely ever obtain juſtice in this country againſt one of the nobility, or againſt one who is favoured by the court or by the chief miniſter. If the laws are ſo clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are aſhamed to decide againſt them, the latter, through his influence with the miniſter, procures an order from the king to ſtop all the law-proceedings, or a diſpenſation from obſerving particular laws; and thus every rule of equity being perverted and ſet aſide, the lower claſs of ſubjects are aggrieved and injured without any poſſibility of redreſs.

The code of laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Denmark was publiſhed by Chriſtian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes which have been ſince publiſhed, and is nearly the ſame with that publiſhed in Norway. Theſe laws are contained in a quarto volume, drawn up in the language of the country, in ſo plain and perſpicuous a manner, and founded upon ſuch unerring principles of juſtice, that the moſt ignorant may underſtand, and every impartial perſon approve of them; and, if carried into execution in an equitable manner, would be productive of many beneficial effects to the people. But as the king can change, alter, and diſpenſe with the laws as he pleaſes, and ſupport his miniſters in their diſregard and violation of them, the people of Denmark undergo a great degree of tyranny and oppreſſion, and have abundant reaſon to regret the tameneſs and ſervility with which they ſurrendered their liberties, and thereby eſtabliſhed abſolute monarchy.

The police is very ſtrict in Denmark, hence highway robberies, burglaries, coining, clipping, &c. are crimes ſcarce ever heard of; and to ſpeak againſt the government is ſo ſtrongly prohibited, that none dare wag their tongues licentiouſly in political matters. The common method of execution here is beheading and hanging: in ſome caſes, as an aggravation of the puniſhment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the ſentence is executed. The other principal modes of puniſhment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the raſp-houſe, to houſes of correction, and to public labour, and impriſonment. The public executioner, though univerſally deſpiſed, is commonly rich, as he is not only well paid to deprive malefactors of life, but is the general contracter to empty all the privies, and remove from houſes, ſtables, ſtreets, &c. all kinds of filth, and, in particular, dead cats, dogs, &c. which no other Dane will touch upon any account whatever.

The revenues of Denmark ariſe from crown lands, taxes, and duties, and theſe are extremely heavy. Wine, ſalt, tobacco, and proviſions of all kinds are taxed. Marriages (a moſt impolitic tax!) paper, corporations, land, houſes, and poll money, alſo raiſe a conſiderable ſum. The expences of fortifications are borne by the people; and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The tolls paid by ſtrangers ariſe chiefly from the paſſage of their ſhips through the Sound into the Baltic. The income of this toll is at preſent much leſs than formerly. About the year 1640, it produced 240,000 rix-dollars per annum; but ſince 1645 it has not yielded above 190,000; ſome years not above 80,000; in 1691, it did not extend to full 70,000, and is now much leſs. The tax has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame; having been diſputed by the Engliſh, Dutch, and Swedes, who deemed it arbitrary and unjuſt, being originally only a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expence of light-houſes on the coaſt; but it was at length, by the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, agreed to be paid by the former and other powers. The toll is paid at Elſineur.

The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elſineur, amounts at preſent to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000l. ſterling yearl. By a liſt of the revenue taken in 1730, it then amounted only to 454,700l. Engliſh money, which is leſs than half the ſum it now produces.

The military force of Denmark conſiſts in its regular troops, militia, and navy. The greateſt part of the regular troops are foreigners, particularly Germans. The cavalry and dragoons are well mounted, and conſiſt of eleven regiments; and each regiment in four ſquadrons, including the body guards. Three of theſe regiments are quartered in Zealand, one in Funen, three in Jutland, and four in Holſtein. The infantry is compoſed of ſixteen regiments; of which two do duty as the king's guards. When the regiments are complete, each conſiſts of two battalions, and each battalion contains ſix companies of 100 each. The artillery conſiſt of three regiments, one of which is ſtationed in Denmark, another in Norway, and a third in Holſtein. The body of engineers is divided into three parts, each of which compriſes twenty officers of various ranks.

Since the late reduction of the Daniſh forces, their numbers are, 10,000 cavalry and dragoons, and 30,000 infantry and artillery, which, with the militia, will make up a body of 70,000 men. Every perſon who cultivates or poſſeſſes 360 acres of land, is obliged to find one man for the militia, and pay half the expence of a man towards a corps-de-reſerve, to be embodied and called out only upon great emergencies. They receive no pay, but are regiſtered on the army liſt, and exerciſed every Sunday.

Though the Daniſh army is extremely burdenſome to the nation, yet it coſts little to the crown: great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark the peaſantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furniſh them with money.

The preſent fleet of Denmark is compoſed of thirty-ſix ſhips of the line, and eighteen frigates; but many of the ſhips being old, and wanting great repairs, if they can ſend out twenty-five ſhips upon the greateſt emergency, this is thought the moſt they can do. This fleet is generally ſtationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, ſtore-houſes, and all the materials neceſſary for the uſe of the marine. They have 26,000 regiſtered ſeamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor ſerve on board a merchantman without permiſſion from the Admiralty; 4000 of theſe are kept in conſtant pay, and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, ſcarcely amounts to nine ſhillings a month, but then they have proviſions and lodgings allowed for themſelves and families, and a ſort of blue uniform, faced with different colours.

The Daniſh men of war carry the ſame complement of men, in proportion to their guns, as the French ſhips of war do; but they are much inferior,

in point of conſtruction, both to Engliſh and French ſhips of war; and, indeed, are far from being equal to the Swediſh ſhips.

The three laſt kings of Denmark, notwithſtanding the degeneracy of their ſubjects in martial affairs, were very reſpectable princes, by the number and diſcipline of their troops. Frederic IV. eſtabliſhed a marine academy for fifty young cadets, to be trained up to a thorough knowledge of naval affairs, and to be perfectly taught navigation, gunnery, drawing, fencing, hiſtory, geography, geometry, &c. and in order to join practice to theory, they were annually to make a voyage in a frigate, and ſucceſſively to perform the ſervices of common ſeamen, pilots, and officers. But this noble inſtitution is now totally neglected, and the money appointed to ſupport it is ſunk into venal pockets; ſo that except a few officers, who have been bred in the Engliſh and French ſervices, the Danes would have a great difficulty, in caſe of a rupture with any naval power, to find proper perſons to command their ſhips of war.

To the court belong two ancient orders of knighthood, viz. that of the elephant, and that of Daneburgh. The badge of the former, which is the moſt honourable, is an elephant ſurmounted with a caſtle ſet with diamonds, and ſuſpended to a ſky-coloured ribbon, worn like the George in England. This order was inſtituted by Chriſtian I. at his ſon's wedding. It is conferred only on perſons of the higheſt quality; and the number of companions amount to 30 beſides the ſovereign. The order of Daneburgh, though leſs honourable, is much more ancient; ſo that the origin of it is loſt in fable: it is beſtowed, as an honorary reward, upon the nobleſſe of inferior rank, its inſignia being a white ribbon with red edges, worn over the left ſhoulder, from which depends a ſmall diamond croſs and an embroidered ſtar on the breaſt of the coat, ſurrounded with the motto PIETATE ET JUSTITIA, by piety and juſtice.

HISTORY OF DENMARK, NORWAY, &c.

VERY little is known of the early periods of the Daniſh hiſtory. Even the name of the firſt Chriſtian king of Denmark is uncertain; and thoſe of the people whom they commanded were ſo blended together, that it is impoſſible for the reader to conceive a preciſe idea of the whole Scandinavian hiſtory. All that we can diſcover relative to the inhabitants of theſe kingdoms is, that they appear to have been colonies of the ancient Scythians, who ſpread themſelves through all the northern and weſtern parts of Europe. In the 4th century, the Saxons, a name under which the Danes, Norwegians, and other nations of the North were comprehended, committed dreadful ravages on the coaſts of Britain and Gaul, and obliged the Romans to ſtation their forces along the coaſts, under the command of an officer called Comes Littoris Saxonici. Their ravages, like their manners, were cruel and inhuman; their tracks were marked with blood and deſolation; and neither age, innocence, nor religion, could afford protection from the ſwords of thoſe barbarians. They formed ſettlements on the coaſts of Normandy, Ireland, and Scotland; and in the year 1012 made a conqueſt of England.

Few very intereſting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret II. aſcended the throne. That princeſs married Aquin, king of Norway, by which the two kingdoms became united. Aquin died ſoon after; but Margaret, partly by addreſs, and partly by the right ſhe had obtained by her marriage, formed a treaty, anno 1397, by which ſhe was acknowledged ſovereign of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. This treaty is generally known by the name of the union of Calmar. Margaret, whoſe ſoul was formed for greatneſs, ſwayed the ſceptre of theſe kingdoms with honour to herſelf, and advantage to her country. Her friendſhip was courted by moſt of the European powers, ſo that hiſtorians have juſtly ſtyled her the Semiramis of the North. But like all other ſublunary greatneſs, it was fleeting and tranſient. The ſucceſſors of Margaret were far inferior to her in abilities; and the union of Calmar was ſoon deſtroyed. The Swedes rebelled, and placed Guſtavus Vaſa on the throne of his anceſtors. Norway, however, ſtill continued united to Denmark, nor has there been any rebellion in that kingdom ſince the union.

In the year 1448, the crown of Denmark paſſed to Chriſtian, count of Oldenburgh, from whom the preſent royal family is deſcended. In 1513, Chriſtian II. one of the moſt complete tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the ſiſter of the emperor Charles V. he gave a full proof of his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden for the bloody maſſacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled againſt him likewiſe; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederic, duke of Holſtein, was unanimouſly called to the throne, on the depoſition of his cruel nephew: he openly embraced the opinions of Luther; and about the year 1536, the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed by that wiſe and politic prince, Chriſtian III. He was oppoſed in the Reformation by his biſhops, and therefore ſeized on the lands and revenues of the church, annexing them to his own.

Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, though very brave in his own perſon, wanted the abilities proper for the command of an army. He was choſen head of the proteſtant league formed in 1629, againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but was foiled in every attempt, and even in danger of loſing his own dominions; when he was ſucceeded in the command of the army by the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, under whoſe command the proteſtant forces acquired immortal honour.

Frederic III. who ſucceeded his father Chriſtian IV. in 1648, declared war againſt the Swedes, at the inſtigation of the Dutch. This precipitate conduct had nearly proved fatal to Denmark. Charles took the fortreſs of Frederickſtadt by ſtorm; and in the ſucceeding winter, 1658, marched his army over the ice to the iſland of Funen, where he ſurpriſed the Daniſh forces, made himſelf maſter of Odenſee and Nyburg, and, purſuing his victories, marched over the Great Belt, and beſieged Copenhagen itſelf. Frederic, however, defended his capital with the greateſt reſolution; and Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interpoſing, the peace of Roſchild was concluded, by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, the iſland of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway. Frederic was very deſirous of eluding theſe ſevere terms, and poſtponed the ſurrender of the places ſtipulated in the treaty ſo long, that Charles put his army in motion, made himſelf maſter of Cronenburg, and once more inveſted Copenhagen by ſea and land. Frederic bore theſe misfortunes with ſuch an heroic firmneſs and conſtancy of mind, as endeared him to his ſubjects. Charles made ſeveral attacks upon the city, but was always repulſed with conſiderable loſs, and there ſeemed no other way of reducing it but by famine. In the mean time a ſtrong Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and ſoon defeated and diſperſed the Swediſh ſhips which blocked

blocked up Copenhagen by ſea. Animated by this aſſiſtance, the Danes exerted all their power, and Charles was obliged to raiſe the ſiege. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who was actually making preparations for invading the territories of the enemy: but before he was ready to carry his plan into execution, an Engliſh fleet arrived, and the Dutch were obliged to retire. Charles was now enabled to renew the ſiege of the capital; but by the mediation of France and England, a peace was concluded at Copenhagen, by which Charles agreed to reſtore the iſland of Bornholm; and Frederic to cede the iſlands of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, to the Swedes.

The magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, during this deſtructive war, ſo endeared him to his ſubjects, that on the nobles refuſing to ſubject their eſtates to the payment of an equal tax propoſed by the commons to be levied on all perſons whatever, they made the king a tender of their liberties, and the government of Denmark became arbitrary in the manner we have already mentioned.

Chriſtian V. who aſcended the throne of Denmark in 1670, was at firſt very ſucceſsful in his war againſt the Swedes; he recovered ſeveral places in Schonen, that had been wreſted from him, and obliged the duke of Holſtein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had acquired by the treaty of Roſchild. While he was purſuing his victories with amazing ſucceſs, fortune forſook his ſtandard, and his army was totally defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. Chriſtian, however, determined to perſevere, notwithſtanding the dreadful misfortune he had ſuffered. He raiſed a new army, and led his forces once more againſt the enemy. But he had loſt the veteran part of his forces, and his troops, new to the field, and almoſt ſtrangers to military diſcipline, were totally defeated at the deciſive battle of Landſcroon. Chriſtian was now in no condition of facing the enemy, and his allies having abandoned a cauſe which they conſidered as deſperate, he was obliged, in 1679, to ſign a treaty of peace on the terms preſcribed by France. The love of glory, however, would not ſuffer Chriſtian to abandon his military projects; and being incapable of carrying on the operations of war unaſſiſted, he became a ſubſidiary ally to Lewis XIV. who then threatened Europe with ſlavery. This treaty with the French monarch enabled him to purſue the ſchemes he had formed againſt Holſtein, Hamburgh, and other northern powers; but before any thing of importance could be effected, Chriſtian, after a vaſt variety of treating and fighting with the Hollanders, Hamburghers, and other northern powers, ended his life in the year 1699.

Frederic IV. aſcended the throne on the death of his father, and, like his predeceſſors, maintained his pretenſions to the duchy of Holſtein. He laid ſiege to Tonningen, and would probably have taken the place, had not the Engliſh and Dutch fleets forced him to abandon the enterprize. In the mean time Charles XII. of Sweden, then only 16 years of age, landed in Zealand, within eight miles of Copenhagen, in order to make a diverſion in favour of his brother-in-law, the duke of Holſtein. Charles purſued the war with that rapidity which conſtituted his character, and would, in all probability, have taken the capital of Denmark, had not his Daniſh majeſty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was greatly in the duke's favour. By another treaty, concluded with the States-General, Charles obliged himſelf to furniſh a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and afterwards did great ſervice againſt the French in the war between the allies and Louis XIV.

This, however, did not prevent Frederic from being continually engaged in diſputes with the Swedes; and, taking the advantage of the misfortunes of Charles, he made a deſcent on Swediſh Pomerania, another upon Bremen, and took the city of Stadt. But his troops were totally defeated at Gadeſbuſch, by the Swedes, who laid his favourite city of Altena in aſhes. Frederic had however ſoon after an opportunity of revenging the affront he had received. He made himſelf maſter of great part of Holſtein, and obliged count Steinbock, the Swediſh general, to ſurrender himſelf priſoner, with all his troops. He purſued his victories with ſuch ſucceſs, that in the year 1716 his allies began to ſuſpect that he intended to uſurp the crown of all Sandinavia. Charles now returned from his exile, and carried on the war with great vigour and a moſt embittered ſpirit againſt Frederic; but being killed at the ſiege of Frederickſhall, his Britannic majeſty offered his mediation for a peace, which Frederic durſt not refuſe. Accordingly a treaty was concluded at Stockholm, by which Frederic obtained the duchy of Sleſwick. He died in 1730, leaving the crown to his ſon Chriſtian Frederic, or Chriſtian VI. who made no other uſe of his power, than that of cultivating peace with all his neighbours, and in promoting the happineſs of his ſubjects. He aboliſhed a grievous monopoly eſtabliſhed by his father, relating to the ſale of wine, brandy, and tobacco. He terminated an old diſpute between the crown of Denmark and the city of Hamburgh, by which he obtained ſeveral valuable conceſſions in favour of his people, beſides a million of marks of ſilver. He inſtituted a council of trade, to examine all propoſals for the extenſion and encouragement of commerce: he invited artiſts and workmen from foreign countries, and eſtabliſhed manufactures at his own expence: he maintained a reſpectable fleet and army; and that theſe might not be burthenſome to his ſubjects, he, from time to time, concluded ſubſidiary treaties with foreign powers, by which his finances were always in a flouriſhing condition. In a word, he acted on all occaſions with equal fortitude and diſcretion, as a great king, a wiſe politician, and a prince who had always at heart the intereſts of his people. He died in 1746, much regretted by his ſubjects.

Frederic V. ſon and ſucceſſor of Chriſtian VI. improved upon his father's plan, for the happineſs of his people: but took no active part in the German war, being only a mediator between the contending powers; and by his intervention the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven was concluded between his royal highneſs William, late duke of Cumberland, and the French general Richlieu. He married the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to his Britannic majeſty George II. by whom he had a ſon, his preſent Daniſh majeſty: he afterwards, on the death of his firſt queen, married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwick-Wolfenbattle. He died in 1766, and was ſucceeded by his ſon.

Chriſtian VII. the preſent king of Denmark and Norway, L. L. D. and F. R. S. who was born Jan. 29, 1749; married, in 1766, to the princeſs Caroline-Matilda, youngeſt ſiſter of his preſent Britannic majeſty; and has iſſue Frederic, prince royal of Denmark, born Jan. 28, 1768; and Louiſa-Auguſta, born July 7, 1771. The reign of this young monarch opened auſpiciouſly; but was afterwards darkened by a fatal event, that occaſioned much aſtoniſhment to all Europe, and which is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the preſent king, who has a ſon named Frederic, and whom ſhe is repreſented as deſirous of raiſing to the throne. She poſſeſſes a great deal of diſſimulation; and when the princeſs Caroline-Matilda came to Copenhagen, ſhe

ſhe received her with all the appearance of friendſhip and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the ſame time telling her, that ſhe would take every opportunity, as a mother, to aſſiſt her in reclaiming him. By this conduct, ſhe became the young queen's confidante, whilſt at the ſame time, it is ſaid, ſhe placed people about the young king, to keep him conſtantly engaged in all kinds of riot or debauchery, to which ſhe knew he was naturally too much addicted: and it was at length ſo ordered that a miſtreſs was thrown in the king's way, whom he was perſuaded to keep in his palace.

When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager uſed frequently to viſit the young queen Matilda; and, under the maſk of friendſhip and affection, told her often of the debaucheries and exceſſes which the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and France, and often perſuaded her not to live with him. But as ſoon as the king returned, the queen reproached him with his conduct, though in a gentle manner, his mother-in-law immediately took his part, and endeavoured to perſuade the king to give no ear to her counſels, as it was preſumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king.

Queen Matilda now began to diſcover the deſigns of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon very good terms with the king, who for a time was much reclaimed. The young queen alſo now aſſumed to herſelf the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with, in the management of public affairs. This ſtung the old queen to the quick; her thoughts were now entirely occupied with ſchemes of revenge, "and who is able to ſtand before envy?" But her views of this kind appeared the more difficult to carry into execution, becauſe the king had diſplaced ſeveral of her friends who were about the court, who had been increaſing the national debt in times of profound peace, and who were rioting on the ſpoils of the public. However, ſhe at length found means to gratify her revenge in a very ample manner. We ſhall give the particulars of this unfortunate affair in the words of an intelligent gentleman, who made very minute inquiries concerning it, of the moſt cool and diſpaſſionate Danes, and wrote this narrative in the city of Copenhagen.

"I have," ſays this gentleman, "made it my endeavour, ſince my arrival here, to gain the moſt authentic and unprejudiced intelligence reſpecting the late celebrated, and unhappy favourite count Struenſee, and the late extraordinary revolution which expelled a queen from her throne and kingdom, and brought the miniſters to the ſcaffold. Struenſee had not any noble blood in his veins, nor, conſequently, any hereditary and preſcriptive title to the immediate guidance of affairs of ſtate. Fortune, and a train of peculiar circumſtances coinciding with his own talents and addreſs, ſeem to have drawn him from his native mediocrity of condition, and placed him in an elevated rank. He originally practiſed phyſic at Altena, on the Elbe, and afterwards attended the preſent king of Denmark, on his travels into England, in quality of phyſician. On his return he advanced by rapid ſtrides, in the royal favour; and ſeems to have eminently poſſeſſed the powers of pleaſing, ſince he became equally the favourite of both king and queen. He was inveſted with the order of St. Matilda, inſtituted in honour of her majeſty, created a count, and poſſeſſed unlimited miniſterial power; his conduct, in this ſudden and uncommon eminence, marks a bold and daring mind, perhaps I might add, an expanded and patriotic heart. Unawed by the precarious tenure of courtly greatneſs, and more peculiarly of his own, he began a general reform. The ſtate felt him through all her members; the finances, chancery, army, navy, nobles, peaſants, all were ſenſible of his influence. He not only dictated, but penned his replies to every important queſtion or diſpatch; and a petition, or a ſcheme of public import and utility, rarely waited two hours for an anſwer. At preſent, I am told, you may be two months without receiving any.

"The civil judicature of this capital was then veſted in 30 magiſtrates. Struenſee ſent a meſſage to this tribunal, demanding to know the annual ſalary or penſion annexed to each member. Rather alarmed at this inquiry, they ſent an anſwer, in which they diminiſhed their emoluments near two-thirds, and eſtimated them at 1500, inſtead of 4000 rix-dollars. The count then informed them, that his majeſty had no further occaſion for their ſervices; but, in his royal munificence and liberality, was graciouſly pleaſed to continue to them the third part of their avowed incomes as a proof of his ſatisfaction with their conduct. He, at the ſame time, conſtituted another court compoſed only of ſix perſons of integrity, to whom the ſame power was delegated. He proceeded to purge the chancery and other bodies of the law. Then entering on the military department, he, at one ſtroke, broke all the horſe-guards, and afterwards the regiment of Norwegian foot-guards, the fineſt corps in the ſervice, and who were not diſbanded without a ſhort, but very dangerous ſedition. Still proceeding in this ſalutary, but moſt critical and perilous atchievement, he ultimately began to attempt a diminution of the nobles, and to ſet the farmers and peaſants at perfect liberty: no wonder that he fell a victim to ſuch meaſures; and that all parties joined in his deſtruction. Theſe were his real crimes, and not that he was too acceptable to the queen, which only formed a pretext. It was the miniſter, and not the man, who had become obnoxious. I do not pretend, in the latter capacity, either to excuſe, or condemn him; but, as a politician, I rank him with the Clarendons and Mores, whom tyranny, or public buſineſs, and want of virtue, have brought, in almoſt every age, to an untimely and ignominious exit, but to whoſe memory impartial poſterity have done ample juſtice. Yet I muſt avow, that though I cannot think Struenſee made a bad uſe, yet he certainly made a violent and imprudent one of his extenſive power. He ſeems, if one may judge by his actions, to have been intoxicated with royal favour, and ſuch accumulated honours; and not to have adverted ſufficiently to the examples which hiſtory furniſhes of Wolſeys in former days, and of Choiſeuls in modern times, who moſt ſtrikingly evince the ſlippery foundation of political grandeur. When he was even preſſed, only a ſhort time before his ſeizure, to withdraw from court and paſs the Belts, with the moſt ample ſecurity for his annual remitment of forty, fifty, or even an hundred thouſand dollars, an unhappy faſcination detained him, in defiance of every warning, and reſerved him for the priſon and the block. The queen-dowager and prince Frederic were only the feeble inſtruments to produce this cataſtrophe, as being, by their rank, immediately about the perſon of the ſovereign, though common report has talked loudly of the former's intrigue, and attributed it to her imaginary abilities. The only mark of capacity, or addreſs, they exhibited, was in preſerving a ſecrecy which deluded Struenſee, and the queen Matilda, till the time of their being arreſted. I have been aſſured, that on the laſt levee-day preceding this event, the count was habited with uncommon magnificence, and never received greater homage, or court ſervility, from the crowd, than when on the verge of ruin. On the night fixed for his ſeizure, there was a bal paré, or maſked ball, in the palace. The queen,

after dancing, as uſual, one country dance with the king, gave her hand to Struenſee during the reſt of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. The moment was now come; the queen-dowager, and her ſon prince Frederic, haſtened to the king's private chamber, where he was already in bed. They kneeled down beſide him, and implored him with tears and expoſtulations, to ſave himſelf and Denmark from impending deſtruction, by arreſting thoſe whom they called the authors of it. It is ſaid the king was not eaſily induced to ſign the order, but did it with reluctance and heſitation. At length their entreaties prevailed, and he affixed his ſign manual to the paper. Colonel Koller Banner inſtantly repaired to Struenſee's apartment, which, as well as Brandt's, was in the palace: they were both ſeized at nearly the ſame inſtant, and, as all defence was vain, hurried away immediately to the citadel. When count Struenſee ſtepped out of the coach, he ſaid, with a ſmile, to the commandant, "I believe you are not a little ſurpriſed at ſeeing me brought here as a priſoner." "No, and pleaſe your excellence," replied the old officer bluntly, "I am not at all ſurpriſed, but, on the contrary, have long expected you." It was five o'clock in the morning when count Rantzaw came to the door of her majeſty's ante-chamber, and knocked for admittance. One of the women about the queen's perſon was ordered to wake her, and give her information that ſhe was arreſted: they then put her into one of the king's coaches, drove her down to Elſineur, and ſhut her up in the caſtle of Cronenburg.—Mean while they dreaded an inſurrection in Copenhagen; every military precaution was taken to prevent it; the moſt infamous and ſilly reports were circulated among the populace, to render the ſtate priſoners odious: that they had put poiſon into the king's coffee to deſtroy him; that they intended to declare him incapable of governing; to ſend the dowager-queen Juliana out of the kingdom, as well as her ſon prince Frederic, and to proclaim Matilda regent. To confirm theſe extraordinary and contradictory reports, the king himſelf, and his brother, appeared in a ſtate coach, and paraded through the city, to ſhew himſelf unhurt, and as if eſcaped from the moſt horrid conſpiracy. During theſe tranſactions, Struenſee and Brandt were detained in the moſt rigorous impriſonment. They loaded the former with very heavy chains about his arms and legs, and he was at the ſame time fixed to the wall by an iron bar. I have ſeen the room, and can aſſure you it is not above 10 or 12 feet ſquare, with a little bed in it, and a miſerable iron ſtove; yet here, in this abode of miſery, did he, though chained, complete, with a pencil, an account of his life and conduct, as miniſter, which is penned, as I have been aſſured, with uncommon genius."

After this, the government ſeemed to be entirely lodged in the hands of the queen-dowager and her ſon, ſupported and aſſiſted by thoſe who had the principal ſhare in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant, whoſe perſon and name it was neceſſary occaſionally to make uſe of. All the officers who had been inſtrumental in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almoſt total change took place in all the departments of adminiſtration. A new council was appointed, in which prince Frederic preſided, and a commiſſion of eight members, to examine the papers of the priſoners, and to commence a proceſs againſt them. The ſon of queen Matilda, the prince royal, who was entered into the fifth year of his age, was put into the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governeſs, under the ſuperintendency of the queen-dowager.

The two counts were beheaded on the 28th of April 1772, having their right hands previouſly cut off; and their ſculls and bones are yet expoſed on wheels, about a mile and a half from the metropolis. Many of their friends and adherents, eighteen of whom had been impriſoned, were ſet at liberty. Struenſee at firſt had abſolutely denied having any criminal intercourſe with the queen, but this he afterwards confeſſed; and though he is ſaid by ſome to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt in this reſpect were eſteemed notorious, and his confeſſions full and explicit.

In the following May, his Britannic Majeſty ſent a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips to convoy the unfortunate princeſs to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell, in his electoral dominions, for the place of her future reſidence. She died there of a malignant fever, on May 10, 1775, aged 23 years and 10 months. In 1780, his Daniſh Majeſty acceded to the armed neutrality propoſed by the empreſs of Ruſſia. He appears at preſent to have ſuch a debility of underſtanding, as to diſqualify him for the proper management of public affairs.

On the 16th of April 1784, another revolution took place in Denmark. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auſpices of the prince royal, ſome of the former old members reſtored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the future to any inſtrument, unleſs ſigned by the king, and counterſigned by his royal highneſs prince Frederic, his ſon, heir apparent to the throne of Denmark.

The conduct of this prince is ſtamped with that conſiſtence of behaviour, which enables him to purſue, with unremitting zeal, the prudent and benevolent meaſures which he has planned for the benefit of his grateful country. The reſtoration of the peaſantry to their long-loſt liberty, and the abolition of many grievances under which they laboured, have already been mentioned. To theſe may be added the exertions he makes for the general diffuſion of knowledge; the patronage he affords to ſocieties of learning, arts, and ſcience; the excellent meaſures he has adopted for the ſuppreſſion of beggars, with whom the country was over-run, and the encouragement of induſtry, by the moſt extenſive inquiries into the ſtate of the poor throughout the kingdom; the wiſe regulations he has introduced into the corn trade, equally beneficial to the landed intereſt and to the poor; and the judicious laws, which under his influence have been made to encourage foreigners to ſettle in Iceland. The princeſs of Heſſe Caſſel, his conſort, is ſaid to poſſeſs the moſt amiable diſpoſitions and goodneſs of heart.

Count Schimmelmann, miniſter of ſtate, finances, and commerce, has the merit of accompliſhing the abolition of the ſlave-trade among the ſubjects of Denmark. His plan was approved by the king on the 22d of February, 1792, and is to be gradual; and in 1803, all trade in negroes is to ceaſe on the part of Daniſh ſubjects. The diſintereſtedneſs of this miniſter, who poſſeſſes large eſtates in the Daniſh Weſt India iſlands, recommends his exertions to greater praiſe. The above ordinance does not ſeem to have cauſed any diſcontent in Denmark among the Weſt India merchants; and it is not thought it will cauſe any in the iſlands.

A ſcheme for defraying the national debt has been ſuggeſted and followed. One million has already been diſcharged.

Chriſtian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; in 1756 he was married to the princeſs Carolina-Matilda of England; and has iſſue, 1. Frederic, prince-royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768, and married in 1790, to the princeſs Mary-Anne-Frederica,

Frederica, of Heſſe. 2. Louiſa-Auguſta, princeſs-royal, born July 7, 1771, and married May 27, 1786, to Frederic, prince of Sleſwick-Holſtein, by whom ſhe has iſſue.

Brothers and ſiſters to the king. 1. Sophia Magdalene, born July 3, 1746; married to the late king of Sweden, Guſtavus III.—2. Wilhelmina, born July 10, 1747; married Sept. 1, 1764, William, the preſent prince of Heſſe-Caſſel.—3. Louiſa, born Jan. 30, 1750; married Aug. 30, 1766, Charles, brother to the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel.—4. Frederic, born Oct. 28, 1753.

CHAP. V.

LAPLAND.

Name, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Subdiviſions, Climate, Soil, Mountains, Rivers, Foreſts, Vegetables, Animal and Mineral Productions, &c.

THE natives of this country were called Scritofinni by the ancients, by whom the appellation of Lapland, or Lappia, was unknown. They originally inhabited Failand, from whence they were driven more northward, after which they were called Lappes, which, in the Finick tongue, ſignified exiles driven to the moſt remote place. The natives, of courſe, deeming that appellation opprobrious, call themſelves Sabmienladfi.

This country is divided into ſix provinces, viz, 1. Angermanland-Lapmark; 2. Uma-Lapmark; 3. Pitha-Lapmark; 4. Lula-Lapmark; 5. Torno-Lapmark; and 6. Kima-Lapmark.

The known part of Lapland extends from the North Cape, in 71 deg. 30 min. north lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of it belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the moſt valuable; and ſome parts in the Eaſt, to the Muſcovites or Ruſſians, and are ſituated between the lake Eparak and the White Sea, being divided into three diſtinct prefectures, viz. that of the ſea-coaſt towards the north, called Mourmankoi Leporic, Jerſhoi Leporic, and Bellamoſeſkoi Leporic. But as the moſt conſiderable and beſt-peopled diviſion of this country belongs to the Swedes, we ſhall therefore begin with a deſcription of it.

Swediſh Lapland is bounded on the eaſt by Ruſſian Lapland; on the weſt by a ridge of mountains that ſeparate it from Norway; on the north by Daniſh Lapland; and on the ſouth by Bothnia, Angermania, and Septerland. Its greateſt extent, from eaſt to weſt, is about 360 miles; in breadth it extends from 65 deg. 33 min. to 69 deg. of north latitude. It is divided into ſix provinces, or diſtricts, the names of which, as above noticed, are the following; viz. Angermanland-Lapmark, Uma-Lapmark, Pitha-Lapmark, Lula-Lapmark, Torno-Lapmark, and Kima-Lapmark.

Each of theſe provinces receives its name from the chief river that waters it; they are again ſubdivided into ſmaller diſtricts called biars, and theſe contain a certain number of families, called by the Swedes reckars. Every reckar, or family, is allowed a conſiderable tract of land, with foreſts, lakes, and brooks, for the maintenance of their families and cattle; but their lands are not encloſed, ſo that the property of one is often converted to the uſe of others.

Lapland is ſituated ſo near the pole, that the ſun neither ſets in ſummer, or riſes in winter. In the latter ſeaſon, the cold is ſo intenſe, that none of the natives are able to bear it. The moſt rapid rivers are then frozen up, and the ice is two or three, and ſometimes four or five feet thick. In ſummer the weather is as ſultry as it is cold in winter; for autumn and ſpring are unknown in this climate. The exceſſive heat, however, is qualified by the vapours that riſe from the ſea, and by the ſnow that continues all the ſummer on the tops of the mountains, and in ditches that are ſheltered from the ſun. It ſeldom rains in the ſummer, but the whole country is covered with ſnow in winter.

The beſt deſcription of the climate of this country is given by M. Maupertuis, who, with ſeveral other aſtronomers, was ſent hither by order of the king of France, to diſcover the figure of the earth at the polar circle. "In December, ſays he, the ſnow continually falling, or ready to fall, for the moſt part hid the ſun the few moments he might have appeared at mid-day. In the month of January the cold was increaſed to that extremity, that M. Reaumur's mercurial thermometer, which, at Paris, in the great froſt of 1709, it was thought ſtrange to ſee fall to fourteen degrees below the freezing point, was now got down to thirty-ſeven. The ſpirits of wine in the others was frozen. If we opened the door of a warm room, the external air inſtantly converted all the vapour in it into ſnow, whirling it round in white vortices. If we went abroad, we felt as if the air was tearing our breaſts in pieces; and the cracking of the wood, of which the houſes are built, as if ſplit by the violence of the froſt, continually alarmed us with an increaſe of cold. In this country you may often ſee people who have loſt an arm or a leg by the froſt. The cold, which is always very great, ſometimes increaſes by ſuch violence and ſudden degrees, as are almoſt infallibly fatal to thoſe who are ſo unhappy as to be expoſed to it; and ſometimes there riſe ſudden tempeſts of ſnow that are ſtill more dangerous.

"The winds ſeem to blow from all quarters at once, and drive about the ſnow with ſuch fury, that all the roads are in a moment rendered inviſible. Dreadful is the ſituation of a perſon ſurpriſed in the fields by ſuch a ſtorm: his knowledge of the country, and even the mark he may have taken by the trees, cannot avail him; he is blinded by the ſnow, and, if he attempts to find his way home, is generally loſt. In ſhort, during the whole winter, the cold was ſo exceſſive, that on the 7th of April, at five in the morning, the thermometer was fallen to twenty diviſions below the point of freezing, though every afternoon it roſe two or three diviſions above it; a difference in the height not much leſs than that which the greateſt heat and cold felt at Paris uſually produce in that inſtrument. Thus in 24 hours we had all the variety felt in the temperate zones in the compaſs of a whole year."

In winter the nights are very cold, long, and tedious, yet thoſe inconveniences are, in ſome degree, obviated by the ſerenity of the ſky, the brightneſs of the moon and ſtars, and the refulgent light of the aurora borealis, which is reflected from the white ſurface of the earth covered with ſnow; from all which ſuch a light is produced, that the inhabitants are enabled to diſcharge their ordinary occupations. The above writer, in ſpeaking of theſe nocturnal lights, ſays, "The days are no ſooner cloſed than fires of a thouſand figures and colours light up the ſky, as if deſigned to compenſate for the abſence of the ſun. Theſe fires have not here, as in more ſouthern climates, any conſtant ſituation. Though a luminous arch is often ſeen fixed towards the north, they ſeem more frequently to poſſeſs the whole extent of the hemiſphere. Sometimes they begin in the form of a great ſcarf of bright light, with its extremities upon

upon the horizon, which, with a motion reſembling that of a fiſhing-net, glides ſoftly up the ſky, preſerving, in this motion, a direction nearly perpendicular to the meridian; and moſt commonly after theſe preludes, all the lights unite at the zenith, and form the top of a crown. Arcs, like thoſe ſeen in France towards the north, are here frequently ſituated towards the ſouth; and often towards both the north and ſouth at once. Their ſummits approach each other; the diſtance of their extremities widens towards the horizon. I have ſeen ſome of the oppoſite arcs, whoſe ſummits almoſt joined at the zenith; and both the one and the other have frequently ſeveral concentric arcs beyond it. Their tops are all placed in the direction of the meridian, though with a little declination to the weſt; which I did not find to be conſtant, and which is ſometimes inſenſible. It would be endleſs to mention all the different figures theſe meteors repreſent, and the various motions with which they are agitated. Their motion is moſt commonly like that of a pair of colours waved in the air, and to the different tints of their lights give them the appearance of ſo many vaſt ſtreamers of changeable taffety; ſometimes they line a part of the ſky with ſcarlet. On the eighteenth of December I ſaw a phenomenon of this kind, that, in the midſt of all the wonders to which I was now every day accuſtomed, raiſed my admiration. To the ſouth a great ſpace of the ſky appeared tinged with ſo lively a red, that the whole conſtellation of Orion looked as if it had been dipped in blood. This light, which was at firſt fixed, ſoon moved, and changing into other colours, violet and blue, ſettled into a dome, whoſe top ſtood a little to the ſouth-weſt of the zenith. The moon ſhone bright, but did not in the leaſt efface it. In this country, where there are lights of ſo many different colours, I never ſaw but two that were red; and ſuch are taken for preſages of ſome great misfortune. After all, when people gaze at theſe phenomena with an unphiloſophic eye, it is not ſurpriſing if they diſcover in them the appearance of armies engaged, fiery chariots, and a thouſand other prodigies.

For the moſt part, the ſoil of this country is exceeding bad, being ſo intermixed with ſtones, that hardly any thing will grow in it; but in ſome places it is very moiſt, owing to the number of marſhes and brooks with which it abounds. The whole country is alſo full of rocks and mountains. Thoſe called the Dofrine Mountains, which ſeparate Lapland from Norway, are of a prodigious height; and the high winds that blow there prevent all trees from taking root. Beneath theſe mountains are large marſhes and extenſive foreſts, where there are many trees, though they ſtand at a great diſtance from each other. At the bottom of the hills are pleaſant vallies, which are the moſt fertile parts of the country, being well watered by a great number of brooks and ſprings.

Many of the rivers riſe from the mountains of Norway, and fall into the Bothnian Gulph. The chief of theſe are the Uma, Lula, Rima, and Torna. The Uma is greatly increaſed by the waters that flow into it from the rivers Vendilor and Skialfre. The Lula and Rima are both very conſiderable, and are ſwelled, in their courſe, by a great number of leſſer ones. The torna receives 29 rivers, one of which is a Swediſh mile in breadth. When the ſnow melts, all theſe rivers over-flow their banks; and the chief part of them have ſtupendous cataracts. Beſides the rivers, here are alſo many lakes, which abound with various kinds of fiſh, as well as the rivers.

There are a great number of trees in the foreſts of Lapland, among which are the birch, pine, and fir. Some parts of it alſo produce the ſervice-tree, willow, poplar, elder, and the corneil. They have ſeveral ſorts of plants; but the moſt uſeful are the angelica and ſorrel, which are greatly eſteemed by the natives, who uſe them in their food. They have likewiſe different kinds of graſs, heath, and fern: but the moſt plentiful, as well as moſt uſeful vegetable, is the moſchus, or moſs, of which there are ſeveral ſpecies, either adhering to trees, or growing on the ſurface of the earth. The rein-deer is almoſt wholly ſuſtained by this vegetable, which, indeed, he prefers to all others, and without which he cannot ſubſiſt. The natives not only uſe it as forage for their cattle, but boil it in broth as a cordial and reſtorative. Here are alſo great quantities of berries, ſuch as black currants; the Norwegian mulberry, which grows upon a creeping plant, and is much eſteemed as antiſcorbutic; raſberries, cranberries, and bilberries. Juniper-berries are alſo very plentiful, and ſome of the trees grow to a conſiderable height.

The animals of this country are ſtags, bears, wolves, foxes of ſeveral colours, ſquirrels, ermines, martens, hares, glittens, beavers, otters, elks, and rein-deer; but the laſt of theſe is the moſt uſeful to the natives, who, without them, could not poſſibly preſerve their exiſtence; for theſe animals not only afford them food and garments, but alſo ſupply the place of horſes, and travel in thoſe parts where the latter animals would be entirely uſeleſs. The rein-deer is a kind of a ſtag, with large branched horns, the tops of which bend forward like a bow. He is larger, ſtronger, and ſwifter than the ſtag, and his hair changes colour according to the ſeaſon of the year. His hoofs are cloven and moveable, for which reaſon he ſpreads them abroad as he runs along the ſnow, to prevent his ſinking into it. The horns are very high, and divided into two branches near the root. On each horn are three branches, one above another, which are again ſubdivided into ſmaller ones, inſomuch that no horned beaſt whatever has the like, either for bulk, branches, or weight. The horns are of a light colour, and there are veins, or blood-veſſels, running along them, under which there are furrows. When the beaſt runs he lays theſe horns upon his back; but there are two branches that always hang over his forehead, and almoſt cover his face. Moſt of theſe animals are wild; but ſome of them are tame, and exceeding ſerviceable to the natives.

Thoſe rein-deer which are produced between a tame doe and a wild buck are not only the largeſt, but by far the ſtrongeſt. Theſe animals are of infinite uſe to the Laplanders, for without ſubjecting them to the leaſt expence, they ſupply them with almoſt every neceſſary of life. From theſe creatures they are furniſhed with milk and cheeſe, as alſo fleſh, which they lay up for winter ſtore. The ſkins afford caps, clothes, boots, ſhoes, bedding, thongs, and many other articles. The nerves and ſinews are twiſted into thread. Their bows and arrows are tipped with the bones, and their boxes inlaid with the horn, which is likewiſe formed into curious ſpoons, toys, and utenſils. Theſe creatures are likewiſe uſed as beaſts of draught or burthen, and, far from demanding any proviſion or provender, dig with their feet among the ſnow for the moſs, which they prefer to every other kind of food. The dogs here are very ſmall, not being above a foot in height. They turn up their tails, which are ſhort; and their ears ſtand erect, like thoſe of wolves. They are of a red colour, and in hunting are very ſerviceable.

In Lapland, the birds are ſwans, geeſe, ducks, lapwings, ſnipes, moſt ſorts of water-fowl, heath-cocks, ſtock-doves, woodcocks, and partridges. Beſides theſe, they have two kinds of fowl peculiar only to this country. The firſt is called the kniper,

and

and is a kind of ſnipe, black on the head, back, and wings; but the breaſt and belly are white. It has a long red beak, ſet with teeth, and ſhort red feet, reſembling thoſe of water-fowl. The other is called the loom, and is never ſeen on the ground, but either in the water, or flying. The partridges here are as white as ſnow, and, inſtead of feathers, their bodies are covered with a kind of wool. The rocks and mountains are frequented by eagles, hawks, falcons, kites, and birds of prey of various kinds.

The principal inſects here are flies, which, in the ſummer, are hatched in the moraſſes and woods, and are frequently ſo numerous as to obſcure the light of the day. They are venomous, and exceeding troubleſome, inſomuch that the rein-deer fly to the tops of the mountains for ſhelter, and the inhabitants move to the ſea-ſide, thoſe parts being the leaſt infeſted by theſe peſtilent vermin. Monſieur Maupertuis ſays, that, while he was here, the flies were ſo troubleſome, that even the Finland ſoldiers, who are counted the moſt hardy troops in the ſervice of Sweden, were obliged to cover their faces with the ſkirts of their coats from the attacks of theſe animals, which ſwarmed to ſuch a degree, that the moment a piece of fleſh appeared, it was blackened all over. Some of theſe flies are very large, with green heads, and, where-ever they ſtrike, draw blood from the ſkin.

In the rivers and lakes there is abundance of delicious ſalmon, which come from the Gulf of Bothnia; alſo trout, bream, and perch, all of which are of an amazing ſize, and exquiſite flavour.

Mines of ſilver, lead, and copper, together with excellent veins of iron, are in ſome of the diſtricts, but they are not at preſent worked to any conſiderable advantage, their ſituation being almoſt inacceſſible. In the diſtrict of Torno there is a vein of gold and ſilver mixed, another of lead and ſilver, and a third of copper; and here they have both copper works and a foundery. They have alſo furnaces in the province of Lula, where they melt the ſilver which they dig in that part of the country. Theſe mines, however, are only worked for a ſhort time in the ſummer, the climate being ſo ſevere for the principal part of the year, that the engines cannot work them.

Beautiful cryſtals of a prodigious ſize are found in the rivers and lakes; theſe are ſo hard and fine, that, when poliſhed, they appear like real diamonds. Here are likewiſe a great variety of curious ſtones, ſome of which bear the reſemblance of animals, trees, &c. When the natives find theſe, they place them in ſome conſpicuous place, and worſhip them as idols.

The generality of the Laplanders are remarkably ſhort in ſtature, not being above four feet and a half high, and ſome of them even under that ſize; the cauſe of which is attributed to the ſeverity of the climate, and the poorneſs of their living. They are, in general, very diſagreeably formed, having a large head, a broad forehead, hollow and bleared eyes, a ſhort and flat noſe, and a broad face, with ſhort, black, and rough hair. They have broad breaſts, ſlender waiſts, and ſmall legs; but they are ſtrong, hardy, and active, inſomuch that they will bear incredible fatigue, and it is remarked, that the ſtouteſt Norwegian is not able to bend the bow of a Laplander. The women, however, are much leſs homely than the men; and the complexions of ſome of them are delicate and florid.

With reſpect to their diſpoſitions, they are very honeſt and hoſpitable; but ſo timorous, that they will fly the moment they perceive a veſſel at ſea, or the leaſt footſtep of a ſtranger. They are naturally haſty and paſſionate, and, when once provoked, not eaſily appeaſed. They indulge themſelves in lazineſs to ſuch a degree, that they neither plough or ſow, but leave their ground totally uncultivated; neither will they ſeek for provender either by hunting or fiſhing, till they are compelled to it from mere neceſſity. It hath been obſerved, that when they have been tranſported to more moderate climates, they have ſoon died, though in their own country they live to a great age. It is no uncommon thing to ſee a Laplander, upwards of an hundred years of age, hunting, fowling, ſkaiting, and performing with the moſt aſtoniſhing agility the ſevereſt exerciſes.

The Lapland houſes, or rather huts, are made of pieces of timber or rafters, jointed together, and covered with turf, or the branches of pine trees and coarſe cloth. Some of them are built upon trees to prevent their being overwhelmed with ſnow, and to ſecure them from the wild beaſts. Their huts have two doors, at the leſſer of which no woman muſt enter, becauſe from thence the men go to hunt; and ſhould they meet the woman at going out, it would be conſidered as a bad omen. They have no other chimnies than a hole at the top of their huts, which ſerves to let the ſmoke out, and the light in. Their ſtore-houſes are built in trees, to ſecure their proviſions from bears and other beaſts of prey.

In ſummer, their dreſs conſiſts of a cloſe garment reaching to the middle of the legs, and faſtened round the waiſt with belts. They have not any linen, and their clothes are made of coarſe wool, of a dark grey colour. The richer ſort have their clothes of various colours, but red is the moſt univerſally eſteemed. At their girdles they hang a Norway knife and a pouch, the latter of which contains flints, matches, and tobacco, with other neceſſaries; the girdle itſelf being decorated with braſs rings and chains. Their night-caps are made of the ſkins of the bird-loom, with the feathers on; and their ſhoes of the ſkins of rein-deer, with the hair outwards. In winter they are totally caſed up in coats, caps, boots, and gloves, made of the rein-deer's ſkin, with the hair inwards. The women's apparel differs but little from that of the men: they hang to their girdles many rings, chains, toys, and knives, with a needle caſe, and other trifles. Their thread is made of the ſinews of rein-deer; and in winter they lie in their ſkins. In ſummer they all cover themſelves at night with large pieces of coarſe cloth, to ſecure them from being ſtung by the gnats and flies.

Theſe people make all their own furniture, boats, ſledges, bows and arrows. The boards with which they make their boats, are faſtened together with twigs, the nerves of rein-deer, or the ſmall roots of trees twiſted together like ropes; and they calk them with moſs to keep out the water. They make boxes of their birch planks, which they neatly inlay with the horns of rein-deer; and they are very dexterous at making baſkets of the roots of trees, ſlit in long thin pieces, and twiſted together. Some of theſe are made ſo neat that they will hold water; and the Swedes greatly admire them. Theſe articles are made by the men, who alſo perform the office of cook, by dreſſing victuals for the family.

The women are employed as taylors and embroiderers; they make clothes, ſhoes, and boots, and harneſs for the rein-deer: they ſpin thread with fur, and knit it into caps and gloves, which are very ſoft and warm: they likewiſe draw tin into wire through a horn, and with this they cover their thread, which they uſe in embroidering on their caps and girdles the figures of beaſts, flowers, ſtars, and the like.

Thoſe who inhabit the mountains live chiefly on the fleſh and milk of the rein-deer: the former

of which they dry, and from the latter they make great quantities of cheeſe. Thoſe who live in the low country feed on veniſon and fiſh. They have neither bread or ſalt; but inſtead thereof uſe the inner rind of the pine-tree, dried and ground, and dried fiſh reduced to powder. They make broth of fiſh and fleſh boiled together; and their uſual drink is water heated in a kettle, which in winter hangs continually over the fire: but their greateſt dainty is bear's fleſh, which they eat on all particular feſtivals. On theſe occaſions likewiſe they indulge themſelves with brandy, and never think themſelves ſo happy as when they can enjoy a pipe of tobacco. Theſe commodities the better ſort purchaſe at Norway, as alſo a few cows and ſheep for the winter ſtore. They make decoctions of berries, angelica, and ſorrel, which they are not only fond of, but alſo deem them excellent preſervatives againſt all diſorders of a ſcorbutic nature.

The Laplanders, beſides their domeſtic buſineſs, employ themſelves in hunting, in which excurſions they travel through the ſnow with aſtoniſhing expedition. They wear a pair of ſkaits, or ſnow ſhoes, which are made of fir boards, covered with the rough ſkin of the rein-deer: one of theſe is uſually as long as the perſon who wears it, but the other is about a foot ſhorter. The feet are placed near the middle, and the ſhoes are faſtened to them with ſtrings, or thongs made with the ſinews of the rein-deer. When the Laplander travels in this manner he carries a long pole in his hand, near the end of which is a round ball of wood; and this not only ſecures him from penetrating too deep into the ſnow, but alſo enables him to ſtop himſelf when there is occaſion. A Laplander will travel in his ſnow ſhoes at the rate of ſixty miles a day without being fatigued. But the moſt expeditious method of travelling in this country is with a ſledge drawn by rein-deer. This carriage, which is called by the natives pulkha, is made in the form of a ſmall boat, with a convex bottom, that it may ſlide the more eaſily over the ſnow; the head of it is ſharp and pointed, but the hinder part is quite flat. The traveller ſits, or rather lays with his back againſt the end of the ſledge, and holds a ſtick in his hand, with a large wooden ball at the end of it, with which he diſengages the ſledge from ſuch obſtructions as he may happen to meet with in the courſe of his journey. He muſt likewiſe take care properly to balance the carriage with his body, otherwiſe he will be ſubject to be overturned. The traces, by which the ſledge is faſtened to the rein-deer, are fixed to a collar about the animal's neck, and run down over the breaſt, between the fore and hind legs, to be connected with the prow of the ſledge; the reins are tied to the horns, and the trappings are furniſhed with little bells, the ſound of which is very pleaſing to the animal. The rein-deer is ſo fleet that he will run with his carriage upwards of 100 miles a-day. Before a Laplander ſets out on his journey, he whiſpers in the ear of the animal the way he is to go, and the place at which he is to halt, from a perſuaſion that the beaſt underſtands his meaning; but, in ſpite of this intimation, he frequently ſtops ſhort, and ſometimes over-ſhoots the mark by ſeveral miles. Though this method of travelling is exceedingly expeditious, yet it is far from being eaſy, the perſon being coutinually in a confined poſture; neither is it exempted from the moſt imminent danger, on account of the uncertainty of the roads, and the drifts of looſe ſnow, which, if the wind blows high, are driven about with incredible fury, and in prodigious quantities.

When the winter commences, the Laplanders mark the moſt frequented roads by ſtrewing them with fir-boughs. Indeed, theſe roads are no other than pathways made through the ſnow by the rein-deer and ſledges: their being frequently covered with new ſnow, and alternately beaten by the carriage, conſolidates them into a kind of cauſeway, which is the harder if the ſurface has felt a partial thaw, and been cruſted by a ſubſequent froſt. It requires great caution to follow theſe tracks; for if the carriage runs either on one ſide or the other, the traveller is thrown into an abyſs of ſnow. In leſs frequented parts, where there is no ſuch beaten road, the Laplander directs his courſe by certain marks which he has made on the trees; but, notwithſtanding all his caution, the rein-deer very often ſinks up to his horns in ſnow; and ſhould a hurricane ariſe, which is ſometimes the caſe, the traveller would be in great danger of his life, were he not provided with a kind of tent, to ſcreen him in ſome meaſure from the fury of the tempeſt. But the rein-deer in winter is rather weak and diſpirited, ſo that he cannot travel with the ſame alacrity as in ſummer. In this ſeaſon the traveller is obliged to halt at different times, that the animal may reſt himſelf; and in theſe intervals be fed with a kind of cake made of moſs and ſnow, which ſerves him for drink and provender at the ſame time.

The chief employment of the Laplanders, excluſive of their domeſtic affairs, conſiſts in hunting and fiſhing. Thoſe who practiſe the latter have ſmall boats, ſo lightly conſtructed that they can carry them on their ſhoulders, which they frequently do, when interrupted on the rivers by whirlpools or cataracts. The boats are of different ſizes, from two to ſix yards in length, managed with oars, and calked with moſs ſo tight, as effectually to keep out the water. They ſteer with amazing rapidity, even among the rocks, and down the moſt rapid water falls; but when they go againſt the ſtream, and meet with a cataract, they take out their boat, and carry it on their ſhoulders, till they have paſſed it, when they launch it again, and proceed on their way.

Such as employ themſelves in hunting, perform it various ways. In ſummer, they hunt wild beaſts with ſmall dogs trained to the diverſion. In winter; they purſue them by their tracks upon the ſnow; ſkaiting with ſuch velocity, that they frequently run down their prey. They catch ermines in traps, and ſometimes with dogs. They kill ſquirrels, martens, and ſables, with blunt darts, to avoid injuring the ſkins. Foxes and beavers are killed with ſharp pointed darts and arrows, in ſhooting of which they are accounted the beſt markſmen in the world. The larger beaſts, ſuch as bears, wolves, elks, and wild rein-deer, they either kill with fire arms, or elſe enſnare by digging pits in places moſtly reſorted to by thoſe creatures.

The Laplanders have particular laws relative to the chace, which they obſerve with great punctuality. The beaſt becomes the property of the man in whoſe ſnare or pit he is caught; and he who diſcovers a bear's den has the excluſive privilege of hunting him to death. The conqueſt of a bear is the moſt honourable achievement that a Laplander can perform; and the fleſh of this animal they think more delicious than that of any other whatever. The bear is always diſpatched with a fuſil, ſometimes laid as a ſnare, ready cocked and primed; but more frequently by the hands of the hunter, who, on miſſing his aim, would run the moſt imminent danger of his life.

Theſe people celebrate the killing a bear with great rejoicings. The carcaſe is drawn to the cabin or hut of the victor, by a rein-deer, which, on this account, is afterwards kept a whole year without doing any work. The bear is ſurrounded by a great number of men, women, and children, who recite a particular ſong of triumph, in which they thank

thank the vanquiſhed enemy for having allowed himſelf to be overcome, without doing any miſchief to his conqueror: after this they addreſs themſelves to Providence, acknowledging the ſingular benefits they receive from his having created beaſts for their uſe, and endowed them with ſtrength and courage to attack and overcome them. The conqueror is ſaluted by the women, and is feaſted by the men of the village for three ſucceſſive days; beſides which, he is ever after diſtinguiſhed from the reſt, by having laces wrought with tin ware round his cap.

Nuptial ceremonies among the Laplanders are very remarkable and ludicrous. When a young man has made choice of a female, he employs ſome friends as mediators with the girl's parents; and theſe being provided with ſome bottles of brandy, the ſuitor accompanies them to the hut of his intended father-in-law, who invites the mediators to enter: but the ſuitor is left without, until the liquor be drank, and the propoſal diſcuſſed. After this he is called in, and entertained with ſuch fare as the hut affords, but without ſeeing his miſtreſs, who, on this occaſion, is obliged to retire. The ſuitor having at length obtained leave to make his addreſſes to the girl in perſon, he goes home, puts on his beſt attire, and then returns to the hut, when his miſtreſs appears, and he ſalutes her with a kiſs; after which he preſents her with the tongue of a rein-deer, a piece of beaver's fleſh, or ſome other kind of proviſion. The girl at firſt declines the offer, it being made in the preſence of her relations; but at the ſame time ſhe makes a ſignal to the lover to follow her into the fields, where ſhe accepts the preſents. Thus encouraged, he begs permiſſion of her to let him ſleep with her in the hut; if ſhe conſents, ſhe keeps the preſents; but if not, ſhe throws them with contempt on the ground.

When the lovers are agreed, the youth is permitted to viſit his miſtreſs as often as he thinks proper; but every time he comes he muſt purchaſe this pleaſure with a freſh bottle of brandy, a perquiſite ſo agreeable to the father, that he often poſtpones the celebration of the nuptials for two or three years. At length the ceremony is performed at the neareſt church, by the prieſt of the pariſh; but even after this, the huſband is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law a whole year, at the expiration of which he retires to his own habitation with his wife, and then receives preſents from all his relations and friends. From this time he ſequeſters his wife from the company of all ſtrangers of the male ſex, and watches over her conduct with a jealous eye.

In Lapland, as ſoon as a child is born, it is waſhed all over with ſnow or cold water, except the head, which muſt not be touched with water till after the child has been baptized. The woman does not remain in child-bed above four or five days, and in fourteen is generally quite recovered. She then carries the child to be baptized; but before ſhe can reach the reſidence of the prieſt, ſhe is often obliged to traverſe large foreſts, mountains, lakes, and wide extended waſtes of ſnow. The infant is faſtened in a hollowed piece of wood, ſtretched naked on a bed of fine moſs, covered with the ſkin of a young rein-deer, and ſlung by two ſtraps to the back of the mother, who always ſuckles her own child. At home this little cradle is hung to the roof of the hut, and the child is lulled to ſleep by ſwinging it from one ſide to the other. When the children grow up, their parents are very careful in teaching them moſt kinds of work; but they have a great averſion to ſchools. The boys, from their infancy, are taught to practiſe the bow; and they are not allowed to break their faſt till they have hit the mark. The girls are early initiated in the buſineſs peculiar to females.

There are no phyſicians among the Laplanders; neither have they, indeed, occaſion for any, not being ſubject to thoſe diſtempers common in other countries. The diſorder they are moſt ſubject to is ſore eyes, occaſioned by the ſmoke of their huts, and the fire to which they are almoſt continually expoſed. They are ſometimes afflicted with rheumatic pains, and the ſcurvy; and a few are ſubject to the vertigo and apoplexy. To cure all inward diſorders they uſe a drink made with the root of a certain ſpecies of moſs, which they call *jerth*; and when that cannot be procured, they boil the ſtalk of angelica in the milk of rein deer. When they feel a pain in any part of the body, they take a kind of muſhroom, which grows upon the birch-tree like a cake, and having ſet fire to it, apply it, burning hot, to the part affected; and this produces a bliſter, which is ſuppoſed to draw off the pecant humour. They have no other plaiſters for wounds, but the roſin which drops from fir-trees. When they have any limb frozen, the put a red hot iron into a cheeſe made of rein-deer's milk, and with the fat that drops from it, like a kind of oil, they rub the part affected, which is almoſt inſtantly cured by that means.

When a native of this country is ſuppoſed to be on his death-bed, ſuch friends as are advocates for the Chriſtian religion, give him Chriſtian exhortation. But thoſe who have no great zeal for the Chriſtian religion, forſake the dying perſon, and think of nothing but the funeral entertainment. As ſoon as the breath is out of the body, moſt of the company leave the hut, being of opinion they ſhall receive ſome injury from the ſpirit or ghoſt, which they believe remains with the corps, and takes all opportunities of doing miſchief to the living. The deceaſed is wrapped up in linen or woollen, according to his circumſtances, and depoſited in a coffin by a perſon ſelected for that purpoſe; but this office he will not perform till he receives a conſecrated braſs ring, which is placed on his left arm, and which he imagines ſecures him againſt receiving any injury from the ghoſt of the deceaſed perſon.

The Laplanders, before they embraced the Chriſtian religion, uſed to bury their dead in the firſt place they happened to think of, which they ſtill do when they are very far from any church. Many of them alſo preſerve the rites of heatheniſh ſuperſtition; for with the body they put in the coffin an axe, a flint and ſteel, a flaſk of brandy, ſome dried fiſh, and veniſon. With the axe the deceaſed is ſuppoſed to hew down the buſhes or boughs that may obſtruct him in the other world; the ſteel and flint are to furniſh him with a light, ſhould he find himſelf in the dark; and the proviſion is for him to ſubſiſt on during his journey thither.

Previous to the body being carried to the place of interment, the friends of the deceaſed, kindle a fire of fir boughs near the coffin, and expreſs their ſorrow in tears and lamentations. They walk in proceſſion ſeveral times round the body, demanding, in a whining tone, the reaſon of his leaving them on earth. They aſk whether he was out of humour with his wife? whether he was in want of meat, drink, clothing, or other neceſſaries? and whether he had not ſucceeded in hunting or fiſhing? Theſe, and other ſuch interrogatories, are intermingled with groans and hideous howlings; and between them the prieſt ſprinkles the corpſe and the mourners alternately with holy water. After theſe ceremonies are over, the body is conveyed to the place of interment, in a ſledge drawn by a rein-deer, and followed by the friends and relations, who ſhew their concern for the loſs of

the deceaſed, by dreſſing themſelves in the worſt garments they have, and keeping a continual howl during the proceſſion. As ſoon as the ceremony is over, the people retire; and the ſledge, with the clothes which belonged to the deceaſed, are left as the Prieſt's perquiſite.

Three days after the funeral, the relations and friends of the deceaſed are invited to an entertainment, where they eat the fleſh of the rein-deer which conveyed the corpſe to the grave. The animal being made a ſacrifice to the ghoſt of the deceaſed, the bones of it are collected together, put into a baſket, and interred with great ceremony. The effects of the deceaſed are divided between the brothers and ſiſters, the former having two-thirds, and the latter one; but the lands, lakes, and rivers, are held jointly by all the children of both ſexes, according to the diviſion made by Charles IX. of Sweden, when he aſſigned to each family a certain tract of land for their ſupport.

The Lapland language is altogether barbarous, and varies in different parts of the country, according to the correſpondence which the natives maintain with the different nations; ſuch as Norwegians, Swedes, Finlanders, and Ruſſians. The greater part of them are totally ignorant of letters: and the ſame may be ſaid alſo of arts, except ſuch as neceſſity has taught them to make uſe of for their own preſervation and convenience.

With reſpect to religion, Chriſtianity is firſt ſuppoſed to have been introduced into Lapland about the year 1300. However, no material progreſs was made in the eſtabliſhment of it till the laſt century, when miſſionaries were ſent for that purpoſe from Norway, Sweden and Ruſſia. Several churches were built in different parts of the country, and ſupplied with miniſters from Sweden and Ruſſia. Guſtavus Adolphus founded two ſchools, one in the province of Pitha, and the other in that of Ulma, for inſtructing the children of the Laplanders in the Chriſtian religion and in letters. He alſo ordered ſeveral pious books to be tranſlated from the Swediſh into the Lapland language; ſuch as the catechiſm, with ſome prayers, and the manual, containing the Pſalms of David, the Proverbs of Solomon, &c. That they might be encouraged to ſend their children to ſchool, an annual revenue was allotted for the maintenance of the ſcholars. Hence Lapland produced ſome preachers, which greatly promoted the knowledge of Chriſtianity in that country; for, heretofore, their clergy having been Swedes, whoſe language the people did not underſtand, it could not be reaſonably ſuppoſed that they ſhould profit much by their inſtructions. Since that time, however, many have intermixed idolatry with the pure profeſſion of Chriſtianity, and, from local cuſtoms, their particular fondneſs for omens, particular times and ſeaſons, diſtinguiſhed by the names of black and white days, &c. retain many of their former ſuperſtitions. They have ſome notion of the doctrine of the tranſmigration of ſouls; for they not only reſpect the ghoſts of their departed relations and friends, but dread them as being miſchievous, till they imagine the ſpirits of the dead have re-animated other bodies. They believe there are fairies that wander about among the rocks, mountains, rivers, and lakes, and give them alſo a ſhare of their devotion.

They own one Supreme Being, whom they arm with thunderbolts; they make the rainbow his bow, and have the ſame notion of him that the old Pagans had of their Jupiter. They have another ſubordinate deity, to whom they acknowledge they owe all the bleſſings of life, and never fail to worſhip him. The ſun is another of their divinities, becauſe of his influence on the bodies of men and beaſts. They have temples and images conſecrated to each of their gods. Their idols are either the trunks of trees rudely carved, or of ſtone. One of theſe is preſerved in the royal cabinet of antiquaries at Upſal. All their women are excluded from worſhip. They anoint the idol with the heart's blood of the ſacrifice; and when they cannot reach the top of a mountain conſecrated to Storjunkar, one of their deities, they dip a ſtone in the blood of the ſacrifice, throw it up to the mountain, and conclude their devotion by that act.

Theſe people were formerly deemed great magicians, and the credulous ſuppoſed them to be mightily ſkilled in divination. So exceſſively credulous, indeed, are theſe poor Laplanders, and ſo prepoſterouſly attached to their conjurors, that they implicitly follow their directions. If theſe pretended wizards tell them, that on ſuch a day they ſhall take plenty of fiſh or game, they will not fail to go out that day; and as there is moſt commonly abundance of both in this country, they uſually verify the prediction, by coming home loaded whenever they go out in ſearch of game. And if the wizards mark another day as unfortunate, they infallibly make it ſo, by not going abroad in queſt of any.

Different governors, or prefects, are deputed, by the three powers to whom Lapland is now ſubject, to preſide over their reſpective diſtricts. The Laplanders, however, had kings of their own till the year 1277, when the Swedes conquered part of the country, and the Ruſſians and Norwegians ſoon after followed their example, and ſubdued the remaining part.

As Swediſh Lapland is the moſt conſiderable diſtrict of the three, the laws of Sweden are obſerved; and three tribunals, or courts of juſtice, are erected: one for Angermanland-Lapmark; a ſecond for Uma, Pitha, and Lula-Lapmark; and the third for Torno and Kima Lapmark; in each of which courts there is a prefect, who determines all cauſes. They adminiſter juſtice in the king's name, and in the preſence of the prieſt belonging to the diſtrict.

Such of the Laplanders as live near the mountains which part Norway from Sweden, trade with the inhabitants of thoſe countries. Others, who are at a greater diſtance from thoſe mountains, trade only with the Swedes; and they who are ſituated towards the north and eaſt, trade with the Ruſſians and Finlanders. The commodities they receive from thoſe nations are rix-dollars, woollen ſtuffs, linen, copper, tin, flour, ſalt, hides, needles, knives, ſpirituous liquors, and eſpecially tobacco, of which they are extremely fond. They give, in return, rein-deer and fiſh, of the latter of which they take ſuch large quantities, that they ſtock whole reſervoirs with them, and put them afterwards into barrels, which they carry to the neighbouring countries; namely, the north of Bothnia, and White Ruſſia. They alſo trade in fine ermines, the ſkins of ſeveral wild beaſts, dried pikes, and cheeſe made of the milk of their rein-deer.

Formerly, the tribute paid by the Laplanders, conſiſted in ſkins of wild beaſts; but now they conſiſt in a certain coin, rein-deer, and in ſkins, either dreſſed for certain uſes, or raw; and are proportionable to the extent of land poſſeſſed by each head of a family. The largeſt are ſtiled entire territories, or territories of a full tribute; and the owner is obliged to pay yearly two rix-dollars, in coin, to the crown of Sweden. They who poſſeſs a territory, or land of half a tribute, pay only one rix-dollar. But as it happens very often, that many of them have no rix-dollars, they are allowed to give ſkins of foxes or ſquirrels inſtead of coin. Fifty ſquirrel ſkins, or one fox's ſkin, with a pair of ſhoes, after the faſhion of Lapland, are valued at one rix-dollar: beſides which, every head of a

family is obliged to give yearly a white fox's ſkin, or a pair of ſhoes; and if he cannot procure thoſe things, he muſt give half a pound of dried pikes. Part of theſe taxes are employed for the maintenance of the prieſts, who live in that country, to inſtruct the Laplanders. The inhabitants of the other diſtricts of Lapland trade much in the ſame commodities; and pay the revenues in a ſimilar manner to the reſpective ſtates, under whoſe particular dominion they are.

The Laplanders have neither caſtles, bulwarks, nor garriſons, for the defence of their country: nor indeed is there occaſion for any, its frightful aſpect forming a more effectual barrier than all the fortifications of art garriſoned by innumerable armies of veteran ſoldiers; the judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable averſion to war, and, we believe, are never employed in any army. With reſpect to the ſecurity of their property, few diſputes happen.

CHAP. VI.

SWEDEN.

Extent, Boundaries, Climate, various Productions, Lakes, Soil, Beaſts, Birds, Fiſh, Minerals, and Mines. Account of a Deſcent into one, and the Manner of manufacturing the Iron.

THIS kingdom is ſituated between 56 and 69 deg. north lat. and between 10 and 30 deg. eaſt long. being 800 miles in length, and 500 in breadth; and is bounded on the ſouth, by the Baltic, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggerac; by the Daniſh or Norwegian Lapland, on the north; by Muſcovy, on the eaſt; and by the impaſſable mountains of Norway, on the weſt. Such a vaſt tract of country may naturally be ſuppoſed to contain a great number of inhabitants; but theſe bear a very ſmall proportion to the extent of Sweden, great part of it being rendered uninhabitable by ſeas, lakes, mountains, and marſhes.

It is divided into ſeven parts or provinces; viz. Sweden, properly ſo called, bounded by Norway and the gulf of Bothnia, Gothland, Livonia, Ingria, Finland, Swediſh Lapland, and the Swediſh iſlands. But it is neceſſary to obſerve, that Livonia and Ingria, though reckoned as part of Sweden, belong now to the Ruſſians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by poſterior treaties.

SWEDEN PROPER contains the following provinces; namely, Uplandia, Sudermania, Weſtmania, Nericia, Geſtricia, Helſingia, Dalecarlia, Medelpedia, Angermania, Jemptia.

Gothland contains Eaſt Gothland, Weſt Gothland, Smaland, Wermeland, Dalia, Schonen, Bleking, Halland.

Swediſh Lapland contains Thorne-Lapmark, Kimi-Lapmark, Lula-Lapmark, Pithia-Lapmark, Uma-Lapmark.

In Weſt Bothnia, the principal places are Umea, Pitea, and Tornea.

Finland contains Eaſt Bothnia, Cajania, Savoloxia, Nyland, Travaſtia, Finland Proper.

Gothland, Oeland, Aland, and Rugen, are the Swediſh iſlands.

The climate, air, and ſoil of Sweden, are pretty ſimilar to thoſe of Norway and Lapland, already deſcribed; for in this, as in the other countries, there is an uninterrupted day-light of ſeveral weeks in ſummer, which is proportionably defective in winter. Spring and autumn are not known; the ſun is ſo exceſſively hot in ſummer, as ſometimes to ſet foreſts on fire; and the winter is ſo intenſely cold, that the noſes and extremities of the inhabitants are frequently mortified; and in ſuch caſes, the beſt remedy that has been found out, is, rubbing the part affected with ſnow; they endeavour to mitigate the ſeverity of the weather, by ſtoves and warm furs.

The ſoil is much the ſame with that of Denmark, and ſome parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in ſome vallies ſurpriſingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not induſtry enough to remedy the one, or improve the other. But ſince the days of Charles XII. they have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenneſs of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in ſome places with great ſucceſs. The peaſants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and ſome late accounts ſay, that they raiſe almoſt as much grain as maintain the natives. In ſummer, a beautiful verdure, interſperſed with flowers, overſpreads the fields; currants, ſtrawberries, raſpberries, with other ſmall fruits, are produced ſpontaneouſly. Great plenty of pot-herbs and roots are reared in the kitchen-gardens. In dry ſeaſons, melons are brought to great perfection, and the orchards abound with cherries of different kinds, and of excellent flavour. Apples, pears, and plums are pretty ſcarce here; and the common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, pine-apples, and the like high-flavoured fruits.

In Sweden, the mountains are numerous, huge, and hoary; the principal among them are the Dofrine, which begin about Jemptland, and extend near four hundred Engliſh miles north. The face of the country is in a great meaſure overſpread by vaſt foreſts of fir, pine, alder, juniper, beech, birch, and ſome oak. Theſe trees grow ſo cloſe together, and ſuch a number of thoſe that fall are left to rot, that in many places the woods are entirely impaſſable. The timber is in general as good as that of Norway.

Their ſeas are the Baltic and the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the weſt of Sweden are the Categate ſea, and the Sound, a ſtreight about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark. Theſe ſeas have no tides, and are uſually frozen up four months in the year; nor are they ſo ſalt as the ocean, never mixing with it, becauſe a current ſets always out of the Baltic ſea into the ocean.

This country is watered by many navigable rivers, among which are the Lahla, Tornea, and Kima; but the chief of them is the Uma, which is augmented by many others.

The lakes in Sweden are of prodigious extent and depth, and are traverſed by the inhabitants in boats in the ſummer, and ſledges in the winter. The names of the principal of theſe are the Veller, the Wenner, and the Maeler. In the lakes, and along the ſea-coaſt, there are innumerable iſlands, of which ſix thouſand are inhabited, but the reſt are either bare rocks, or ſmall iſles covered with wood.

Sweden abounds with excellent mines of ſilver, many of copper, and vaſt numbers of iron. The principal of theſe is the great ſilver mine, into which workmen are let down in baſkets to the firſt floor, which is 105 fathoms under ground: the roof there is as high as a church, ſupported by vaſt arches of oak; thence the deſcent is, by ladders, or baſkets, to the loweſt mine, above 40 fathoms. They have no records ſo ancient as the firſt diſcovery either of this or the great copper mine, which muſt needs have been the work of many ages. The ore ſeldom yields above four per cent. and requires great pains to refine it. They are alſo at the charge of a water-mill to drain the

mines, and have the benefit of another to draw up the ore. This mine formerly produced between 20,000 and 30,000 of fine ſilver crowns, annually, and the king had a privilege in his favour, of being allowed to purchaſe whatever quantity he thought proper of it, and to pay one fourth leſs than the intrinſic value. A late traveller informs us, that this mine is, at preſent, much diminiſhed in value, by having been ſo greatly exhauſted. However, it may not be improper, in this place, to deſcribe the metal called ſilver, and the nature of the various ores from which it is produced.

Silver is a noble and perfect metal, of a white ſhining colour, ſonorous and ductile, but not ſo perfect as gold. It is ſometimes found in ſmall maſſes of many different ſhapes, but moſt commonly like filaments and ſcales in ſeveral ſorts of ſtones and moulds, and in many ſorts of land.

The Vitrean ſilver is of an irregular form, very weighty, and may be eaſily flatted with a hammer, for it is not much harder than lead, and is much of the ſame colour; for which reaſon it is often miſtaken for lead. It melts preſently, and ſoon grows red-hot. It conſiſts of ſulphur and pure ſilver, and above three quarters of it is ſilver. The horny ſilver ore is half tranſparent, and of a deeper yellow or brown colour, according as it conſiſts of larger or ſmaller lumps. It looks like roſin, and is of an irregular ſhape. When carefully examined, it appears to conſiſt of very thin plates. It is not very weighty or hard, for it may be eaſily ground, and when brought ſuddenly to the fire, it crackles, burſts, and exhales a ſulphureous ſmell, and ſometimes burſts lightly. This hard ſort contains two thirds of ſilver. The red ſilver ore is ſometimes of a lighter, and ſometimes of a deeper ſcarlet colour. The firſt caſe is tranſparent, like a garnet, and has been miſtaken for tranſparent cinnabar, and in the ſecond caſe it is of a deeper dye. It is heavier than the former horny ore, but burſts when brought near a candle or a mild fire, and the remaining part melts before it grows red-hot; then it emits a diſagreeable ſmell of arſenic, together with a thick ſmoke. It contains the ſame quantity of ſilver as the horny ore juſt mentioned.

The white ſilver ore is of a light grey colour, of an irregular figure, pretty weighty, and very brittle. It has not only copper in it, but ſometimes more of it than of ſilver, for it differs from the white copper ore in nothing but the quantity of ſilver it contains. Theſe are the principal ſilver ores hitherto known, though many others are looked upon by ſome as ſuch, becauſe they contain a conſiderable quantity of ſilver; but then there is always more of other metals along with them, therefore they cannot properly be called ſilver ores.

Silver is extracted from lead, by melting it in channels, made with aſhes in the furnace, and then blowing up the fire till it turns into glaſs, ſinks into the channels, and leaves the pure ſilver behind. It is harder than gold, but not ſo ductile, and is lighter than gold or lead, the weight, with regard to gold, being little leſs than five to nine. It will not ruſt, but will grow black by ſulphureous vapours, and will diſſolve in aqua fortis, but not in aqua regia. When it is mixed with common ſalt, and melted, it turns into a half tranſparent maſs like horn, which is hard to be brought back to ſilver again, becauſe it is volatile, and in a violent fire will all fly away. When ſilver is diſſolved in aqua fortis it may be cryſtallized, and the cryſtals are very corroſive, and of an exceeding bitter taſte. When applied to the ſkin, they leave an impreſſion like that of a burning coal, and make an eſcar of a black colour. The ſolution of ſilver will turn any think black, and therefore, when properly diluted, is often uſed to colour the hair. Theſe cryſtals will melt in a very moderate heat before they grow red, and form a blackiſh maſs: it is then proper for the uſe of ſurgeons, and is called the ſilver cauſtic.

The great copper mine is about 80 fathoms deep, of great extent, but ſubject to damages by the falling-in of the roof; yet that is ſometimes recompenſed by the abundance of ore which the ruined pillars yield, though moſt commonly the loſs is very great. The occaſion of theſe falls is aſcribed to the throwing the earth and ſtones, brought out of the mine, upon the ground over it; by which the pillars become overcharged, and give way. The reaſon of this is ſaid to be, that the profit ariſing to thoſe who are concerned is ſo little, that they are not able to work it off as they ought, and to remove the rubbiſh to a greater diſtance; and unleſs the king abates a conſiderable part of the profit ariſing to the crown from this mine, it is believed it will, in a few years, be at a ſtand, eſpecially if the deſigns of making copper, which are on foot elſewhere, take any tolerable effect. The copper yearly made out of this mine amounts to the value of about 200,000l. of which the king has a fourth part, not by way of preemption, but in kind; beſides which, he has upon the remainder a cuſtom of 25 per cent. when it is exported unwrought.

Several years ago a gentleman of Italy came into Sweden, with propoſals to make copper a ſhorter and cheaper way than had till then been practiſed, ſo as to make that in five days, which before required three weeks, and with one fifth part of the charcoal, and with fewer hands. The bargain was made, and his reward to be 100,000 crowns. The firſt eſſay he made ſucceeded to admiration; but when he came to work in earneſt, and had got his new ovens built to his mind, the miners, as he complained, picked out the very worſt ore, and were otherwiſe ſo envious and untractable, that he failed of ſucceſs, and loſt his reward, nor was it without difficulty that he obtained leave to buy ore, and practiſe his invention at his own charge.

Travellers tell us, this mine, in the laſt century, ſupplied the greateſt part of Europe with copper; but at preſent it is worked ſo very deep, that it is become extremely expenſive; and though the ore is uncommonly rich, the produce is conſiderably diminiſhed.

Copper is a hard, ignoble metal, ſofter than iron, and, when poliſhed, is of a ſhining reddiſh colour. It will melt in the fire, and is ſo ductile, that it may be beaten into exceeding thin leaves. It is more frequently found in its metallic form than iron, in various ſhapes, but its ore never diſtinguiſhes itſelf by any certain figure, for it is almoſt always irregular. But the fineſt colours of any kind, except the red and tranſparent, moſt commonly betray the preſence of copper; for this reaſon there is hardly any copper ore that is not mixed with iron, in a larger quantity than the ores of other metals commonly are. However, there is not ſo much in ſome as in others; and thoſe that contain the leaſt iron, are naturally more eaſily melted than the reſt. The vitreous copper ore is of a darkiſh violet ſky colour, like that of a piece of ſteel that has touched a red-hot iron. It is very heavy, and of a moderate hardneſs, but commonly variegated with ſpots and grey veins. One hundred weight of this ore contains from 50 to 80 pounds of copper. The azure copper ore is of a moſt beautiful blue colour, not ſoft, but very heavy, and, when broken, ſhines like blue glaſs. This is moſt free from iron, arſenic, and ſulphur; and a great quantity of excellent copper may be extracted out of it with eaſe. The green copper ore is like green cryſtal, and ſometimes very prettily ſtreaked; but in other things it has the

properties

properties of the former. The light duſky blue concretes, as well as the green, called by ſome copper okers, yield a great deal of very good copper when they are pure, which may be known from their colour and weight; but thoſe that are more light are mixed with unmetallic earth, and thoſe that are yellow contain iron oker; on which account they are the more difficult to be met with, and yield leſs copper of an inferior ſort.

The following extraordinary account of a deſcent into the copper mine of Fahlun in Sweden, is given by a Dutch officer. "During the four hours that I wandered into the bowels of Kopperberg, as I deſcended from gallery to gallery, ſometimes by ladders, and ſometimes by ſtairs, my aſtoniſhment increaſed at every ſtep. At firſt I went down by zigzag ſtairs, tolerably commodious, into a large cavity, about 300 feet deep, and 2000 paces in circumference. At the extremity of the the cave I ſaw, in a corner, a hut built of wood, ſix or ſeven feet in height, at the door of which ſtood two figures half naked, and as black as ink. I took them for the pages of Pluto. Each had a lighted torch in his hand. In this hut, is one of the entries into the ſubterraneous regions, and it is the moſt commodious of the four which communicated with the cave. I and my ſervant were immediately preſented with a black dreſs, a precaution that is generally taken to preſerve the clothes of the inquiſitive from being ſpoiled in the narrow paſſages of the galleries. This mournful apparel, together with a prayer uttered by my guides, imploring the divine aid, that we might eſcape unhurt from theſe regions, intimidated my ſervant, who was a young Frieze, in ſuch a manner, that he would ſcarcely ſubmit to be dreſſed *en Scaramouche*, much leſs deſcend into the mine.

"Paſſing at one time through alleys propped up by timber, at another, under vaults that ſupported themſelves, we came to immenſe large halls, the height or extremities of which could not be reached by the feeble lights that we carried. In ſome of theſe are forges, where the different tools uſed in working the mines are made and repaired. It was here ſo exceſſively hot, that the workmen were entirely naked. Other halls ſerved either for magazines of gunpowder, or cordage, and other utenſils neceſſary for their operations. Theſe communicate by means of the galleries, and theſe galleries communicate with each other by ladders or ſteps. There are alſo apertures made from the upper ſurface, in a perpendicular line to the loweſt gallery, without any interruption. Theſe ſerve at once to convey freſh air, and for the paſſage of any burdens, which, being placed in large veſſels, are moved upward and downward by means of pullies, that are in continual motion during the whole time of labour. The pullies are kept in motion by horſes on the top of the mountain. The veſſels are attached to chains of iron, common ropes being ſubject to ſpeedy eroſion by the vitriolic vapours which aſcend from the mines. The irons themſelves will not endure for a long ſpace of time, and therefore ropes of cows hair, or of hogs briſtles, are often made to ſupply their place.

"The apertures are not only convenient for the purpoſes above mentioned, and give vent to a peſtilential atmoſphere; but, co-operating with the heat proceeding from the forge, and other phyſical cauſes, they excite, even in the deepeſt parts, ſuch exceſſive draughts of air, that they reſemble the moſt violent hurricanes. The roofs that are not ſupported by art, afford, in many places, a very ſingular appearance. The vitriol diſtilling through the rocks, cryſtallizes on their ſurface, and forms priſms of different figures. Theſe are ſuſpended from a thouſand places, ten, twelve, twenty feet in length, and of a moſt beautiful green. The reflection of the light from their various ſurfaces, and from the minerals that ſurround the walls, produces an effect more eaſy to be conceived than deſcribed.

"In one of the paſſages, upwards of ſeven hundred feet below the ſurface of the earth, the vitriol is diſſolved, and it is pumped out of the mine by means of a curious hydraulic machine. The water which ſprings up at this depth very copiouſly, is ſet in motion of horſes, diſſolves the vitriol, and conveys it into a reſervoir, which contains a quantity of old iron. Twenty-four of theſe horſes have ſtables in the gallery, their mangers being cut out of the rock. This work continues night and day, horſes and men being relieved every ſix hours. Theſe animals are hoiſted up through the openings once in a year, to undergo a general review. Curioſity induced me to deſcend to about eleven hundred feet under the earth, to the loweſt gallery, where the principal exploſion is made. Notwithſtanding the exceſſive cold of this place, the men who were occupied in cleaving the rock, were not only naked, but in profuſe ſweats. The obſcurity of theſe regions, the diſtant fires ſpreading a viſible gloom, naked men, dark as the minerals which they work, ſurrounded by the ſparks that fly from their hammers; the horrid noiſe of their labour, and of the wheels of the hydraulic machines, joined with the tremendous figures which we met, from time to time, with lighted torches in their hands, made me doubt whether I was not really in Tartarus.

"Having at length arrived at a kind of hall, the roofs of which were ſupported by pillars hewn out of the rock, and ſurrounded with ſeats of the ſame nature, my guides deſired me to repoſe myſelf, and liſten to ſome muſic that would amuſe me. On my inquiring of what kind, they anſwered it was the noiſe which proceeded from blowing up the rocks, to facilitate their labour. I conſented, on condition that they ſhould remain with me. They readily agreed, as this was the only place totally free from danger. One of them went out for a moment to give the neceſſary directions, and returning, ſat by my ſide. After waiting about a quarter of an hour, trembling with cold, and my patience exhauſted, I threatened to renounce the muſic, if they were not more expeditious. While I was ſpeaking, the exploſion began. My ears had hitherto been ſtrangers to the like. The whole extent of theſe ſubterraneous regions, as far as our ſight could reach, was inſtantly illuminated, and we were immediately left in total darkneſs, for the preſſure of the air had extinguiſhed our torches. This obſcurity was only interrupted by a new exploſion on the right and left, accompanied with ſudden flaſhes of light. Echoes redoubled the ſtrokes with thundering noiſe. The vaults ſeemed to ſplit over our heads, the ground trembled, and our ſeats rocked under us. The recollection that we were eleven hundred and thirty-ſix feet under the ſurface of the earth; the ſight at every repeated flaſh, of our guides, and of myſelf, dreſſed in ſable hue; the fall of the rocks that were detached by the exploſion; and the ſmoke of the gunpowder, will plead my apology ſhould I candidly confeſs that I felt all the *toupee* which I had, ſtood erect. This concert continued about half an hour, and ſuddenly ceaſing, left us in profound ſilence; which, together with the obſcurity of the place, and the ſuffocating ſteam of the gunpowder, rather increaſed than diminiſhed the horror. This operation is repeated every day at noon.

There are many iron mines and forges towards the mountainous parts, where they have the conveniency of water-falls to turn their mills. From theſe, beſides ſupplying the country, there is yearly exported,

exported, iron to the value of near 300,000l. but of late years the number of theſe forges has been ſo much increaſed, that each endeavouring to underſell others, the price has been much lowered. Since the prohibition of foreign manufactures, in exchange for which iron was plentifully taken off, it is grown ſo cheap, that it is found neceſſary to leſſen the number of forges. Neither has that contrivance had the effect intended, but, on the contrary, many more are like to fall of themſelves, becauſe they cannot work but with loſs; in which caſe, many thouſands of poor people, whoſe livelihood depends upon thoſe forges and mines, will be reduced to a ſtarving condition.

Iron is an ignoble metal, remarkable for its hardneſs. It is of a whitiſh livid colour when poliſhed, but before that it is blackiſh. When it is cleanſed it is called ſteel. The ore of common iron is of no certain form, but moſt commonly of a ruſty colour. There is alſo an ore which is very heavy, and of a red bluiſh colour when broken. It is very rich in the beſt kind of iron, and uſually yields, at the firſt melting, from ſixty to eighty pounds out of an hundred weight.

There is alſo a ſingular kind of iron ore, of a yellowiſh colour, though ſometimes grey, and ſometimes of a kind of ſemi-tranſparent white. It will yield, when melted, about thirty pounds of iron out of an hundred weight. When iron is melted, it is formed into large maſſes, which are long and thick, and commonly called pigs. Theſe are melted over again, and ſtirred with an iron rod, in order to render them malleable. While they are yet red hot, they are placed under hammers, and by that means the heterogeneous particles are forced away by the repeated ſtrokes. One ſort of iron differs greatly from another, but that which is tougheſt is beſt, and that which is moſt brittle is worſt of all. However, all ſorts of iron are of the ſame nature, and they are only more or leſs tough, in proportion to the earthy, vitriolic, and ſulphureous particles mixed therewith. Iron being often melted and cleanſed, is turned into ſteel; though, in ſome caſes, little labour is required for that purpoſe, and in others a great deal. When iron is very good, they melt it in a furnace, and throw in gradually a mixture of equal parts of an alkalous ſalt, and filings of lead, with the raſpings of oxes horns; then they ſtir the melted metal, and at length place it on the anvil, where they beat it into rods.

A late traveller gives the following remarkable deſcription of his deſcent into the mines of Danmora:

"We lay, ſays he, at a pretty village, called Oſtarby, and went about three miles the next morning to ſee the mines of Danmora. They are celebrated for producing the fineſt iron ore in Europe, the iron of which is exported into every country, and conſtitutes one of the moſt important ſources of the national wealth and royal revenues of Sweden. The ore is not dug as in the mines of tin or coal which we have in England, but is torn up by powder. This operation is performed every day at noon, and is one of the moſt tremendous and awful it is poſſible to conceive. We arrived at the mouth of the great mine (which is near half an Engliſh mile in circumference) in time to be preſent at it. Soon after twelve the firſt exploſion began; I cannot compare it to any thing ſo aptly as ſubterraneous thunder, or rather vollies of artillery diſcharged under ground. The ſtones are thrown up by the violence of the powder to a vaſt height above the ſurface of the earth; and the concuſſion is ſo great as to ſhake the ſurrounding earth, or rock, on every ſide. I felt a pleaſure mixed with terror, as I hung over this vaſt and giddy hallow, to the bottom of which the eye in vain attempts to penetrate. As ſoon as the exploſions were finiſhed, I determined, however, to deſcend into the mine. There is no way to do this but in a large deep bucket, capable of containing three perſons, and faſtened to chains by a rope. The inſpector, at whoſe houſe I had ſlept the preceding night, took no little pains to diſſuade me from the reſolution, and aſſured me that not only the rope, or chains, ſometimes broke, but that the ſnow and ice, which lodged on the ſides of the mines, frequently tumbled in, and deſtroyed the workmen; nor could he warrant my abſolute ſecurity from one or both of theſe accidents. Finding, however, that I was deaf to all his remonſtrances, he provided me a clean bucket, and put two men into it to accompany me. I wrapped myſelf, therefore, in my great coat, and ſtepped into the bucket. The two men followed, and we were let down. I am not aſhamed to own, that when I found myſelf thus ſuſpended between heaven and earth by a rope, and looked down into the deep and dark abyſs below me, to which I could ſee no termination, I ſhuddered with apprehenſion, and half repented my curioſity. This was, however, only a momentary ſenſation, as before I had deſcended an hundred feet, I looked round on the ſcene with very tolerable compoſure. I was near nine minutes before I reached the bottom, it being 80 fathoms, or 480 feet. The view of the mine, when I ſet my foot to the earth, was awful and ſublime in the higheſt degree. Whether terror or pleaſure formed the predominant feeling, as I looked at it, is hard to ſay. The light of the day was very faintly admitted into theſe ſubterraneous caverns. In many places it was abſolutely loſt, and flambeaux ſupplied its place. I ſaw beams of wood acroſs ſome parts, from one ſide of the rock to the other, where the miners ſat employed in boring holes for the admiſſion of powder, with as much unconcern as I could have felt in any ordinary place, though the leaſt dizzineſs, or even a failure in preſerving their equilibrium, muſt have made them loſe their ſeat, and daſh them to pieces againſt the rugged ſurface of the rock beneath. The fragments torn up by the exploſion, previous to my deſcent, lay in vaſt heaps on all ſides, and the whole ſcene was calculated to inſpire a gloomy admiration in the beholder.

A confinement for life in theſe horrible iron dungeons, muſt ſurely, of all puniſhments which human invention has deviſed, be one of the moſt terrible. I remained three quarters of an hour in theſe gloomy and frightful caverns, and traverſed every part of them which was acceſſible, conducted by my guides. The weather above was very warm, but here the ice covered the whole ſurface of the ground, and I found myſelf ſurrounded with the colds of the moſt rigorous winter, amid darkneſs and caves of iron. In one of theſe, which runs a conſiderable way under the rock, were eight wretches warming themſelves round a charcoal fire, and eating the little ſcanty ſubſiſtence produced from their miſerable occupation. They roſe with ſurpriſe at ſeeing ſo unexpected a gueſt among them; and I was not a little pleaſed to dry my feet at their fire, which were wet with treading on the melted ice.

There are no leſs than 1300 of theſe men conſtantly employed in the mines, and their pay is only a common dollar, of three-pence Engliſh, a day. They were firſt opened about 1580, under the reign of John the Third, but have been conſtantly worked only ſince the time of Chriſtina. After having gratified my curioſity with a full view of theſe ſubterraneous apartments, I made the ſignal for being drawn up, and can moſt ſeriouſly affirm, I felt ſo little terror while re-aſcending, compared with that of being let down, that I am convinced,

convinced, in five or ſix times more, I ſhould have been perfectly indifferent to it, and could have ſolved a problem in mathematics, or compoſed a ſonnet to my miſtreſs, in the bucket, without any degree of fright or apprehenſion. So ſtrong is the effect of cuſtom on the human mind, and ſo contemptible does danger or horror become, when familiarized by continual repetition!"

Speaking of the manner in which the peaſants manufacture the iron, the ſame writer ſays, "I have viſited ſix or ſeven forges on my journey, each of which conſtantly employs from four to fourteen hundred workmen, only in iron. Wherever there is a country ſeat, you may be certain to ſee one of theſe fabrics, and no Cyclops were ever more dextrous in working their materials. I have ſeen them ſtand cloſe to, and hammer, in their coarſe frock of linen, a bar of ore, the heat and refulgence of which were almoſt inſupportable to me at 10 feet diſtance, and with the ſparks of which they were covered from head to foot. I had the pleaſure of viewing the whole proceſs uſed to reduce the ore into iron, and muſt own it is very curious. They firſt roaſt it in the open air for a conſiderable time; after which it is thrown into a furnace, and, when reduced to fuſion, is poured into a mould of ſand about three yards in length. Theſe pigs, as they are then denominated, are next put into a forge heated to a prodigious degree. They break off a large piece with prickers, when red hot, and this is beat to a leſſer ſize with hammers. It is put again into the fire, and from thence entirely finiſhed, by being laid under an immenſe engine reſembling a hammer, which is turned by water, and flattens the rude piece into a bar. Nothing can exceed the dexterity of the men who conduct this concluding part of the operation, as the eye is their ſole guide, and it requires an exquiſite nicety and preciſion. It is certainly a moſt happy circumſtance that Sweden abounds with theſe employments for her peaſants, ſince, from the ungrateful ſoil and inclement latitude, they muſt otherwiſe periſh by miſery and famine."

The animals in Sweden are elks, bears, wolves, deers, hares, foxes, wild cats, ſquirrels, &c. and theſe are hunted either for their fleſh, ſkins, or furs, the Swediſh huntſmen uſing guns, and being in general excellent markſmen.

The ſquirrel is ſomewhat thicker than a weaſel, but not quite ſo long. He is of a reddiſh colour on the upper part of the head and back, but on the belly is white. The tail is long and buſhy, which being turned over his back, is ſufficient to ſhade it; whence the Latin name *ſciurus*, which ſignifies a ſhade. This animal ſits upon his backſide when he feeds, laying hold of the proviſion with his fore feet, and putting it into his mouth. He lives upon nuts and acorns of all kinds, but is moſt fond of hazel nuts, which he gathers in the proper ſeaſon, and hoards up againſt winter. Squirrels are generally to be met with upon trees, where they build their neſts, and bring up their young. They can leap very readily from bough to bough, and ſometimes from tree to tree, at which time they uſe their tails inſtead of wings.

There are poultry of various kinds reared in Sweden. Of game there is plenty, both of land and water-fowl, particularly partridges, and a bird called yerper, which reſembles a partridge.

The orra is a fowl of the ſize of a hen, and the keder is very near as big as a turkey. In winter the Swediſh ſportſmen amuſe themſelves with killing black-birds, thruſhes, and ſydenſwans, the latter being beautiful birds, ſumptuouſly arrayed in gorgeous plumes, which are finely tipt with ſcarlet; they are about the ſize of fieldfares, and their fleſh is of a moſt exquiſite flavour. Pigeons are ſcarce, on account of the great number of voracious birds which deſtroy them.

The moſt remarkable bird of prey is the eagle. This bird is of a large ſize, very ſtrong, and can never be tamed like the hawk in order to purſue game; and it is much more majeſtic in appearance than the vulture.

The eagle principally inhabits inacceſſible mountains, and rooſts on the loftieſt trees, being fond of ſuch places as are leaſt frequented by mankind. However, as birds, as well as other animals, are found in greater plenty round the habitations of men, the eagle is ſometimes induced to frequent thoſe places for the convenience of its prey. They live much on fiſh, crabs, tortoiſes, wild ducks, poultry, pigeons, and the like. They have been known not to ſpare even their own ſpecies, when preſſed with hunger. They attack not only lambs and young goats, but ſometimes deer, ſheep, and even horned cattle. They build their neſts on the moſt inacceſſible parts of rocks, and the higheſt trees, ſome of which have been found near ſix feet in diameter. They are uſually lined with the hair of foxes, wool, or the fur of hares and rabbits, to keep the eggs warm, of which the female generally lays two, or ſometimes three at a time, and hatches them in thirty days, during which time the male ſupplies her with food. As ſoon as the young ones are produced, the old become remarkably miſchievous, and deſtroy lambs and poultry for ſeveral miles round them. They often bring hares and partridges alive to their young, to regale them with the reliſh of warm blood. The country folks ſometimes avail themſelves of theſe proviſions, by taking it from the eaglets in the abſence of the old ones, and carrying it home for their own uſe.

The vulture differs from the eagle in not having its beak turned immediately crooked from the root, it continuing ſtraight to the length of two inches, It is much more lazy than the eagle, and fond of carrion, which the eagle will not touch. However, they prey upon live birds, hares, kids, fawns, &c. if they can get them; and if not, eat any filth that comes in their way.

The hawk has wings ſo long as to reach to the end of the tail, which reſembles that of a ſparrow-hawk. The beak is partly blue and partly yellow; the feet are of a pale green; the toes are ſlender; the talons large, ſharp, and darkiſh; the breaſt, belly, and thighs, white, ſtreaked with black; the neck, back, wings, and head are brown, and the latter is flattiſh at the top: the tail is of a light brown, with black lines running acroſs it; and the legs and feet are of a yellow colour. Some years ago a hawk was killed in Finland, which had a plate of gold on one leg, and a plate of ſilver on the other. On the former was this French inſcription: "Je ſuis au Roi;" which, in Engliſh, implies, "I belong to the King;" and, on the latter, were theſe words in the ſame language: "Le Duc de Chevreuſe me garde;" which may be thus tranſlated: "The Duke of Chevreuſe keeps me."

The kite is diſtinguiſhed from all other rapacious birds by having a forked tail. It is uſually about 28 inches long, from the head to the tip of the tail, when the neck is ſtraight; but when the wings are extended, it meaſures, from extremity to extremity, 64 inches, or better. The head is of an aſh colour, the neck red, the back brown, and the wings are diverſified with red, black, and white. The beak is black, the tongue thick, the legs and feet yellow, and the talons of a ſable hue. It has always been famous for its rapacity, and is often mentioned by the ancients.

The ſeas of Sweden, as well as the rivers, abound

with a great variety of fiſh, particularly ſalmon, perch, pike, ſtreamling, trout, tench, eels ſeals, &c.

Pikes are ſo abundant, that vaſt quantities are ſalted and dried for ſale; and great numbers of ſtreamlings (which is a delicious fiſh, ſmaller than a pilchar, or pilchard) are pickled and barrelled, both for home conſumption and exportation. The train oil, extracted from the ſeals, is a valuable article of traffic in their exports.

The Swedes, in their perſons, are in general of a large ſtature, with white or yellow hair. There is a great diverſity with reſpect to their characters; and what is peculiarly remarkable among them, they are known to have had different characters in different ages. At preſent the nobility are brave, hoſpitable, fond of glory, and ſtrictly attached to the rules and punctilios of honour: but as a foil to theſe excellencies, they are proud, oſtentatious, jealous, and vindictive. The lower claſs of people are religious, ſober, loyal, induſtrious, and quiet; except when intoxicated with liquor, at which time they are furious and ungovernable; and ſome accuſe them of being over-reaching, rapacious, envious, and exceedingly averſe to foreigners. In their perſons they are uſually ſtrong and hardy; whereby they are capable of bearing great labour and fatigue, which are excellent qualifications towards the performance of the duties of a military life, and the Swedes have been ſuppoſed the beſt ſoldiers in Chriſtendom. They have no great genius, but they are indefatigable in executing whatever they undertake. Their great poverty obliges them to practiſe ſeveral mechanical arts, which neceſſity teaches them to exerciſe, and the peaſants make their own clothes, ſhoes, and implements of huſbandry; but the trading part of the nation continue in the paths trodden by their anceſtors, without ingenuity to diſcover, or ſpirit to purſue, new branches of commerce.

The Swediſh women are fair, well ſhaped, exceedingly fruitful, and more eminent for chaſtity before than after marriage. From the higheſt to the loweſt they are ſubſervient to the will of their huſbands, even to a degree of ſlavery. As to the meaner ſort, beſides the offices peculiar to their ſex, they perform all kinds of drudgery, ſuch as plowing the fields, threſhing the corn, rowing the boats, and carrying burdens.

Perſons of quality dreſs after the faſhion of France; but the peaſants, &c. wear clothes made of coarſe ſtuff, and lined with ſheep-kin, to defend them from the extreme cold of winter.

The marriages in Sweden generally take their riſe from the mercenary views of parents, and not from the leaſt degree of affection in the young couple, whoſe inclinations have perhaps never been once conſulted in the whole courſe of the affair. It is ſeldom that the children of noble families marry before the age of thirty, their parents having little to ſpare in their life-time. The wedding, as well as the funeral entertainments of this country, are performed with great pomp, and both are commonly attended with riot and exceſs.

The reformed religion, according to the tenets of Luther, is profeſſed with the utmoſt ſtrictneſs in Sweden; and owes its eſtabliſhment there to Guſtavus Vaſa, about the year 1523. An attempt having been once made to re-eſtabliſh Popery, to the great diſturbance of the kingdom, they have ever ſince had ſuch an averſion to that religion, that caſtration is the fate of every Roman Catholic prieſt diſcovered in their country. The common people are ſurpriſingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters, never inquiring into, or diſputing about controverted points of faith and doctrine, but ſubmitting themſelves entirely to the directions of their clergy, who by their morals, and the ſanctity of their lives, endear themſelves ſo much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their revenues are very moderate, that of the archbiſhop of Upſal, the primate, not exceeding 400l. a year: he has under him 13 ſuffragans, beſides ſuperintendants, with moderate ſtipends. The church is governed by a body of eccleſiaſtical laws and canons, reviſed by a committee choſen from the different ſtates that compoſe the diet, and approved by the ſovereign. The clergy are not intruſted with the execution of their own laws, nor can they tranſact affairs of importance without the concurrence of the civil power. A converſion to Popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which are puniſhed by impriſonment or exile, cannot paſs without the king's permiſſion, ſince in either caſe he would be deprived of a ſubject. Chriſtianity was introduced into Sweden by Anſgarius, biſhop of Bremen, in the year 829.

The language ſpoken in Sweden bears a near affinity to that of Denmark, being a dialect of the ancient Gothic, or Teutonic. This country has produced many perſons of learning, at the head of which claſs may juſtly be placed the celebrated Puffendorf, who was at once an hiſtorian, civilian, and philoſopher, and a native of Sweden. The name of Linnæus will be perpetuated to the lateſt poſterity, for having carried moſt of the branches of natural philoſophy, particularly botany, to the greateſt height; he was one of the greateſt ornaments to learning Europe could boaſt in this time.

The Swediſh nobility and gentry ſhewed their attention to the improvement of literature, by ſending Haſelquiſt, that excellent and candid natural philoſopher, into the eaſtern countries, in order to make diſcoveries, and where, unhappily for the learned world, he died. But, as this noble ſpirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family, his labours were not entirely loſt, the queen of Sweden having purchaſed his collection of curioſities at a great expence. The fine arts, particularly drawing, ſculpture, and architecture, are at this time known, and encouraged in that kingdom; and, ſince the decline of their iron manufacture, many of the people have applied themſelves to agriculture, which is carried to a great degree of perfection, and muſt be of infinite advantage to the nation. From the above inſtances it appears, that it has been chiefly owing to the Swedes not having had an opportunity to exert their talents, that they have been repreſented by ſome writers as a dull, heavy people, fit only for bodily labour.

Their principal univerſity is that of Upſal, inſtituted near 400 years ago, and patronized by ſeveral ſucceſſive monarchs, particularly the great Auguſtus Adolphus, and his daughter Chriſtina, whoſe paſſion for literature is well known to the public, and who may be accounted a genius in many branches of knowledge. This univerſity has a chancellor, a vice-chancellor, a rector, and twenty profeſſors, all provided with comfortable ſalaries, the largeſt of which is 140l. per ann. There are near 1500 ſtudents here; but, for the moſt part, they are extremely indigent, and lodge five or ſix together in poor hovels. At Abo, in Finland, there is a ſecond univerſity, which is neither ſo flouriſhing, nor ſo well endowed as that of Upſal; and at Lunden, in Schonen, there was a third, which is now entirely fallen to decay.

An academy of arts and ſciences was ſome years ſince eſtabliſhed at Stockholm, and is now in a flouriſhing condition. They have publiſhed ſeveral volumes of memoirs, which have been well received by the public.

Every dioceſe in Sweden is provided with a free-ſchool, wherein boys are qualified for the univerſity; and there are alſo inferior ſchools, where children

are

are taught to read, write, and inſtructed in the principles of the Chriſtian religion.

The common people in Sweden ſubſiſt principally by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fiſhing. Their materials for traffic and exportation conſiſt principally of bulky and uſeful commodities, ſuch as maſts, beams, deal-boards, and other ſorts of timber for ſhips; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-aſh, wooden utenſils, hides, flax, hemp, poultry, furs, lead, iron, braſs, copper, cordage, and fiſh. In exchange for theſe commodities, they import corn, ſugars, wines, ſpices, ſilk, and Engliſh cloths.

In the 16th century, the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden; for till that time they ſold their old crude ore to the Hanſe-Towns, and brought it back again; but at preſent vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, ſteel, and iron, are wrought in Sweden; they have alſo foundaries for cannon, forges for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and flatting mills; alſo mills for pileing, and for boring and ſtamping; and of late they have built many ſhips for ſale. About the middle of the 17th century, by the aſſiſtance of the Dutch and Flemings, they ſet up ſome manufactures of glaſs, ſtarch, tin, woollen, ſilk, ſoap, leather-dreſſing, and ſaw-mills: bookſelling was at that time unknown in Sweden. They have ſince had ſugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of ſail-cloth, cotton, fuſtian, and other ſtuffs; of linen, alum, and brimſtone; paper-mills and gunpowder-mills.

The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly increaſed their exports, and diminiſhed their imports; moſt part of which arrive, or are ſent off in Swediſh ſhips, the Swedes having now a kind of navigation-act, like that of the Engliſh; but the jealouſies of the Swediſh government have injured theſe promiſing appearances.

Their curioſities and antiquities are the following: A few leagues from Gottenburg is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract runs with ſuch impetuoſity into a deep bed of water, that large maſts and other bodies of timber, which are precipitated, diſappear, ſome being half an hour, and others much longer, before they are recovered. Several hundred fathoms of line have been uſed in endeavouring to find the bottom of this bed, but it has never yet been diſcovered.

In various parts of Sweden a ſtone is found, of a yellow-colour, intermixed with ſtreaks of white, which give it the appearance of a compoſition of gold and ſilver. This ſtone yields ſulphur, alum, vitriol, and minium. In the ſouthern parts of Gothland is a remarkable ſlimy lake, which has the uncommon property of ſingeing every thing that is thrown into it.

The Swedes pretend to be in poſſeſſion of a manuſcript copy of the tranſlation of the Goſpel into Gothic, the work of a biſhop 1300 years ago. Two clocks, one at Upſal, and the other at Lunden, are eſteemed by them pieces of curious workmanſhip: that at Lunden ſhews the remarkable motions of the heavenly bodies, with all feſtivals, both fixed and moveable.

In the government of Sweden, many changes have happened. At the deceaſe of Charles XII. who governed as an abſolute prince in Sweden, his ſiſter, Ulrica Eleonora, aſcended the throne, and, knowing how unwary the deſpotiſm of Charles had rendered his ſubjects, the firſt action of her reign was, to iſſue a proclamation, declaring her intention of aboliſhing and renouncing, for herſelf and ſucceſſors, all abſolute power and dominion, and of re-eſtabliſhing the old form of government.

The ſtates of Sweden being aſſembled, in the year 1719, ſhe made a declaration that ſhe would accept the crown on no other condition than that of election; which reſolution was ſo agreeable to the ſtates, that they immediately exerted the power ſhe had given them, by unanimouſly chooſing her for their ſovereign; and ſoon after her huſband, the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, was aſſociated with her in the government. This condeſcenſion of the queen has been juſtly blamed for the unbounded length to which ſhe carried it; for the ſtates now acquired more ample privileges than they had ever before enjoyed; and at the ſame time the power of the king of Sweden was ſo limited, that he could ſcarcely be called by that name, being cramped in every exerciſe of government, and even in the education of his own children. The great officers of the kingdom were appointed by the diet of the ſtates; and all employments of any value, eccleſiaſtical, civil, or military, were conferred by the king only with the approbation of the ſenate. The ſtates were formed of deputies from the four orders, nobility, clergy, burghers, and peaſants. The repreſentatives of the nobility, which included the gentry, amounted to above 1000, thoſe of the clergy, to 200, the burghers to about 150, and the peaſants to 250. Each order ſat in its own houſe, and had its own ſpeaker; and each choſe a ſecret committee for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The fixed time for convoking the ſtates was once in three years, in the month of January, and the ſeſſion was appointed to continue three months; but it might break up ſooner, if all the orders conſented to the ſeparation. The immediate buſineſs of the ſtates was, to regulate every thing of importance relating to the conſtitution, and to take cognizance of every circumſtance which was intereſting to the community.

When the ſtates were not ſitting, the affairs of the public were managed by the king and ſenate, which, in fact, was a committee of the ſtates, but choſen in a particular manner; the nobility, or upper houſe, appointed 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; theſe choſe three perſons, to be preſented to the king, that he might fill the vacant ſeat with one of the three. The peaſants had no vote in electing a ſenator. Almoſt all the executive power was lodged in the ſenate, which conſiſted of 14 members, beſides the chief governors of the provinces, the preſident of the chancery, and the grand marſhal. During the receſs of the ſtates, thoſe ſenators formed the king's privy-council; but he had no more than a caſting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lay to them from courts of judicature, but each ſenator was accountable to the ſtates for his conduct.

In conſequence of this arrangement, the government of Sweden might be called republican, for the king's power was inferior to that of a ſtadtholder. The ſenate had even authority to impoſe on the king a ſub-committee of their number, who were to attend upon his perſon, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, to the very management of his family. Appeals were to be made to them from the different courts of judicature; and one half of the ſenate was conſtantly employed in the reviſion of ſentences, the adminiſtration of juſtice, and the regulaton of foreign affairs; while the other half was occupied with matters of leſs importance. Each ſenator, however, was reſponſible to the diet for his conduct relative to every affair in which his advice or vote was given. We ſhall only add, that though nothing could be more plauſible than the whole plan of their diſtributive powers, yet nothing was leſs practicable; inaſmuch as their officers and miniſters, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, were multiplied to an inconvenient degree; and by the tedious forms through which the buſineſs of government muſt neceſſarily paſs, it was greatly retarded, if not rendered altogether ineffectual.

By

By the new form of government, eſtabliſhed in 1772, the king is impowered to aſſemble and ſeparate the ſtates whenever he pleaſes; he is alſo to have the whole diſpoſal of the army, navy, finances, and all civil and military employments; and though by this new ſyſtem the king does not openly claim an authority to impoſe taxes on all occaſions, yet ſuch as already ſubſiſt are to be perpetual; and in caſes of urgent neceſſity, he may impoſe ſome, till the ſtates can be convened: but even theſe circumſtances depend wholly on his will and pleaſure, as likewiſe the ſubject of their deliberations when aſſembled; ſo that it may be plainly perceived that ſuch a government as this very nearly reſembles the moſt abſolute monarchy. The Swedes, however, notwithſtanding the great power veſted in the ſovereign, are ſtill amuſed with ſome ſlight appearances of a legal and limited government; for in the new ſyſtem, which conſiſts of 57 articles, a ſenate is appointed, conſiſting of 17 members, including the great officers of the crown, and the governor of Pomerania, who are required to give their advice in all affairs of ſtate, when required by the king. On this occaſion, if the queſtions agitated are of great importance, and their unanimous opinions ſhould be contrary to that of the king, he is required to follow their advice; though it cannot be eaſily imagined that ſo many great officers of the crown ſhould decide againſt the king: but in every other caſe the ſovereign is to hear their opinions, and afterwards act as he pleaſes.

The common method of execution in Sweden, is beheading and hanging. Malefactors are never put to death, except for very atrocious crimes, ſuch as treaſon, murder, adultery, houſe-breaking, highway robbery, or repeated thefts. Other crimes, many of which in ſome countries are conſidered as capital, are chiefly puniſhed by whipping, condemnation to live upon bread and water, impriſonment and hard labour, either for life, or for a ſtated time, according to the nature of the offence. For murder, the hand of the criminal is firſt chopped off, and he is then beheaded and quartered; women, after being beheaded, inſtead of being quartered, are burned. Criminals of the nobility or gentry are uſually ſhot to death. No capital puniſhment is inflicted before the king confirms the ſentence. Every priſoner is at liberty to petition the king within a month after the trial. The petition either complains of unjuſt condemnation, and in ſuch a caſe demands a reverſal of the ſentence; or elſe prays for pardon, or mitigation of puniſhment. Till the reign of the preſent king, criminals were tortured to extort confeſſion; but in 1773 his Swediſh Majeſty aboliſhed this cruel and abſurd practice. Duels are puniſhed with the utmoſt rigour: for if a perſon receives an affront, he is to complain to his national court, when the recantation of the offending party, and begging pardon in public, are generally awarded as a ſufficient reparation.

In Sweden, titles to eſtates are rendered perfectly ſecure by the regiſters of ſales, mortgages, and alienations, kept by every tribunal. Eſtates deſcend by inheritance in equal portions to the children, of which portions a ſon inherits two, and a daughter one. It is not in the power of a parent to alter this diſpoſition, unleſs a child proves vicious or diſobedient, and even in ſuch caſes, he muſt firſt obtain a judicial ſentence; but he may bequeath one-tenth of his acquired eſtate to his favourite child, whenever he pleaſes. If a man dies, whoſe eſtate is incumbered with debts, the heir is allowed three months to inquire into the circumſtances of the deceaſed; at the expiration of which, if he declines accepting the inheritance, the law becomes next heir, and always adminiſters.

§

The cities and principal towns in Sweden, moſt worthy of notice, are as follow:

Stockholm, the capital of this kingdom, ſtands 280 miles north-eaſt from Copenhagen, 224 from Gottenburg, 342 from Wyburg, 387 weſt from Peterſburgh, 465 from Warſaw, 660 north from Vienna, 840 from Paris, 790 north-eaſt from London: it is ſituated on a cluſter of ſmall iſlands; the houſes being built upon piles. If we include the two ſuburbs, one of which ſtands on the peninſula of Toren, and the other in Athundria, the town is as large and as populous as Briſtol. The iſland on which the greateſt part of the city ſtands, is ſurrounded by two branches of a river, that runs with great rapidity out of the lake Macler; and over each of theſe arms there is a wooden bridge. The proſpect from the city is very beautiful, owing to the lake being in view on one hand, and the ſea on the other.

About 300 years ago this place was only a barren iſland, with two or three cottages for fiſhers; but upon the building of a caſtle there, to ſtop the inroads of the Ruſſians, and the tranſlation of the court thither, it grew, by degrees, to ſurpaſs the other more ancient cities, and is now ſuppoſed to be as populous as Briſtol. The caſtle, which is covered with copper, is a place of no ſtrength or beauty, but of great uſe; for it is a ſpacious building, where the court reſides; and alſo furniſhes apartments for moſt of the great officers, the national court of juſtice, the colleges of war, chancery, treaſury, reduction, liquidation, commerce, and execution. Here is alſo an armoury, chapel, library, the public records, &c. It contains very few of the inferior officers and ſervants of the court; they, together with the foot-guards, being quartered upon the burghers, at their landlord's charge for lodging, fire, and candle.

In this city are nine large churches, built with brick, and covered with copper; and three or four wooden chapels.

The palace of the nobility, which is the place of their aſſembly at the convention of the ſtates, and the depoſitory of their privileges, titles, and ſuch other records as concern their body, is a very ſtately pile, and one of the fineſt in the kingdom. It is but one large pavilion, adorned on the outſide with marble figures and columns, and within with pictures and ſculptures; eſpecially in two large halls, where the nobility meet. Next to this palace is that of the lord high chancellor; and a little farther are two other palaces belonging to noblemen. Theſe four palaces ſtand on the banks of the lake, are built after the ſame manner of architecture, and are all covered with copper. The bank, built at the city's charge, is alſo a noble edifice, and, together with ſeveral magnificent houſes of the nobility, all covered with copper, affords a handſome proſpect.

Moſt of the burghers houſes are built with brick, except in the ſuburbs, where they are of timber, and thereby ſubject to the danger of fire, which commonly, when it gets a head, deſtroys all before it in the quarter where it happens. To repair this misfortune, they ſometimes ſend the dimenſions of the houſe they intend to build, into Finland, where the walls, and ſeveral ſeparations, are built of pieces of timber laid one upon another, and joined at the corners; and afterwards marked, taken down, and ſent by water to Stockholm, there to be ſet up and finiſhed; and, when they are kept in good repair, they will laſt 30 or 40 years; and are warmer, cleanlier, and more healthful, than thoſe of either brick or ſtone. To prevent the danger of fire, the city is divided into 12 wards; and in each of theſe there is a maſter, and four aſſiſtants; who, upon notice of any fire, are immediately to repair to it: as alſo all porters and

labourers

View of STOCKHOLM the Capital of SWEDEN.

labourers, who moſtly range themſelves under the maſter of their reſpective ward. There is, beſides, a fire-watch by night, who walk about only for that purpoſe; and in each church ſteeple is kept a watchman, who tolls a bell upon the appearance of fire.

The government of this city is in the hands of the great ſtadtholder, who is alſo a privy counſellor. He ſits once a week in the town-houſe, and preſides in the college of execution, aſſiſted by an under ſtadtholder, and a bailiff of the caſtle. Next to him are the four burgomaſters; one for juſtice, another for trade, the third for the polity of the city, and the fourth has the inſpection over all public and private buildings, and determines ſuch caſes as ariſe on that account. With them the counſellors of the city always ſit, and give their votes, the majority of which decides. Their number is uncertain, but uſually about twenty, moſtly merchants and ſhop-keepers, or ſuch as have ſerved the king in ſome inferior employment. Beſides their ſalary, they have an immunity from ſuch impoſitions as are laid on the inhabitants to ſupport the government of the city; which pays all its officers and ſervants, maintains a guard of 300 men, and defrays the charge of all public buildings and repairs. To ſupport this expence, beſides a duty belonging to the city, of goods imported and exported (which is about four per cent. of the cuſtoms paid to the king, and amounts to about 5000l. per ann.) the magiſtrates impoſe a yearly tax upon the burghers, in which they are aſſiſted by a common-council of forty-eight, which chuſes its own members, and meet every ſpring, to proportion the payments for the enſuing year. On the traders they uſually impoſe forty, fifty, or ſixty pounds ſterling; upon others of a meanner condition, as ſhoe-makers, tailors, &c. five or ſix pounds; and on no houſekeeper leſs than fifteen ſhillings; beſides quartering the guards, inferior officers, and ſervants of the court, with other leſſer charges; which, all together, would be thought a great burden, even in richer countries: neither is it otherwiſe eſteemed by the inhabitants of this city, who can ſcarce be kept in heart by the privileges they enjoy, as well in cuſtoms, as in the trade of the place, which muſt needs paſs through their hands; for the natives of other parts of the kingdom, as all foreigners are obliged to deal only with the burghers (except thoſe of the gentry, who make iron) have not the privilege to ſell it immediately to ſtrangers.

This city is, in a manner, the ſtaple of Sweden; to which moſt of the goods of their own growth, as iron, copper, wire, pitch, tar, maſts, deals, &c. are brought to be exported. The greateſt part of the commodities imported from abroad come to this port, where there is a haven capable to receive 1000 ſail of ſhips, and a bridge or quay near an Engliſh mile long, to which the greateſt veſſels may lie with their broadſides. The only inconvenience is, that it is ten miles from the ſea, the river very crooked, and no tides. It opens into the Baltic, but is of dangerous acceſs, by reaſon of the rocks. Within it is one of the moſt commodious harbours in Europe; for ſhips of the largeſt ſize lie cloſe to the quay, where they are ſo ſecure from the wind, that they need neither anchors or cables to hold them. Its entrance is defended by two forts.

Upſal ſtands on the banks of the river Sal, or Sala, which falls into the lake of Ekolen, and is forty-two miles diſtant from Stockholm towards the north-weſt. It is a very ancient city, formerly the capital of the north, and the ſeat of the king. It is divided into two parts by the river, which is here pretty large, and ſo hard frozen up in February, that a fair is yearly kept there upon the ice in that month. The town is large, but without any conſiderable fortifications. Here is to be ſeen the fineſt church in the whole kingdom, namely, the cathedral. It is covered with copper, and adorned with ſeveral tombs, eſpecially thoſe of the kings. In the chapel, behind the altar, ſtands the monument of King Guſtavus in marble, between the ſtatues of his two wives, who lie alſo buried here. In another chapel is the tomb of king John's wife, who was mother to Sigiſmund III. king of Poland: it is of white marble. Above the city, on a ſteep hill, there is a beautiful caſtle, which is fortified. It is very large, built after the Italian manner, and has a noble proſpect over the city, which it commands, and over the whole country.

Upſal was, at firſt, a biſhop's ſee, but afterwards converted into an archbiſhopric by pope Alexander III. at the requeſt of King Charles, ſucceſſor to St. Erick. Stephen, who died in the year 1158, was the firſt archbiſhop of this ſee; and John Magnus, who, at the reformation, refuſed to admit the Lutheran confeſſion, and removed to Rome, was the fifty-ſixth. Since his time, there have been only Proteſtant archbiſhops, who do not live with the ſame pomp and magnificence as the Roman Catholic prelates uſed to do; for the latter never appeared in public without a retinue of 4 or 500 people on horſeback.

The univerſity of Upſal was inſtituted near 400 years ago, and patroniſed by ſucceſſive monarchs, particularly by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Chriſtina. There are near 1500 ſtudents in this univerſity; but for the moſt part they are extremely indigent, and lodge, five or ſix together, in very poor hovels. The profeſſors in different branches of literature are about twenty-two; of whom the principal are thoſe of divinity, eloquence, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, and agriculture. Their ſalaries are from 70l. to 100l. per annum. This univerſity, juſtly called by Stillingfleet, "that great and hitherto unrivalled ſchool of natural hiſtory," is certainly the firſt ſeminary of the North for academical education, and has produced, from the time of its inſtitution, perſons eminent in every branch of ſcience. The learned publications which have lately been given to the world by its members, ſufficiently prove the flouriſhing ſtate of literature in theſe parts; and the theſes, compoſed by the ſtudents on their admiſſion to their degrees, would form a very intereſting collection. Many of theſe tracts upon various ſubjects of polite literature, antiquities, languages, &c. evince the erudition and taſte of the reſpective authors: among the works of this ſort which have widely diffuſed the fame of this learned ſociety throughout Europe, are the *Amænitates Academicæ*, or a Collection of Theſes upon Natural Hiſtory, held under the celebrated Linnæus, and chiefly ſelected by that maſter.

This great man, who was of a ſocial communicative diſpoſition, always received ſtrangers with the greateſt politeneſs, and was happy in ſolving any queſtions in the line of his botanical profeſſion, which they might propound. To him we are indebted for an account of the Swediſh turnip, a root of ineſtimable value in this country. He ſays, the farmers had it originally from Lapland. It ſpread by degrees through the northern parts of the kingdom. and was found of more uſe than all the other winter plants put together. The great property of it is reſiſting the ſharpeſt and moſt continual froſts known in the country. Beſides this, cattle are remarkably fond of them, and will thrive on them better than on any other winter plant. One of the greateſt advantages of the culture of this root, is its being as good a prepara-

tion for corn as a fallow of mere plowing, which is an object of infinite importance.

Gottenburg was erected in the year 1607, during the reign of Charles IX. whoſe ſucceſſors indulged it with many extraordinary pivileges, in conſequence of which it is become a place of conſiderable commerce. The Danes, in the year 1644, exerted their utmoſt endeavours for the deſtruction of this city, but they proved ineffectual; and it is at preſent one of the ſtrongeſt maritime towns in the kingdom. At Skaren, about eighty miles to the north-weſt of Gottenburg, was the ſeat of the ancient kings of Sweden. The ruins of the palace are ſtill to be ſeen; and, if any judgment may be formed from the walls and other remains of the ſtructure, it appears to have been a very ſtately edifice. Near this palace, ſtands the mountain Kendaculle, remarkable for its height and fertility; for it is covered with a great variety of trees, ſhrubs, herbs, and plants, affording at once a beautiful proſpect, and food and ſhelter to a vaſt number of birds that frequent it in ſummer.

Norkoping, the chief town of Eaſt Gothland Proper, ſtands about ſeventy-five miles to the ſouthward of Stockholm, on the bank of a ſtream which runs from the lake Velter to the gulf of Brawiken. The town is large, populous, and hath conſiderable commerce.

Calmer, capital of the diſtrict of Smaland, is a a very conſiderable city. It is ſituated 160 miles to the ſouthward of Stockholm, and built upon a ſtreight of the Baltic, called Calmar Sund, which is ſituated oppoſite to the iſle of Oeland. It is divided into the Old and New Town. Old Calmar is famous by a deed executed there in the year 1393, by which the three northern crowns of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, were ſettled on the head of Queen Margaret. This is called in hiſtory the union of Calmar. Eric, Margaret's ſucceſſor, founded thirteen prebends here, and gave a decree, by which he put the church of Calmar among the collegiate ones. After the diviſion of the crowns, which the fatal union of Calmar had united, this city became a frontier town, with regard to the Danes, who were in poſſeſſion of Schonen. It was often taken, retaken, and plundered; and, to complete its ruin, it was burnt down to the ground in the year 1547; nothing eſcaped the fire but the church, and about threeſcore houſes. Soon after this misfortune, the new city was built at a muſquet ſhot's diſtance from the old town, in a little iſland called Owarnholm. This new city is large, the ſtreets are broad and ſtraight, and the houſes well built, but the town is not populous. The new fortifications conſiſt only of thick walls built with large pebble ſtones taken out of the ſea, and a few ramparts built only with ſand, and therefore ſupported by another wall, which the ſea ſurrounds almoſt on all ſides, except the gate. The ſituation of this city renders it very ſtrong, all the avenues to it being full of marſhes, or cut off by water from the ſea, which abounds here with rocks, between which there are, as it were, ſo many abyſſes, that it is impoſſible to approach the place either in boats, on horſeback, or on foot. On the ſea-ſide there is a long mole built with ſtone, along which boats and ſhips ride ſecure. This mole is defended by a fortreſs called Grimſkar, built at about fifty paces from it, on a rock ſurrounded by the ſea, and where a garriſon is conſtantly kept. Behind the Old Town ſtands the caſtle, which is of very difficult acceſs, having on one ſide the ſea, which is full of rocks, and, on the other, good ramparts, large baſtions, and ditches full of water. This city is at preſent the reſidence of a ſuperintendant for the government of the clergy, who is honoured with a place in the public conſiſtory of the kingdom. This is a town of good trade, and the paſſage from Sweden into Germany.

Abo, the capital of Finland Proper, is ſituated on the Bothnic gulf at the mouth of the river Aurojoki, oppoſite to the iſle of Aland. This is ſaid to be a wretched capital of a barbarous province. The houſes are almoſt all of wood, and the archiepiſcopal palace is compoſed of no better materials, and is painted red. Here is, however, an univerſity, which was founded and endowed by the celebrated queen Chriſtina.

Wiſby, or Wiſburg, the chief place of Gothland, or Gothia Inſula, is ſituated on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland. It is built on the declivity of a rock near the ſea ſhore, is ſurrounded with a ſtrong wall, and defended by a pretty ſtrong caſtle, erected near the harbour, where the governor of the iſland uſually reſides. This was formerly a conſiderable city, but is now very much decayed.

Carlſcrona, the capital of the province of Blekingen, and the reſidence of the governor, is ſituated on the ſhore of the Baltic, and built on a large rock, which forms an iſland. Charles XI. by whom it was founded, honoured it with his name, and gave it the privilege of being a ſtaple town, that is, a town having a magazine, or repoſitory for goods. To arrive at it, one muſt paſs two other iſlands, which are joined to the continent by large bridges. On theſe two iſlands there are two ſuburbs, which are pretty extenſive, but as they are inhabited only by the lower claſſes of people, they are ill-built and dirty. This, however, is not the caſe with the town itſelf, which is well built, though the greater part of the houſes are of wood. Several of them conſiſt of three ſtories, ornamented with ſculpture and colonades, and ſo neatly painted, that they exhibit a very handſome appearance. Great pains are beſtowed upon the embelliſhment of this place, and no expence is ſpared to render it in time one of prettieſt towns in Sweden. A church, built at one of its extremities, towards the dock-yard, will contribute much to ornament it, as well as the ſquare, in the centre of which it is erected. This ſquare is very extenſive, and, according to the plan laid down, will be bordered by ſeveral beautiful edifices, "Whilſt I was at Carlſcrona (ſays a late traveller) workmen were ſtill employed in levelling it, and during my ſtay there, I often heard exploſions, occaſioned by their blowing up the rocks, which rendered it rugged and uneven. The ſame operation was performed in different ſtreets, where the rock roſe in many places into points diſagreeable to the ſight, which were inconvenient for foot travellers, and prevented the uſe of carriages. Few of the ſtreets are paved, and as you tread upon the bare rock, walking here is extremely fatiguing. The inhabitants of Carlſcrona pretend that Blekingen is the moſt beautiful province in the whole kingdom. I am not, however, entirely of the ſame opinion; for towards Smoland it appears to be very mountainous, but towards Scandia the country becomes level, exhibits every mark of fertility, and is covered with beautiful trees, and among others the oak. I ſaw alſo ſeveral flouriſhing eſtates belonging to different proprietors, ornamented with manſions, which at a diſtance ſeem to be ſo many caſtles. Theſe houſes for the moſt part are built of wood, and have a magnificent aſpect. This province maintains no land ſoldiers, but is obliged to furniſh a regiment of marines.

"The marine militia, diſperſed throughout different parts of Sweden, amounts to about 13,000 men, of whom no more than a thouſand are employed in the time of peace, or when they are not exerciſed. The garriſon of Carlſcrona conſiſts of about ſixteen hundred men, divided into three companies.

"I was

"I was conducted to the port, which is capacious, very commodious, and ſurrounded by docks. Veſſels out of commiſſion are moored here cloſe to a long bridge, which affords one the pleaſure of walking acroſs the whole fleet. I counted here twenty veſſels, comprehending ſhips of the line and frigates, among which I ſaw one of 100 guns, one of 96, one of 84, two of 74, and ſeveral from 50 to 60. I ſaw nine veſſels which had been conſtructed in the courſe of four years. Five of theſe nine were entirely finiſhed, and fitting out; the other four were launched, but not rigged. There were ſeveral others on the ſtocks, either begun or having their inſide timbers put together. One in particular was pointed out to me, all the parts of which having been prepared beforehand, was conſtructed in the ſpace of ſix weeks. The plan for renewing the Swediſh navy was formed ſeveral years ago; part of 1782 was employed in procuring and preparing the materials, and in 1783 veſſels began to be built. It is intended to continue to conſtruct four ſhips annually, until the navy ſhall be put on a reſpectable footing. To defray the expence incurred by the execution of this plan, the king has ſuſpended the half of the works at the new dock, until the navy ſhall be in that ſtate which is deſired.

I was conducted to ſee the new dock, of which I formed a very high idea, from what I had heard; but I confeſs that what I ſaw far ſurpaſſed my expectation. This is a work worthy of the ancient Romans: workmen have been employed on it for twenty-nine years, and a conſiderable length of time will ſtill be neceſſary before it can be finiſhed. At the entrance of the dock there is a baſon cut out in the ſolid rock, about 50 feet in depth, and ſo large that four men of war may be loaded or unloaded together along its quays, which are built of cut ſtone. From this baſon each veſſel may enter its lodge by means of large ſluices, and canals of communication. Twenty of theſe lodges are deſtined for ſhips of the line, and ten for frigates.

"One of theſe lodges, with its canal and ſluice, is entirely finiſhed. The bottom of it is cut out in the rock, and the ſides are built of cut ſtone, joined together with Pozzolane, which is a kind of cement, brought from Italy at a very great expence. The bottom of it is ſhaped like the keel of a veſſel. Along each ſide of the lodge there are two rows of ſteps, which ſerve for ſupporting beams and ſcaffolding when the veſſel is dry, and has need of being repaired. The walls which ſupport the roof are of cut ſtone, joined with the ſame kind of cement as before. Theſe walls, which are at leaſt twenty feet in thickneſs to the top, where they muſt be on a level with the upper deck of the veſſel, ſeparate the different lodges. At that height they are converted into platforms, which communicate with the interior part of the lodge, by means of large arched windows. Theſe platforms are intended to receive the guns of each veſſel, which may be conveyed in or taken out through theſe windows, conſtructed in ſuch a manner as to be opened or ſhut according to circumſtances. The roof is of wood, covered on the outſide with large plates of iron, and formed ſo as to ſerve as a fulcrum or prop to different levers, employed in loading or unloading the veſſel. The ſluice of communication is made with ſo much art, that the ſmall force of two feet of water raiſes it, and makes it turn. When the canal and lodge have received the requiſite quantity of water, the veſſel enters; and when it may be neceſſary to leave it dry, a communication at the bottom of the lodge is opened by a machine made for that purpoſe, and the water runs into a baſon much lower than the lodge, and cut out alſo in the rock, from which it is conveyed into the baſon before mentioned by means of a windmill. Whilſt I was here, workmen were employed in conſtructing a ſecond lodge. The firſt may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the magnificence of the whole work. When finiſhed, theſe lodges will form a vaſt ſemicircle, but, according to every appearance, they never will be brought to perfection. The immenſe ſums which government is obliged to expend, will perhaps induce them, inſtead of finiſhing this, to complete rather the old dock, which will be of as much utility as the new, though ſhips cannot be laid up there under cover, and in lodges.

"The perſon who ſuggeſted the firſt idea of this new dock, which was begun in the reign of Guſtavus III. is a very old man, of the name of Thunberg. He has a ſon, who is reckoned to be equally expert as his father. This Thunberg has the direction of the works and ſluices, which have been conſtructed along the Gotha. The old dock was begun in 1715, after the plan of Polheim the engineer, and finiſhed in 1724. It is a kind of canal, 350 feet in length, and nearly 30 in depth, dug entirely out of the rock. It is ſituated between the port and the new dock, and communicates on the one ſide with the dock-yard and the port, and the other with the ſea, by two canals, ſufficiently large for a firſt-rate man of war to enter or go out. Theſe canals are ſhut by large ſluices. Before that which opens a communication to the ſea, there is a piece of machinery, very ingeniouſly conſtructed, which defends it from the efforts of a high tide. When a ſhip is brought in here, and when it is neceſſary to leave her dry, in order to be hove down, the ſluices are ſhut, and, by means of an immenſe pump, put in motion by ſeveral men or ſome horſes, the dock is rendered perfectly dry in the ſpace of twelve hours. The dykes, ſluices, canals, and mills, which the Dutch induſtry has executed, are juſtly admired, yet, when we conſider that all this is cut out of the ſolid rock, we are obliged to confeſs, that our works are nothing in compariſon of theſe, which, perhaps, are not equalled by any Europe.

"The entrance of the port of Carlſcrona is eaſy on account of its great depth, and it is ſo large as to be capable of containing an hundred ſhips of the line. It is defended by two very ſtrong forts, well mounted with artillery, which are ſo planted, that when fired, their ſhot croſs each other. Theſe forts, the one called *Kongſholm*, or the King's Iſland, and the other *Drotningſkiar*, or the Queen's Rock, are ſituated upon rocks in the ſea, and could ſink any ſhip which might attempt to paſs without their permiſſion.

"The ſailors belonging to the garriſon of Carlſcrona are employed in different works in the dock-yard, when they are not obliged to be on board their veſſels. The greater part of the officers are men of great experience, and muſt naturally be ſo, ſince, if they wiſh for promotion, or to be held in any eſtimation, they muſt travel, and ſerve for ſome time in foreign countries, and particularly in thoſe ſtates which are carrying on war. This, doubtleſs, is an excellent regulation, and muſt tend greatly to procure good naval officers to Sweden. I quitted Carlſcrona, delighted with the town, and its inhabitants, as well as with all the works, which I greatly admired.

"Three miles thence I ſtopped at a large village called Runneby, ſituated in Blekingen, half way between Carlſcrona and Carlſham, which is celebrated for its market, and which appeared to me to be in a very flouriſhing condition. At the diſtance of half a league from this place, the little river of Aune forms a very ſingular cataract through rocks, which exhibit nothing but devaſtation and ruin. The water precipitates itſelf between

tween two enormous fragments of rock, which appear to have once formed only one maſs, and which at preſent are at the diſtance of twenty or thirty feet from each other. They ſtand exactly parallel, and ſeem to be 40 or 50 feet in height. The one is as convex in the interior part as the other is concave, and a third of leſs ſize lies upon the top of them, which forms a moſt ſingular bridge. The road paſſes over it, and appears truly awful, on account of its ſituation, and the horrible noiſe occaſioned by the efforts of the river, which throws itſelf with great violence through the vacuity formed by theſe three maſſes. Below the cataract are found immenſe ſhelves of rock, around which the water in ſome places is upwards of forty feet in depth. Here I was in great danger of loſing my life, for as I was deſcending with much difficulty and danger, and jumping from one ſtone to another, in order to find a proper point of view for taking a ſketch of this pictureſque ſcene, I had the misfortune to fall, and had not my guide, by laying hold of me, given me an opportunity of clinging to the point of a rock, I ſhould have tumbled down the precipice, and been either drowned, or daſhed to pieces on the rocks by the force of the current. This place, ſo remarkable for the different parts of the rock, which are concave on the one ſide, and convex on the other, evidently announces that an earthquake or ſome other convulſion muſt have occaſioned here the moſt dreadful ravage. This river, which is not large, throws itſelf into the Baltic, near Runneby."

In Sweden, there are 24 towns, called ſtaple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ſhips. Thoſe towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the ſea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine-diſtricts.

The revenues of Sweden formerly amounted to a million ſterling per annum, ariſing from crown-lands, poll-money, tythes, ſilver, copper, and iron-mines; but ſince the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. and that which was afterwards engaged in with Ruſſia, they have been greatly reduced. Livonia, Bremen, Verdun, and other places this kingdom was ſtripped of, contained about 78,000 ſquare miles. Her gold and ſilver ſpecie, in a former reign, aroſe chiefly from the king's German dominions. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, is extremely inconvenient, ſome of thoſe pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheel-barrow is often required to carry home a moderate ſum.

The current coin conſiſts of gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of ſilver, valued at 5*s*. 2*d*. each: but theſe are very ſcarce, and the inhabitants of Sweden have now very little ſpecie, almoſt their only circulating money conſiſts of copper ſtamped, and ſmall bank-notes.

The ſtanding army of Sweden, which, before the loſs of Livonia, was 60,000, may now amount to about 40,000 men, horſes and foot, and is properly nothing more than a well regulated militia, under the immediate command of freeholders, whoſe intereſt is intimately connected with the liberty of their fellow-ſubjects. The cavalry is raiſed and maintained by the nobility and gentry, in proportion to the value of their eſtates; and are under ſuch regulations, that neither man nor horſe, after having been once liſted in the ſervice, can be put to any other employment than what are ſpecified in thoſe regulations, both being required to be kept, with proper arms and equipage, in continual readineſs for ſervice. The infantry is maintained by the peaſants: every farm of 60l. per annum or upwards, being charged with the ſupport of one foot ſoldier, finding him in diet, lodging, ordinary clothes, and about 20s. a year in money; or in lieu of all theſe, a little wooden hut is built for him by the former, who allows him hay, and paſturage for a cow, and ploughs and ſows land enough to ſupply him with bread. When embodied, the army is ſubject to the military law; but at other times to the civil law of the country. Each company is exerciſed once in a month, and every regiment reviewed twice or thrice a year; on which occaſions only they wear their uniforms, which, when the ſervice is over, are carefully depoſited in the churches.

Formerly, the navy of Sweden conſiſted of 40 ſail of the line; and, till of late years, their ſhips, togther with the docks, were ſuffered to run greatly to decay.

With reſpect to the political diſpoſition of the Swedes, and the nature of their conſtitution, the following obſervations naturally preſent themſelves:

It clearly appears, that theſe people have, at ſome periods, diſcovered an ardent love of liberty; at others, they have ſeemed fitted only for ſlavery: and when they were labouring to render themſelve free, they have wanted that ſound political knowledge, which would have pointed out to them the ſureſt methods for ſecuring their proper freedom. The moſt capital defect of the Swediſh conſtitution was the total want of a proper balance of its parts: and the diviſion of the Swediſh nation into three diſtinct claſſes, of nobles, burghers, and peaſants, whoſe intereſts were prepetually claſhing, has been a circumſtance very unfavourable to the liberty of the Swedes. The power of their kings was much reſtrained; but no ſufficient regulations were adopted for ſecuring the perſonal freedom of the ſubject. Theſe defects in the Swediſh conſtitution paved the way for the late revolution.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.

The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of ſubduing the Roman empire, and all the ſouthern nations of Europe. The introduction of Chriſtianity by Anſgarius, biſhop of Bremen, in 829, ſeems to preſent the firſt certain period of the Swediſh hiſtory.

The hiſtory of this kingdom, for many years after the eſtabliſhment of Chriſtianity, is very obſcure and unintereſting, unleſs a recital of murders, maſſacres, and ravages, deſerve attention; nor is there any conſiſtency in the accounts of hiſtorians till about the middle of the 14th century, when it aſſumes a more regular aſpect, and affords wherewith to recompenſe the attention of thoſe who chooſe to make it an object of their ſtudies. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly aſcertained, or uniformly adminiſtered. The crown was elective, though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether diſregarded.

The whole wealth and lands of the kingdom were divided between the nobles and clergy. The peaſant toiled to ſupport a few worthleſs mortals in pomp and luxury. Agriculture was litttle known and leſs practiſed; commerce was in its cradle, and the arts and ſciences baniſhed from the kingdom. To complete the miſery of Sweden, there exiſted the moſt deadly diſſenſions between the clergy and nobility, and the blood of the people was ſplit in quarrels not their own. Sometimes the king joined one party, and ſometimes the other; but whether the eccleſiaſtical or civil power prevailed,

vailed, the people equally ſuffered, and their chains were as galling under the ſpiritual, as under the civil power. In this ſtate of debility and diſtraction, Sweden was in no condition to reſiſt the power of a foreign enemy. The Danes knew this, and, ever watchful to promote their own intereſt, and enlarge their territories, took advantage of the civil diſſenſions in Sweden, and ſubdued the kingdom.

Sweden continued in this deplorable ſituation for more than two centuries, ſometimes under the nominal ſubjection of its own princes, ſometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either caſe equally oppreſſed and inſulted. Magnus Zadulus, who aſcended the throne in 1276, ſeems to have been the firſt king of Sweden who purſued a regular ſyſtem to increaſe his authority; and to ſucceed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ableſt princes who had ever ſat on the Swediſh throne; by his art and addreſs he prevailed upon the convention of eſtates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the ſupport of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increaſe of the regal power; and Magnus, by the ſteady and vigorous exertion of this power, not only humbled the haughty ſpirit of his nobles, and created in the reſt of the nation a reſpect for the royal dignity, with which they appear to have been but little acquainted; but at the ſame time, by employing his authority in many reſpects for the public good, reconciled his ſubjects to acts of power, which, when exerciſed by former monarchs, they would have oppoſed with the utmoſt violence. The ſucceſſors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; ſo that the government was for a conſiderable time in the moſt unſettled ſtate, and the nation thrown into great diſorder and confuſion, by the ſeveral commotions and revolutions it became ſubject to.

Margaret, daughter and heireſs of Valdemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, ſwayed the ſceptre of theſe united kingdoms in 1387, while Sweden was rent with faction. She was bleſſed with a penetration and vigour of mind neceſſary in conducting arduous enterprizes; projected the union of Calmar, ſo famous in the North. By the articles of this remarkable treaty, the three kingdoms of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were to remain united under one ſovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who ſhould divide his reſidence equally among them.

This union continued till the reign of Chriſtian II. who was not contented to reign over the northern nations in the manner of his predeceſſors; he diſdained the thought of being confined by any compact, and determined to become abſolute. He well knew that the nobility of Sweden would oppoſe his arbitrary meaſures with firmneſs and intrepidity; and therefore determined to put it out of their power to render his deſign abortive. Deaf to the dictates of conſcience, and regardleſs of all laws both human and divine, he formed the horrid ſcheme of maſſacreing all the Swediſh nobility. The deſign was executed, but not ſo completely as he intended; Guſtavus Vaſa, a young prince, deſcended from the ancient kings of Sweden, made his eſcape to the mountains of Dalecarlia. Chriſtian, dreading the return of this exile, who was greatly beloved by the people, took every method in his power to deſtroy him.

But he found means to elude every attempt; and after ſuffering a ſeries of unparalleled hardſhips, and ſurmounting a thouſand obſtacles, prevailed upon the ſavage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to oppoſe his deſpotic proceedings. The attempt ſucceeded; and Guſtavus was ſeated on the throne of his anceſtors. The late maſſacre had freed Vaſa from thoſe proud and haughty nobles, who had ſo long prevented the eſtabliſhing any regular government in Sweden: and though the dangerous power of the clergy ſtill ſubſiſted, yet the opinions of Luther, which then began to prevail in the North, together with the credit they had already acquired among the Swedes, gave the young king an opportunity of changing the religion of his country; and he accordingly eſtabliſhed the Reformation in 1544. A regular monarchical government was thus founded. The advantages of the change were ſoon viſible; arts and manufactures were eſtabliſhed and improved; letters and polite learning were introduced; navigation was ſtudied, and commerce began to flouriſh. Theſe advantages ſoon gave Sweden conſiderable weight in the political ſcale of Europe; and its friendſhip was courted by foreign princes.

Guſtavus paid the debt of nature in the year 1559, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Eric, who fell far ſhort of his father in abilties either for peace or war. He introduced the titles of count and baron, and made them hereditary; but his imprudent and cauſeleſs jealouſy of his brothers ſoon put a period to his reign. The innocent princes were obliged to have recourſe to arms, and the ſenate joining them, the forces of Eric were defeated, and himſelf depoſed in 1566.

The throne being thus vacant, it was given to John, the brother of Eric. That prince, inſtead of ſtudying to promote the happineſs of his country, and cultivating the arts of peace, engaged in a ruinous war with Ruſſia. Diſappointed in executing his ſchemes, he turned his thoughts towards the church; and, by the advice of his queen, attempted to re-eſtabliſh the Romiſh religion in Sweden. His firſt ſtep was to reconcile himſelf to the Pope, which being accompliſhed, he made ſeveral efforts to eſtabliſh his favourite religion. He had however ſoon the mortification to find that all his attempts were ineffectual, and that it was neceſſary to deſiſt from his purpoſe. He notwithſtanding found means to place his ſon Sigiſmund on the throne of Poland in 1587. This event filled him with hopes of his being able to complete his former ſcheme; but he found ſo many difficulties to encounter, that he died before it was accompliſhed, in 1592.

On the death of John, his brother Charles, who was a zealous Proteſtant, was choſen adminiſtrator of Sweden. Sigiſmund could not behold this advancement of Charles without envy; and endeavoured to deprive him of the honours conferred upon him, but without effect. Exaſperated at the practices of Sigiſmund, the ſtates of Sweden excluded him and his family from the throne, and placed the crown upon the head of Charles. Sigiſmund, who was not only a powerful prince himſelf, but alſo at the head of a ſtrong party both in Sweden and Ruſſia, rendered the reign of Charles very troubleſome and uneaſy. The Danes, hoping to profit by theſe diſorders, invaded Sweden; but their progreſs was ſoon checked by Guſtavus Adolphus, heir apparent to the crown, then only a youth. Confounded at meeting with a very different reception from what they expected, the Danes returned to their own country. But this defeat did not reſtore peace to Sweden: Sigiſmund continued his practices; and Charles, after a troubleſome reign of eighteen years, expired, leaving the crown to his ſon.

Guſtavus Adolphus, though only in his 18th year when he aſcended the throne in 1611, was declared of age by the ſenate, and immediately applied himſelf to free his country from the troubles with which it was ſurrounded. He found himſelf,

at this early period of life, engaged in a war with all his neighbours; his finances low, and his army undiſciplined. But all theſe diſcouraging circumſtances did not intimidate Guſtavus; he ſurmounted every difficulty, and would have made himſelf maſter of the Ruſſian empire, had not the love of independency, the ruling paſſion of that people, rendred his ſcheme abortive. A peace was concluded between the Swedes and the Ruſſians in 1617, under the mediation of James I. of England, by which Guſtavus recovered Livonia, with four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, and received a large ſum of money for reimburſing the charges of the war.

The Swediſh prince had now ſurmounted moſt of the difficulties which attended him at his acceſſion to the throne. His finances were in a more flouriſhing condition; his army conſiſted of warlike and the beſt diſciplined troops in Europe; he had himſelf ſeen a great deal of military ſervice, and was aſſiſted by the counſel and advice of La Gardie, one of the beſt generals, and wiſeſt ſtateſmen in Europe. With theſe advantages Adolphus was not to be intimidated by the power of Sigiſmund. He attacked and defeated the Poliſh army, and formed the ſiege of Dantzic, which muſt have fallen into his hands, had not a ſudden riſe of the Viſtula obliged him to abandon the enterprize.

The Proteſtants of Germany had for ſome time formed a confederacy in ſupport of their religion; but their army, under the command of Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, had been hitherto unſucceſsful. The fame of Guſtavus pointed him out as the moſt proper perſon to command the confederate forces; and experience ſoon convinced the proteſtant princes, that they had not made an improper choice: the moſt rapid ſeries of victories attended the ſtandard of Guſtavus. He took Riga, over-run all Livonia, was victorious in Poland, drove the Germans out of Meclenburg, defeated and killed the famous count Tilly, the Auſtrian general, and over-ran all Franconia.

The houſe of Auſtria now trembled. Wallenſtein, another general of great reputation, was ſent to command the Auſtrian army, and a dreadful battle enſued at Lutzen, where Guſtavus was again victorious; but he received a mortal wound in the conteſt, and died on the field of battle, ſoon after the defeat of the enemy, in the year 1633. The death of Guſtavus ſaved the houſe of Auſtria; but he left behind him a ſet of generals, trained by himſelf, who nobly ſupported the proteſtant cauſe, and maintained the glory of the Swediſh arms with aſtoniſhing valour and ſucceſs.

Guſtavus was fiery and impetuous, very ſevere, but nevertheleſs juſt and equitable. The following anecdote is related concerning him: "One day, as his army was filing off before him, he grew angry with colonel Scato, who, endeavouring to excuſe himſelf for his miſtake, received a violent blow on the face from the hand of Guſtavus. This correction was the more cruel and diſhonourable, ſince, being given in public, it deprived the colonel of all hopes of retaliation. Scato, thus diſgracefully humbled, immediately demanded his diſcharge, which was granted, and he retired. Guſtavus, on his return to the palace, coolly reflecting on what had paſſed, ſoon perceived his error in thus diſhonouring an uſeful ſubject, and ordered the colonel immediately into his preſence; but Scato was gone, as ſuppoſed, to enter into the Daniſh ſervice. Guſtavus inſtantly quitted the palace, mounted his horſe, and, attended only by a few domeſtics, flew towards the frontiers which ſeparated Sweden from Denmark. Guſtavus, overtaking the colonel on the Daniſh borders, went up to him: "Colonel," ſaid he, "you have been injured, and I was the cauſe of it; I am ſorry for it, becauſe I eſteemed you: I am come here to give you ſatisfaction, being now out of my own dominions: here Scato and Guſtavus are equal; here are a brace of piſtols, and two ſwords; revenge the inſult if you can." Scato, aſtoniſhed at ſuch noble condeſcenſion, threw himſelf at the feet of Guſtavus, thanked him heartily for the ſatisfaction he had condeſcended to give him, and ſwore fidelity to his ſervice. Guſtavus embraced him, and they returned together to Stockholm, where the king himſelf, in the preſence of all his courtiers, related what had paſſed between him and Scato."

This prince, purſued ſtudy and the arts amidſt his military fatigues. He would ſometimes pleaſantly ſay, "I will ſhew Grotius the difference between theory and practice, and how eaſy it is to preſcribe rules, but how difficult to bring them into practice." As he expoſed himſelf to great danger during the ſiege of Riga, he was adviſed to be more careful of himſelf: "Kings (anſwered he, ſmiling,) ſeldom die in battles or ſieges."

While he was beſieging Ingoldſtat, his horſe was ſhot under him by a cannon ball: an officer having fled to his aſſiſtance, the king ſaid very coolly, "I have nicely eſcaped, but it is plain the pear is not yet ripe."

Chriſtina, the daughter and ſucceſſor of Guſtavus, was only ſix years of age when her father was killed; but the great chancellor Oxenſtiern, a conſummate politician and general, who had the care of her education, held the reins of government with ſuch prudence and diſcretion, that the peace of Weſtphalia, which eſtabliſhed a new ſyſtem in Europe, was in a manner dictated by the queen of Sweden. Nor did he neglect the young princeſs committed to his care; ſhe received a noble education, and gave ſufficient proofs of her ability to govern a powerful kingdom. She was fond of learning, and invited many celebrated perſons to her court; expreſſed a great regard for Grotius; and was an excellent judge of the polite arts. She had not ſat long on the Swediſh throne, before ſhe embraced the Romiſh religion, and knowing that her ſubjects would not ſuffer any perſon of that perſuaſion to ſit quietly on the throne, ſhe reſigned her crown to her couſin, Charles Guſtavus, ſon to the duke of Deux-Ponts, and retired to Rome, where ſhe died.

In the year 1659, Charles X. aſcended the Swediſh throne, on the reſignation of Chriſtina, and was very ſucceſsful in his wars againſt the Poles; he even received from them an oath of allegiance, but had no ſooner left their country, than they renounced it, unwilling, perhaps, to forfeit their character of inconſtancy. He died of a fever in the year 1660, leaving his crown to his ſon, Charles XI. who was only in his fifth year when his father died; which rendered it neceſſary for thoſe who were entruſted with the government of the kingdom during his minority, to conclude a peace with all the European powers, though attended with the loſs of the iſland of Bornholm, and Drontheim in Norway, which were ceded to the Danes. The Swediſh forces were however in a very reſpectable condition, ſo that, though the guardians of Charles did not think it prudent to carry on expenſive wars, the kingdom had great weight in the affairs of Europe.

When the young prince came of age, he concluded a ſubſidiary treaty with Louis XIV. but ſoon after abandoned his connections with that monarch, and joined in an alliance with England and Holland. Happy had it been for him, had he fulfilled his engagements with the maritime power; but he afterwards joined with France, was totally defeated at Felim-Bellin, and a powerful confederacy was formed againſt him. The elector of Brandenburgh

denburgh made himſelf maſter of Swediſh Pomerania, the biſhop of Munſter over-ran the duchies of Bremen and Verdun, and the Danes took Wiſmar, and ſeveral places in Schonen. Charles was however afterwards victorious, and, recovered by the treaty of St. Germain's all he had loſt, a few places in Germany only excepted. Determined to render his army ſtill more formidable, and himſelf deſpotic, inſtead of cultivating the arts of peace for the good of his country, he impoveriſhed and enſlaved his people: the ſtates loſt all their power, and Sweden was reduced to the ſame condition as Denmark.

The inhabitants of Livonia preſented a petition to the king, in which they pointed out, in the ſtrongeſt colours, the unjuſt proceedings of the parliament. This was, however, ſo far from procuring them the redreſs they expected, that they were conſidered as traitors to their country. The celebrated Patkul, whoſe great talents enabled him to place the impoveriſhed ſtate of his country, and the unjuſt proceedings of the government, in the moſt forcible point of light, was marked out for a ſacrifice to deſpotic vengeance; but he fortunately made his eſcape. Charles however was not to be diverted from his purpoſe by petitions: he ſaw, unmoved, the miſeries of his people, and determined to perſevere in his arbitrary meaſures, though founded on cruelty and injuſtice. He ſucceeded; and became one of the moſt powerful princes in Europe. He did not indeed long enjoy his arbitrary government: he died in 1697, a few years after he had trampled on the libertries of his country, and was ſucceeded by Charles XII. his ſon, who was a minor when he aſcended the Swediſh throne. His age of majority had been fixed by the will of his father to eighteen; but by the intrigues of count Piper, it was ſet aſide for a more early date.

The youth of Charles, on his aſcending to the throne, encouraged the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy, to form a powerful confederacy againſt him; but he nobly oppoſed all their efforts, and, landing in Zealand, laid ſiege to Copenhagen. Reduced to extremity, the king of Denmark was obliged to ſign the peace of Travendahl, by which the duke of Holſtein was reeſtabliſhed in his dominions.

Peter the Great, czar of Muſcovy, in the mean time was ravaging Ingria at the head of 100,000 men, and had formed the ſiege of Narva. The Swediſh army did not exceed 20,000 men, and lay at a great diſtance from Narva; but the impatience of Charles was ſo great, that he marched directly, at the head of four thouſand horſe, and an equal number of foot, to attack the Ruſſian army. Peter had poſted 20,000 men at a league's diſtance from the town, in the road through which it was neceſſary for Charles to paſs, and at double that diſtance 30,000 more, and before them an advanced guard of five thouſand. Charles was obliged to force his way through theſe three detachments before he could aſſault the grand army, lying in a camp before Riga, fortified with a rampart and double ditch.

His intrepidity ſurmounted all theſe difficulties: without giving the Ruſſians time to know the number of his forces, he attacked all their poſts ſucceſſively. The advanced guard, imagining that the whole Swediſh army was advancing, fled immediately at his approach. Terrified at the flight of their countrymen, the troops occupying the ſecond poſt fled alſo in confuſion; and thoſe of the third followed their example. Charles loſt no time, but purſuing the fugitives as cloſe as poſſible, attacked and routed the grand Ruſſian army, leaving near 20,000 of the enemy dead on the field of battle. Terrified at the name of a prince, who, at the head of ſuch a handful of men, was able to defeat ſo numerous an army, the Ruſſians aſcribed his ſucceſs to magic; and accordingly addreſſed their prayers to St. Nicolas, to protect them againſt the horrid crew of ſorcerers, combined together to deſtroy their country. After defeating the czar's army, Charles marched into Saxony, where he performed actions equal at leaſt to thoſe of the great Guſtavus Adolphus; he dethroned Auguſtus king of Poland, and placed the crown on the head of Staniſlaus. His prodigious ſucceſs rendered his name terrible to all the princes of Europe, and his friendſhip was courted by the moſt reſpectable powers. His conduct however was often ſo imprudent, and his ſtubbornneſs and implacable diſpoſition ſo deſtructive of all peace, that he can only be conſidered in the light of an illuſtrious madman.

After his ſucceſs in Poland, he formed the romantic deſign of dethroning Peter the Great, and accordingly marched his army into Ruſſia, and beſieged the town of Pultowa. The czar's army had now ſeen a great deal of ſervice, were inured to diſcipline and hardſhips, and commanded by able and intrepid generals: it is therefore no wonder that Charles here ſuffered a reverſe of fortune; his army was totally ruined, and he himſelf, with a few followers, obliged to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. Here he reſided till the Mahometans found it neceſſary for their affairs for him to withdraw. He however refuſed to comply with repeated requeſts for that purpoſe, and even attempted to defend himſelf with three hundred men, againſt an army of 30,000 Turks, an action which proves him to have been worſe than frantic. Even this reverſe of fortune could not cure him of his military frenzy; for after his return to his own dominions he proſecuted his revenge againſt Denmark with the utmoſt fury, till he was killed in the trenches at the ſiege of Fredericſhall, in Norway. This event happened in 1718, when he was only thirty-ſix years of age.

On the death of Charles XII. his ſiſter Ulrica Eleonora, aſcended the Swediſh throne. We have already ſeen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberty, and given the ſubſtance of the capitulation ſigned by the queen and her huſband, when they entered on the exerciſe of the government. She immediately made a peace with all the belligerent powers combined againſt Sweden; though this could not be effected without conſiderable ſacrifices made by Ulrica.

But the influence of the French court in Sweden, in conſequence of their ſubſidies and intrigues, has occaſioned conſiderable factions in that kingdom. In 1738, a moſt powerful party appeared in the diet in favour of French meaſures. The perſons who compoſed it, went under the denomination of *Hats*. The object they held out to the nation, was, the recovery of ſome of the dominions yielded to Ruſſia; and conſequently the ſyſtem they were to proceed upon, was, to break with that power, and connect themſelves with France. The party directly oppoſed to them was headed by count Horn, and thoſe who contributed to eſtabliſh the new form of government, which was ſettled after the death of Charles XII. Their object was peace, and promoting the domeſtic welfare of the nation: the ſyſtem, therefore, which they adopted, was, to maintain a cloſe correſpondence and friendſhip with Ruſſia, and to avoid all further connection with France: theſe were ſtiled the *Caps*. There was beſides a third party, called the *Hunting Caps*, compoſed of perſons who were as yet undetermined to which of the other two they would join themſelves. Theſe parties long continued; but the French party generally prevailed, greatly to the detriment of the real intereſt of the kingdom: during the laſt war, for inſtance, with the king of Pruſſia,

Pruſſia, the crown of Sweden, for the ſake of a ſmall ſubſidy from France, was forced to contract a debt of 3,500,000l. which has ſince been conſiderably augmented, ſo that this debt now amounts to near five millions. Some efforts were employed by the Engliſh court to leſſen or deſtroy the French influence in Sweden, and for ſome time they were ſucceſsful: but the Hat party again acquired the aſcendancy. Theſe parties, however, are now aboliſhed, in conſequence of the late king of Sweden having made that total change in the government.

At the death of Ulrica, who left no iſſue, the Swedes elected the prince of Holſtein Eutin, biſhop of Lubeck, who aſcended the throne in 1751. But he ſufficiently felt the weight of the Swediſh crown, and after a troubleſome reign of twenty years, occaſioned by the perpetual uſurpations of the ſenate, paid the debt of nature in 1771, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Guſtavus III. of Holſtein Gottorp, who was about twenty-five years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden: with an underſtanding much cultivated, he had a graceful and commanding elocution, and an inſinuating addreſs. At the time of his father's death, he was at Paris, from whence he wrote in the moſt gracious terms to the ſenate, repeatedly aſſuring them, that he deſigned to govern according to the laws. Not long after which, an extraordinary diet was convened to regulate the affairs of the government, and to ſettle the form of the coronation-oath.

In March 1772, being ſome time after his arrival in Sweden, his majeſty ſolemnly ſigned and ſwore to obſerve twenty-four articles, relative to his future adminiſtration of government; among which were the following: "The king promiſes, before God, to ſupport the government of the kingdom as then eſtabliſhed; to maintain the rights and liberties of the ſtates, the liberties and ſecurity of all his ſubjects, to reign with gentleneſs and equity according to the laws of the kingdom, and to preſerve the form of the regency as was eſtabliſhed in the year 1720, and conformable to the preſent act of capitulation.—In conſequence of the declaration of the ſtates, the king ſhall regard every perſon, who ſhall openly or ſecretly attempt to introduce abſolute ſovereignty, as a traitor to his country, and an enemy of the kingdom; and that before any perſon can take poſſeſſion of an employment, he ſhall be required to take an oath reſpecting this matter.—The king promiſes to follow the regulations of the year 1720, with regard to the affairs of the cabinet and ſenate, which were always to be directed by a majority of votes; and that he will never do any thing therein without, and much leſs contrary to their advice.—And in order that the council of ſtate may be ſatisfactorily convinced of the uprightneſs of his majeſty's deſigns, and of his ſincere love for the good of his people, he declares them to be entirely diſengaged from their oath of fidelity, in caſe he wilfully acts contrary to his coronation oath, and to the capitulation.—And laſtly, the king threatens any perſon with his higheſt diſpleaſure, who ſhall be ſo inconſiderate as to propoſe to him a greater degree of power and ſplendor than is herein marked out, as his majeſty deſires only to be the powerful defender of his ſubjects againſt any encroachments which may be made upon their lawful liberties, and to gain the affection of his faithful and loyal ſubjects."

Notwithſtanding the king had taken theſe ſolemn oaths, to rule according to the then eſtabliſhed form of government, and accepted the crown upon theſe conditions, it was not long before he formed a plan to govern as he thought proper, regarding theſe oaths only as matters of ceremony; and he made uſe of every art, the moſt profound diſſimulation, and the utmoſt dexterity and addreſs, in order to render this hazardous enterpriſe ſucceſsful.

At his firſt arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which might increaſe his popularity. He gave regular audience three times in the week, to all that preſented themſelves. He became eaſy of acceſs to all his ſubjects of whatever rank, liſtened to them with courteſy, and entered into the minuteſt details of their complaints; and by appearing, in various reſpects, to intereſt himſelf in their welfare and happineſs, was regarded and beloved as the common father of his people.

While the king laboured, by theſe means, to render himſelf generally popular, he alſo endeavoured to perſuade the leading men, that he was inviolably attached to the conſtitution, that he was perfectly ſatisfied with the ſhare of power allotted to him, and declared, on every occaſion, that he conſidered it as his greateſt glory to be the firſt citizen of a free people. He ſeemed intent only on baniſhing corruption, and promoting union: diſclaimed being of any party but that of the nation at large, and engaged to pay the moſt implicit obedience to whatever ſhould be enacted by the diet. Though theſe profeſſions charmed great numbers into ſecurity, they at the ſame time cauſed ſuſpicions in the breaſts of a few, who, rather, thought his majeſty promiſed too much to be in earneſt. In the mean time there happened ſome contentions between the different orders of the people; and no methods were left untried to foment their jealouſies.

Guſtavus having taken proper meaſures for bringing a conſiderable number of officers and ſoldiers over to his intereſt, all the military force of Stockholm being at his devotion, he planted grenadiers, with fixed bayonets, at the door of the council-chamber, in which the ſenate were aſſembled, and made all the members of it priſoners: and that no intelligence of the tranſaction, in which the king was engaged, might be conveyed to any other part of the kingdom till the ſcheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arſenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and at all the avenues leading to the town. All communication with the country was cut off, no one being allowed to leave the city without a paſſport from the king. Some of the ſenators were then confined in ſeparate apartments in the palace. The king was employed in viſiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magiſtrates, colleges, and city militia.

Soon after, oaths were tendered to the people in general, to whom he addreſſed a ſpeech, which he concluded by declaring that his only intention was to reſtore tranquility to his native country, by ſuppreſſing licentiouſneſs, overturning the preſent form of government, and reſtoring the ancient laws of Sweden, ſuch as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," ſaid he, "as I have already done, all idea of the abhorred abſolute power, or what is called *ſovereignty*, eſteeming it ſtill, as heretofore, my greateſt glory to be the firſt citizen among a truly free people." After theſe aſſurances on the part of his majeſty, heralds were ſent into the different quarters of the town, to proclaim orders for an aſſembly of the ſtates. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the ſtate ſhould without juſt cauſe abſent himſelf, he ſhould be conſidered and treated as a traitor.

In the morning on the 21ſt of Auguſt, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take poſſeſſion of the ſquare where the houſe of nobles ſtands. Troops were alſo ordered to inveſt the palace

palace on all ſides, and cannon were planted in the court oppoſite the hall where the ſtates were to meet. By the king's command, the ſeveral orders of the ſtate were here compelled to aſſemble, and theſe military preparations were declared to be made in order to aſſiſt their deliberations.

The king being ſeated on his throne, ſurrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addreſſed a ſpeech to the ſtates, cauſed the plan of a new form of government to be read by a ſecretary, and offered it to the ſtates for their acceptance, who thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marſhal of the diet, and the ſpeakers of the other orders, then ſigned the form of government, and the ſtates took the oath which the king had dictated to them. This tranſaction, which had been planned with great ſagacity and judgment, conducted with ſecrecy, and effected by eloquence, concluded in a manner no leſs extraordinary: the king drew a book of pſalms from his pocket, and, taking off his crown, began to ſing *Te Deum*, in which the whole aſſembly joined: the ſenate took a new oath of allegiance to the prince, who gave them to underſtand that he intended in ſix years time again to convene an aſſembly of the ſtates.

Thus this great revolution was completed, and tranquility reſtored, without any bloodſhed; very few perſons were impriſoned, and that only for a ſhort time; nor did any of them experience, in the ſmalleſt degree, a diminution of the royal favour, on account of their oppoſition. And this remarkable event, which had produced an almoſt total change in the Swediſh conſtitution, did not appear to have any influence on the conduct of Guſtavus III. who continued to exerciſe with moderation the power he had thus aſſumed.

The high ſpirit of the Swediſh nobility was particularly manifeſted in the diets, and the very firſt of theſe which met after the revolution plainly evinced that the ſeeds of diſſenſion had taken deep root in the minds even of thoſe who ſwayed the higheſt offices of the ſtate. In this diet, which met in 1778, the king attempted to re-eſtabliſh the ancient claſſes among the Swediſh nobles, viz. the high nobility, the equeſtrian order, and the gentry. Each claſs was to vote ſeparately, and every queſtion was to be decided by the majority of the claſſes, that is, by the union of any two. The higher orders, who felt more and more their own conſequence, proved untractable; and the lower houſe, who ſaw themſelves degraded by this arrangement, entered into a ſtate of implacable oppoſition.

A motion to aſcertain and limit the royal prerogative put a ſudden termination to the diet. The regiſters, &c. were ſealed up, and have ever ſince remained unopened. The diet which aſſembled in 1786, broke up with unequivocal ſymptoms of diſſatisfaction, and with mutual recriminations between the king and its leading members.

After ſuch experience of refractory conduct, the king was averſe to the aſſembling of the ſtates at the commencement of the late war. The revolt of the army at Frederickſtadt, and the urgent want of ſupplies, compelled him however to aſſemble a diet again in 1789. The diſcontents which had prevailed in the former ſeſſions ſeemed to increaſe in this. Some popular laws were notwithſtanding paſſed; in particular, the privileges which the nobility had before excluſively enjoyed, were by a law of this diet extended to all ſettled inhabitants of the kingdom.

Guſtavus, though averſe to theſe aſſemblies, his neceſſities in the beginning of 1792, compelled him once more to ſummon a diet, but every precaution was employed to render it as little injurious as poſſible to his authority. The proclamation for aſſembling the diet was iſſued only three weeks previous to its meeting, ſo that the elections were made in haſte, and the patriotic party had no time to make any arrangements with reſpect to their choice of repreſentatives. Inſtead of aſſembling in the capital, the ſtates were ordered to meet at Geffle, a ſolitary ſituation on the Bothnic Gulf, and 70 miles from Stockholm. The diet during the whole of its deliberations was ſurrounded by mercenary troops. Thus the expectations of the public were completely fruſtrated. No reform was effected, nor was there any cenſure paſſed upon the king for the manifeſt infraction of both the old and new conſtitutions, in entering into war without the conſent of the ſtates. In his great object, however, Guſtavus found himſelf in ſome meaſure diſappointed; the diet were ſtill too parſimonious to ſatisfy either his neceſſities or his wiſhes, and he was obliged to reſt contented with only a part of his demand.

On the diſſolution of the diet at Geffle, his majeſty returned to Stockholm, and on the 16th of March, as he was preparing to attend a maſquerade at the opera-houſe, he received the following anonymous letter:

"SIRE,

"Deign to liſten to the advice of a man, who, neither being attached to your ſervice, nor deſirous of your favour, flatters not your crimes, but is deſirous of adverting the danger with which your life is menaced.

"Be aſſured, that a plot is formed to aſſaſſinate you. Thoſe who have entered into it, are furious at being foiled laſt week, by the balls being countermanded. They have reſolved to execute their ſcheme this day. Remain at home; avoid balls during the preſent year; thus the fanaticiſm of criminality will be ſuffered to evaporate. Avoid the road to Haga (the king's country reſidence); in fine, be upon your guard for at leaſt a month.

"Do not endeavour to diſcover the author of this letter; the project againſt your life is come to his knowledge by accident; be aſſured, however, that he has not any intereſt whatever in forewarning you of your intended fate.

"If your troops had made uſe of any violence againſt the citizens at Geffle, the author of this letter would have fought againſt you ſword in hand; but deteſts aſſaſſination."

The king, it is ſaid, on reading the note, was obſerved to turn pale. He affected, however, to hear it with contempt, and to conſider it as an inſult to his courage, to attempt to deter him from enjoying his evening's entertainment. It was late before he entered the ball-room; but after ſome time he ſat down in a box with the compte D'Eſſen, and obſerved that he was not deceived in his contempt for the letter, for if there had been any deſign againſt his life, no time could be more favourable than the preſent. He then mingled among the crowd; and juſt as he was preparing to retire, in company with the Pruſſian ambaſſador, he was ſurrounded by ſeveral perſons in maſks, one of whom fired a piſtol at the back of the king, and lodged the contents in his body. A ſcene of confuſion immediately enſued. The conſpirators, amidſt the general tumult and alarm, had time to retire to other parts of the room, but one of them had previouſly dropped his piſtols and a dagger cloſe by the wounded king. An order was given to all the company to unmaſk, and the doors were immediately cloſed, but no perſon appeared with any particular diſtinguiſhing marks of guilt. The king was conveyed to his apartment, and the ſurgeon, after extracting a ball and ſome ſlugs, gave favourable hopes of his majeſty's recovery.

Suſpicions fell upon ſuch of the nobles as had been notorious for their oppoſition to the meaſures of the court. The anonymous letter was traced up to colonel Liljehorn, major in the king's guards, and he was immediately apprehended. But the moſt ſucceſsful clue that ſeemed to offer was, in conſequence of the weapons which had fallen from the aſſaſſin. An order was iſſued, directing all the armourers, gunſmiths, and cutlers in Stockholm, to give every information in their power to the officers of juſtice concerning the weapons. A gunſmith, who had repaired the piſtols, readily recogniſed them to be the ſame, which he had repaired ſome time ſince for a nobleman of the name of Ankarſtrom, a captain in the army; and the cutler, who had made the dagger, referred at once to the ſame perſon.

No ſooner was Ankarſtrom apprehended, than he confeſſed with an air of manifeſt triumph, that he was the perſon "who had endeavoured to liberate his country from a monſter and a tyrant." Suſpicions at the ſame time fell on the counts Horn and Ribbing, baron Pechlin, baron Ehrenſvard, baron Hartſmandorf Von Engerſtrom the royal ſecretary, and others. Baron Beilke, the king's private ſecretary, being alſo apprehended on ſuſpicion, declared without heſitation that he was privy to the plot, but added, that he had provided againſt the puniſhment which he knew awaited him, and againſt the riſk of being compelled by torture to betray thoſe who were aſſociated with him. He had in fact ſwallowed poiſon, and expired ſhortly after this declaration. His body was afterwards drawn on a hurdle, and expoſed to public view at the common place of execution.

From the confeſſion of Ankarſtrom, it appeared that he had been himſelf a principal in the conſpiracy from the beginning: That in conſequence of an intimacy which exiſted between him and count Horn, they had often been led to converſe upon political ſubjects, on which they were perfectly agreed. They deplored the annihilation of their country's liberty and conſtitution, and reſented the recent calamities which the falſe ambition of Guſtavus had brought upon the nation, and concluded, that the only means of redreſſing the grievances under which it laboured, and of reſcuing it from others which were ſtill more to be apprehended, would be to aſſaſſinate the king, or at leaſt remove him from the government.

Count Ribbing was informed of the conſpiracy through count Horn, and readily acceded to it. Ankarſtrom undertook to be the immediate agent for the aſſaſſination; and with this intention, in company with count Horn, he attended the theatre on the 16th of January, and ſat in the next box to the king's, but his majeſty did not appear at the theatre that evening. With the ſame purpoſe in view they went to the maſquerade, which was given by the king on the 19th of the ſame month; but as the concourſe of people did not appear ſufficient to afford them any hopes of concealment, the deſign was deferred.

The king was accompanied to the diet at Geffle by Ankarſtrom and Ribbing, who returned with him to Stockholm. On the fatal 16th of March, when Ankarſtrom had fired his piſtol, not ſeeing the king fall immediately, he drew his dagger, in order to effect his purpoſe, but was ſeized with a tremor, and dropped both the dagger and the piſtol on the floor. He, however, had preſence of mind to mingle immediately with the crowd, and to join in a cry of fire, which probably aroſe at firſt from the appearance of that confuſion which it afterwards contributed to increaſe.

The king languiſhed from the 17th to the 29th of March. On opening his body, a ſquare piece of lead, and two ruſty nails, were found unextracted within the ribs.

Thus fell, by the hand of treaſon, Guſtavus III. in his forty-ſixth year.

After a very fair and ample trial, Ankarſtrom was condemned to be publicly and ſeverely whipped on three ſucceſſive days, his right hand and his head to be cut off, and his body impaled, which ſentence he ſuffered not till the 17th of May, long after the death of the king. His property was given to his children, who, however, were compelled to change their name.

Counts Horn and Ribbing were condemned to loſe their right hands, and to be decapitated. Colonel Liljehorn, and lieutenant Ehrenjwerd, were alſo to be beheaded. All theſe conſpirators were degraded from the rank of nobles, and their property declared to be confiſcated. Major Hartmanſdorf was to forfeit his rank in the army, and to be impriſoned for one year. Engerſtrom was to ſuffer perpetual impriſonment, and baron Pechlin and ſecretary Lilleſtrahle to be impriſoned during pleaſure. Four others, accuſed of being concerned in the conſpiracy, were pardoned, and ſome were acquitted.

During the king's illneſs, and particularly after he was made acquainted with the certainty of his approaching diſſolution, Guſtavus continued to diſplay that unſhaken courage which he had manifeſted on every occaſion during his life. A few hours before his deceaſe he made ſome alterations in the arrangement of public affairs. He had before, by his will, appointed a council of regency; and being aware of the neceſſity of a ſtrong government in difficult times, he appointed his brother, the duke of Sudermania, ſole regent, till his ſon, who was then about fourteen, ſhould attain the age of eighteen years. Immediately on the death of the king, the young prince was proclaimed by the title of Guſtavus IV.

Guſtavus Adolphus IV. the preſent king of Sweden, was born November 1, 1778, and ſucceeded his father Guſtavus III. who was ſhot the 16th, and died the 29th of March, 1792; born January 24, 1746; married October 17, 1766, to the princeſs-royal of Denmark, by whom he had iſſue Guſtavus Adolphus, the preſent king.

Brothers and ſiſters to the late king:

1. Charles, duke of Sudermania, born October 7, 1748.
2. Frederic Adolphus, duke of Weſt-Gothland, born July 18, 1750.
3. Sophia Albertina, abbeſs of Quedlingburgh, born in October 1753.

CHAP. VII.

THE EMPIRE OF GREAT RUSSIA, OR MUSCOVY.

Situation, Extent, Provinces, Climate, Soil, Produce, Foreſts, Rivers, Fiſh, Population, Inhabitants, Cuſtoms, Laws, Government, &c.

RUSSIA is ſituated between the 47th and 72d deg. of north lat. and between the 23d and 65th deg. of eaſt long. It is ſuppoſed to be about 1550 miles from weſt to eaſt, and 1200 from north to ſouth: theſe limits, however, are not to be entirely depended upon, as the eaſtern part is a mere deſert, being entirely abandoned on account of the incurſions of the Tartars, and the northern parts are rendered almoſt inacceſſible by cold. We know, however, that the whole comprehends the northern

The Northern States of Europe, including Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Russia

northern parts of Europe and Aſia, ſtretching from the Baltic and Sweden, on the weſt, to Kamtſchatka and the eaſtern ocean; and on the north, from the Frozen Ocean to the 47th degree of latitude, where it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caſpian Seas, Great Tartary, Chineſe Tartary, and other unknown regions in Aſia.

This mighty empire, according to the moſt authentic accounts, conſiſts of 15 provinces or governments, beſides part of Carelia, Eſthania, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland, which were conquered from Sweden; the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, anciently the Taurica Cherſoneſus, a peninſula in the Euxine Sea, formerly ſubject to the Turks, but added in the year 1783 to the Ruſſian empire, with the iſle of Taman, and part of Cuban; by the ceſſion of which laſt the Ruſſians are ſaid to have gained above a million of ſubjects; alſo the duchy of Courland in Poland, of which the emperor of Ruſſia has now the entire diſpoſal.

The Ruſſian empire, in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, including all the acquiſitions in Tartary, now known by the name of Siberia, with the provinces above ſpecified, is nearly equal in its dimenſions to all the reſt of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius ſubdued by Alexander, or both put together.

Ruſſia is ſubdivided into the following Provinces:

Northern Provinces.

1. Lapland.
2. Samoieda.
3. Bellamorenſky.
4. Meſeen.
5. Dwina.
6. Syrianes.
7. Permia.
8. Rubeninſki.
9. Belaeſeda.

Middle Provinces.

10. Rezan, or Poreſlaf.
11. Belozero.
12. Wolagda.
13. Jerazlaf.
14. Tweer.
15. Moſcow.
16. Belgorod.

Eaſtern Provinces.

17. Bulgar.
18. Kaſan.
19. Tſcheremiſſi.
20. Little Novogorod.
21. Don Coſſacs.

Weſtern Provinces.

22. Great Novogorod.
23. Ruſſian Finland.
24. Kexholm.
25. Kaleria.
26. Ingria.

Southern Provinces.

27. Livonia.
28. Smolenſko.
29. Zernigof.
30. Seefk.
31. Ukranic, or country of the Old Coſſacs.

The following nations, as comprehended in this vaſt empire, have been enumerated by Mr. Tooke, chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Peterſburgh, who has lately publiſhed an account of Ruſſia, &c.

The Mongols, Kalmucs, Tartars, Samoiedes, Oſtiacs, Burattians, Jakutans, Tunguſians, Voguls, Laplanders, Finns, Lettonians, Eſtonians, Lieffs, Ingrians, Iſcherimiſſes, Tſchouwaſches, Mordvines, Votiaks, Terptyaireis, Tartars of Kaſan and Oſenbury, Tartars of Tobolſk, Tartars of Tomſk, Nogayan Tartars, Tartars of the Ob, Iſchoulym Tartars, Katſchintz Tartars, Teleutes, Abinzes, Biryouſſes, Kurilians, Kiſtim and Toulibert Tartars, Vergho Tomſkoi Tartars, Sayan Tartars, Touralinzes, Bougharians, Baſchkirians, Meſtſcheraiks, Barabinzes, Kirkguiſions, Beltirians, Yakoutes, and Kamtſchedales, amounting, all together, to thirty-three nations, beſides various others; but ſome of theſe are not conſiderable enough to be ranked as nations, but ſhould rather be denominated diſtinct tribes.

The names of Ruſſia and Muſcovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, are probably owing to the ancient inhabitants, the Ruſſi or Boruſſi, and the river Moſca, upon which the ancient capital Moſcow was built. It hath likewiſe been called White Ruſſia, on account of the ſnow with which it is covered the greateſt part of the year, but at preſent it is uſually diſtinguiſhed by the name Ruſſia, the Ruſſias, or Great Ruſſia.

The climate of this vaſt empire varies according to the differences of ſituation. In the ſouthern parts of Muſcovy the longeſt day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas in the moſt northern, the ſun in ſummer is ſeen for two months continually above the horizon. Notwithſtanding theſe different climates, the air is in general exceeding cold in winter, and by the ſeverity of it many perſons are deprived of their limbs, and frequently of their lives, particularly towards the north, where the ground is covered three parts of the year with ice and ſnow. In this ſeaſon, which begins about the latter end of Auguſt, and continues till the month of May, the rivers are frozen to the depth of four, and ſometimes five feet; water ſprinkled upwards with the hand, will freeze before it reaches to the ground.

Dr. John Glen King, who reſided eleven years in Ruſſia, obſerves, that the cold in St. Peterſburgh, by Fahrenheit's ſcale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, uſually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point; though commonly, in the courſe of the winter, it is for a week or ten days ſome degrees lower. The ſame writer remarks, that it is very difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold ſo great. It is ſuch, that, when a perſon walks out in that ſevere weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye-laſhes. As the common peaſants uſually wear their beards, you may ſee them hanging at the chin like a ſolid lump of ice. The beard is therefore found very uſeful in protecting the glands of the throat: and the ſoldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to ſupply their place. All the parts of the face, which are expoſed, are very liable to be frozen: though it has often been obſerved, that the perſon himſelf does not know when the freezing begins, but is commonly told of it firſt by thoſe who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with ſnow, the uſual method to thaw it. It is alſo remarked that the part which has once been frozen, is ever after moſt liable to be frozen again. In ſome very ſevere winters, ſparrows, though a hardy ſpecies of birds, have been ſeen quite numbed by the intenſe cold, and unable to fly: and drivers, when ſitting on their loaded carriages, have ſometimes been found frozen to death in that poſture. When the thermometer has ſtood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water thrown up into the air by an engine, ſo as to ſpread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found by Dr. King frozen into a ſolid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of ſtrong ale has alſo been frozen in an hour and a half: but in this ſubſtance there was about a tea cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as ſtrong and inflammable as brandy and ſpirits of wine. But notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the cold in Ruſſia, the inhabitants have ſuch various means and proviſions to guard againſt it, that they ſuffer much leſs from it than might be expected. The houſes of perſons in tolerable circumſtances are ſo well protected, both without doors and within, that they are ſeldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houſes in Ruſſia is by an oven conſtructed with ſeveral flues; and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. Theſe ovens

ovens conſume a much ſmaller quantity of wood than might be imagined; and yet they ſerve at the ſame time for the ordinary people to dreſs their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and ſuffer it to burn only till the thickeſt black ſmoke is evaporated; they then ſhut down the chimney to retain all the reſt of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat twenty-four hours, and is commonly ſo warm that they ſit with very little covering, eſpecially children, who are uſually in their ſhirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very ſmall, that as little cold may be admitted as poſſible: in the houſes of perſons of condition, the windows are caulked up againſt winter, and commonly have double glaſs frames. In ſhort, they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactneſs, opening or ſhutting the flues to increaſe or diminiſh the heat. When the Ruſſians go out, they are clothed ſo warmly, that they almoſt bid defiance to froſt and ſnow; and it is obſervable that the wind is ſeldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage, which the Ruſſians derive from the ſeverity of their climate, is the preſerving of proviſions by the froſt. Good houſewives, as ſoon as the froſt ſets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of ſnow between them, and then take them out for uſe as occaſion requires; by which means they ſave the nouriſhment of the animal for ſeveral months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Peterſburgh, is eſteemed the fineſt they have; nor can it be diſtinguiſhed from what is freſh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Peterſburgh are by this means ſupplied in winter with all manner of proviſions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwiſe be poſſible; and it is not a little curious to ſee the vaſt ſtacks of whole hogs, ſheep, fiſh, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for ſale. The method of thawing frozen proviſions in Ruſſia is by immerging them in cold water; for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it ſeems to occaſion a violent fermentation, and almoſt a ſudden putrefaction; but when produced by cold water, the ice ſeems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a tranſparent incruſtation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as freſh as if juſt gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes ſo rancid and ſtrong that it cannot be eaten.

The quickneſs of vegetation in Ruſſia is pretty much the ſame as has been deſcribed in Scandinavia, or Sweden and Denmark. The ſnow is the natural manure of Ruſſia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miſerably fed; the ſoil produces a vaſt number of muſhrooms for their ſubſiſtence; and in ſome places, beſides oaks and firs, Ruſſia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, paſture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewiſe extract a ſpirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

Ruſſia is in general a flat, level country, except towards the north, where the mountains are almoſt innumerable, remarkably high, and of prodigious extent. In the provinces of Vogulezi is a ridge, or chain, called Zimnopoias, or the Girdle of the Earth, and ſuppoſed to be the Montes Riphæi of the ancients. On the weſtern ſide of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains; and between the Black Sea and the Caſpian, Mount Caucaſus borders a range of vaſt plains extending to the ſea of Oral. From Peterſburgh to the north part of France, by the road of Dantzick, Hamburg, and Amſterdam, we ſcarcely can perceive the ſmalleſt hill; and from Peterſburgh to Pekin, there is hardly a mountain to be ſeen on the road through Independent Tartary.

In this empire, foreſts and woods abound, and produce fir trees of various kinds, oak, beech, alder, juniper, and many other ſorts of inferior woods and ſhrubs; whereby the inhabitants are enabled to build very comfortable houſes, and at the ſame time are ſupplied with fuel at a very eaſy rate, which, in ſo cold a climate, may juſtly be eſteemed an infinite bleſſing. Their fir-trees are of the utmoſt advantage; it being from theſe they extract the tar and pitch. From the yellow mountain pine is extracted the common turpentine, and from that the oil of turpentine is extracted by diſtillation; the firſt running of which, being finer and more volatile, is uſually called ſpirits of turpentine. The ſediment left in the ſtill is the common roſin, which, if taken out before it is drawn too high, is termed the yellow roſin, but, if left to evaporate to a greater degree, becomes black roſin. From a ſpecies of fir and pine, they likewiſe extract frankincenſe.

In Ruſſia, the rivers are very conſiderable, and among the firſt of them is placed the Wolga, which, after traverſing the greateſt part of Muſcovy, and winding a courſe of above two thouſand Engliſh miles, falls into the Caſpian Sea. The ſource of this famous river is the lake of Uranow, near the city of Rzeva Ulodimerſki, on the frontiers of Lithuania. The Wolga begins to be navigable about ſix miles below its ſource. Along its banks are found truffles and wild aſparagus, of a moſt delicious flavour, and the only oaks which are produced in Muſcovy.

The Oby, formed by the junction of the Tobal and the Irtis, in the ſixty-fifth degree of northern latitude, runs northward into the Frozen Ocean, oppoſite to Nova Zembla, and is the boundary between Europe and Aſia.

The Don, or Tanais, divides the moſt eaſtern parts of this empire from Aſia. It has its ſource in the Rezan, and in its courſe towards the eaſt approaches ſo near the Wolga, that the czar, Peter I. attempted to cut a communication between them. The river then runs towards the ſouth-weſt, receives a great number of other rivers, waters ſeveral cities, forms many beautiful iſlands, and at laſt diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis, at the fortreſs of Aſoph, about four hundred miles from its riſe.

The Dwina riſes in the province of Wologda, and, after running a northerly courſe, falls into the White Sea below Archangel.

The Nieper, formerly known by the name of the Boriſthenes, riſes in the province of Moſcow, runs through Poland, re-enters Muſcovy, paſſes Kiof, waters the Ukraine, and, after a ſoutherly courſe through Tartary, falls into the Euxine Sea at Oczakow.

The other rivers of Ruſſia are the Mologago, Moſco, Kiomo, Ocka, Sama, Dwina, and ſeveral leſs remarkable.

Some of the lakes in Ruſſia extend above forty leagues in length. The lake Ladoga, on the borders of Finland, is formed by four rivers, the principal of which are the Voxen, or Corela, the Fair, which flows into it from the lake of Onega, and the Volchova, which falls into it from the ſouth. It has a communication by a channel with the Gulf of Finland. The lake Onega is likewiſe ſituated on the borders of Finland, and filled by a conſiderable number of rivers. This lake is forty leagues in length, and eighteen in breadth. The other con-

conſiderable lakes are Brela-Ozera, Iwa-Noſero-cargapol, both which give their names to two different provinces; and Honnet, in the neighbourhood of the Great Novogorod.

The wild beaſts in this country are much the ſame as thoſe already deſcribed in Lapland, Norway, Sweden, &c. ſuch as rein-deer, foxes, martins, hares, bears, ermines, ſables, and ſquirrels. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it makes a prey of every creature it can maſter, and is ſaid to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree foreſts. In the ſouthern provinces are bred black cattle, camels, ſmall horſes, goats, ſheep, &c. Their cows and ſheep, as well as their horſes, are ſmall: the czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horſes for war, and carriages.

The whole empire abounds with poultry, wild fowl, game, birds of prey, &c. moſt of which have been already deſcribed.

The different parts of this country are plentifully ſupplied with various kinds of fiſh, by means of the Northern Ocean, Baltic, Gulf of Finland, White Sea, Black Sea, Caſpian Sea, and innumerable lakes, rivers, rivulets, &c. Theſe produce immenſe quantities of ſalmon, trout, pike, ſturgeon, and beluga: the latter reſembles a ſturgeon, and is often called the large ſturgeon; it is from 12 to 15 feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred weight; its fleſh is white and delicious. Of the roe, of the ſturgeon and the beluga the Ruſſians make the famous caviare, ſo much eſteemed for its richneſs and flavour, that it is often ſent in preſents to crowned heads.

In cutting up the beluga's, they often find a ſort of ſtone, which is concealed in that maſs of glandular fleſh which covers the poſterior part of the dorſal ſpine, ſupplying the place of a kidney in fiſh. The inſtant it is taken from the fiſh, it is ſoft and moiſt, but quickly hardens in the air. Its ſize is that of a hen's egg, ſhape ſometimes oval and ſometimes flatted, and commonly ſells for a ruble: it holds a conſiderable rank, though with little merit, among the domeſtic remedies of the Ruſſians, who ſcrape it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diſeaſes of children, and in other diſorders. This ſtone is ſuppoſed by Profeſſor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fiſh.

The ſummer's heat hatches innumerable inſects in the ſand, moraſſes, foreſts, &c. and they are indeed very troubleſome throughout the whole empire. Some are like thoſe before deſcribed in the northern countries of Europe which we have already conſidered; and others are ſo imperfect as not to have received a name, or at leaſt not to have been aſſigned to any particular ſpecies.

In Ruſſia, mines and minerals are as plentiful as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them. Mountains of rich iron ore are found in ſome places, moſt of which produce the load-ſtone, and yield from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich ſilver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia. Here is alſo lead ore, which contains a ſmall quantity of ſilver. The green lead-ore is very rare; but, when found, it is variegated with a yellowiſh green colour, and is ſemi-tranſparent.

The population of this vaſt empire has been greatly miſcalculated by ſeveral authors; ſince nothing can be more injudicious, or remote from truth, than thoſe accounts which make the whole of it not to exceed, at moſt, ſeven millions. It is not a little ſurpriſing that writers ſhould remain ſo long under this miſtake, when we conſider the very numerous armies the ſovereigns of Ruſſia have brought into the field, and the long and bloody wars they have maintained in Europe and Aſia. But the public has been at length undeceived in this matter, by a liſt, taken in 1747, by Mr. Voltaire, of all the males who paid the capitation or poll-tax, and which amount to 6,646,490. Boys and old men are included in this number; but girls and women are not reckoned, nor boys born between the making of one regiſter of the lands and another. Now, if we only reckon triple the number of heads ſubject to taxation, including women and girls, we ſhall find near twenty millions of ſouls. There may be added to this account 350,000 ſoldiers, and 200,000 nobility and clergy; as alſo (the ſame writer obſerves) the inhabitants of the conquered countries, namely, Livonia, Eſthenia, Ingria, Carelia, and a part of Finland; the Ukraine, and the Don Coſſacs, the Kalmucs, and other Tartars. The Samoiedes, the Laplanders, the Oſtiacs, and all the idolatrous people of Siberia, a country of greater extent than China, are not included in this liſt: the new regiſter in 1764 contains 8,500,000 ſubject to the poll-tax.

A late ingenious writer, reſident ſome time in Ruſſia, has favoured us with the followed eſtimate:

Of the lower claſs of people paying the capitation tax, the whole number amounts to	18,000,000
Conquered provinces	1,200,000
Noble families	60,000
Clergy	100,000
Military	360,000
Civil	30,000
Ukraine, Siberia, Coſſacs, &c.	350,000
	20,100,000

To this calculation, we may reaſonably ſuppoſe that the acquiſitions of the Crimea and part of Cuban Tartary muſt have added near a million more, and at leaſt 1,500,000 in the provinces cut off from Poland.

As his Imperial Majeſty now poſſeſſes many of the countries formerly inhabited by thoſe prodigious ſwarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire, there will be ſufficient reaſon to believe, not only that his dominions muſt have been formerly better peopled than at preſent, but that even twenty-four millions are a thin population for the immenſe tract of country under his government. The like decreaſe in the inhabitants of ſome other parts of the globe may probably ariſe from the ſame natural cauſes; and it is highly probable that the vaſt quantities of ſtrong and ſpirituous liquors, conſumed by the inhabitants of the North, which are univerſally allowed to be unfriendly to health and generation, together with the introduction of the ſmall-pox and venereal diſeaſe among them, muſt have greatly contributed to the depopulation of thoſe countries.

The Ruſſians are in general a perſonable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, eſpecially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from thoſe of the Engliſh or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-ſight ſeems to be defective, occaſioned, probably, by the ſnow, which for a long time of the year is continually preſent to their eyes. Their officers and ſoldiers always poſſeſſed a large ſhare of paſſive valour; but, in the late war with the king of Pruſſia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and in the late war with the Turks greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves. They are implicitly ſubmiſſive to diſcipline, let it be ever ſo ſevere; endure extreme hardſhips with great patience; and can content themſelves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Ruſſians in general, were uncivilized, deſpicable, and much addicted

addicted to drunkenneſs: no leſs than 4000 brandy-ſhops have been computed in Moſcow. The common people, and alſo the boyars or nobles, had contracted a conſtant habit of indolence and intoxication; in conſequence of which, the moſt ſhocking objects of miſery and barbarity preſented themſelves in the ſtreets, while the court of Moſcow exceeded all others in ſplendour and pomp. The czar and grandees, dreſſed after the moſt ſuperb Aſiatic manner, exceeded every idea that can be conceived of modern grandeur; nothing but gold and precious ſtones were to be ſeen in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. Theſe, and all other luxuries, were furniſhed by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners.

When the czar Peter aſcended the throne, the bulk of his ſubjects appeared to him little better than beaſts of burden deſtined to ſupport the magnificence of the court. Struck with the impropriety of the ancient cuſtoms in theſe reſpects, he obliged his great men to lay aſide their long robes, and dreſs in a plainer mode, like other Europeans, and even ordered the laity to cut off their beards, beſides making other improvements in learning and the arts.

Before his time, the Ruſſians had hardly a ſhip upon their coaſts: they had no conveniences for travelling, no pavements in their ſtreets, no public places of diverſion, and entertained a ſovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind; but at preſent a French or Engliſh gentleman may live as comfortably and agreeably in Ruſſia, as in moſt other parts of Europe. During the reign of the late empreſs, their polite aſſemblies were put under proper regulations, and few of the ancient irregularities prevail. But notwithſtanding the ſeverity of Peter, and the prudence of ſucceeding governments, many barbarous uſages and exceſſes are not yet ſuppreſſed.

It is ſaid that the Ruſſian ladies were formerly as ſubmiſſive to their huſbands in their families, as the latter are to their ſuperiors in the field; and that they thought themſelves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the diſcipline of a whip, manufactured by themſelves, which they preſented to their huſbands on the day of their marriage.

The nuptial ceremonies of the Ruſſians are peculiar to themſelves, and formerly conſiſted of ſome very whimſical rites, many of which are now diffuſed. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never ſeen each other, the bride is critically examined by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if poſſible, any defect they find in her perſon. After the prieſt has tied the nuptial knot, the bride is led home, with abundance of coarſe, and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are wearing off even amongſt the loweſt ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their huſbands, which extended even to ſcourging or even broiling them to death, is either guarded againſt by the laws of the country, or by particular ſtipulations in the marriage contract. But, notwithſtanding the rigorous treatment which married women are ſtill ſubject to, they are ſaid to be in general looſe in their behaviour, and far from ſhy of their favours, and will even bear their huſbands company in their drunken debauches, which may in ſome meaſure juſtify theſe for the brutiſh jealouſy they are commonly addicted to: and ſo little gallantry, or even decency, is uſed towards the fair ſex in this whole country, that no reſpect is paid to them, though they are even of quality. The only chance they have in wedlock is, from the kindneſs of their parents, who take care to bind the huſband under ſome ſort of penalty, to uſe them well and kindly, to feed them with wholeſome food, and to forbear all unreaſonable correction and ill treatment. But all theſe precautions often prove ineffectual, ſo that it is not without reaſon that they crown the bride, on her wedding day, with a garland of wormwood, to put her in mind of the bitterneſs that attends the marriage-ſtate, and the bridegroom with one of hops, to intimate to him the fruitfulneſs of it; which is there paid ſo much regard to, that he may divorce her, and ſhut her up, for the very fault of her not bearing him any children.

An ingenious writer has left upon record an entertaining account of the ſame ceremony. "In 1713 the princeſs Natalia, only ſiſter to the reigning czar, by the ſame mother, ordered preparations to be made for a grand wedding, for two of her dwarfs, who were to be married. On this occaſion ſeveral ſmall coaches were made, and little Shetland horſes provided to draw them. All the dwarfs in the kingdom were ſummoned to celebrate the nuptials, to the number of ninety-three. They went in grand proceſſion through all the ſtreets of Moſcow. Before them went a large open waggon, drawn by ſix horſes, with kettle-drums, french-horns, and hautboys. Then followed the marſhall and his attendants, two and two, on horſeback. Then the bridegroom and bride, in a coach and ſix, attended by the brideman and maid, who ſat before them in the coach. They were followed by fifteen ſmall coaches, each drawn by ſix Shetland horſes, and each containing four dwarfs.

"It was ſurpriſing to ſee ſuch a number of little creatures in one company together, eſpecially as they were furniſhed with an equipage conformable to their ſtature. Two troops of dragoons attended the proceſſion, to keep off the mob, and many perſons of faſhion were invited to the wedding, who attended in their coaches to the church where the ſmall couple were married. From thence the proceſſion returned in order to the princeſs's palace, where a grand entertainment was provided for the company. Two long tables were covered on each ſide of a long hall, where the company of dwarfs dined together. The princeſs, with her two nieces, were at the trouble themſelves to ſee them all ſeated, and well attended, before they ſat down to their own table. At night the princeſſes, attended by the nobility, conducted the married couple to bed in grand ſtate; after which ceremony the dwarf company had a large room allotted them to make merry among themſelves. The entertainment concluded with a grand ball."

The Ruſſians may not marry any one that is related to them within the fourth generation. Thoſe of an equal degree of conſanguinity, call each other brother and ſiſter, with the diſtinction of firſt, ſecond, and ſo on to the fourth degree; and thoſe of a higher or lower degree, are called uncles, nephews, &c. with the ſame diſtinction. At their chriſtenings they commonly have three or four godfathers, with an equal number of godmothers, who, after that ceremony, deem themſelves ſo nearly related, that they can no more marry each other, than if they were children of the ſame parents.

The Ruſſians entertain many fantaſtic notions reſpecting the ſtate of departed ſouls. When a perſon dies, the ſervants, acquaintance, and relations of the deceaſed, being ranged round the room, take their leave, ſome by kiſſing the hand, others the face, ſpeaking to the corpſe, aſking pardon of it for any crime committed, and all making the moſt terrible noiſe imaginable, rather howling than crying. After the dead body is dreſſed, they hire a prieſt to pray for the departed ſoul, to purify it with incenſe, and to ſprinkle it with holy water, while it remains above-ground, which, among the better ſort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done

done with many geſticulations of ſorrow, the prieſt produces a ticket, ſigned by the biſhop and another clergyman, as the deceaſed's paſſport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpſe, the company return to the deceaſed's houſe, where they drown their ſorrow by intoxication; which laſts, among thoſe of higher rank, for forty days, with little intermiſſion. During that time, a prieſt is appointed to ſay prayers every day over the grave of the deceaſed; for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, they ſuppoſe that their departed friend may be aſſiſted, to the place of his deſtination, by their prayers.

The following is an account of the ceremonies of a Ruſſian funeral, as performed on the demiſe of a lady of the firſt rank, given by an eminent traveller then preſent. "She died in childbed, and was buried with great pomp. After the company had ſat ſome time, they all went into the room to the corpſe. The coffin was open. She was dreſſed in an undreſs, as ſhe died in that condition, (otherwiſe ſhe would have been full dreſſed,) in a night gown of ſilver tiſſue, tied with pink ribbons. On her head was a fine laced mob, and a coronet, as princeſs of the Roman empire. Round her forehead was tied a ribbon, embroidered with her name and age. In her left arm lay the child, who died a few minutes after its birth, dreſſed in ſilver tiſſue. In her right hand was a roll of paper, which was a certificate from her confeſſor to St. Peter, which ran thus. "We do certify by theſe preſents, that the bearer hereof has always behaved and lived among us as became a good Chriſtian, profeſſing the Greek religion; and although ſhe may have committed ſome ſins, ſhe has confeſſed the ſame, whereupon ſhe hath received abſolution: that ſhe has honoured God and his ſaints; that ſhe has not neglected her prayers, and has faſted on the hours and days appointed by the church: that ſhe has always behaved herſelf towards me, who am her confeſſor, in ſuch a manner, that I have no reaſon to complain of her, or deny her the abſolution of her ſins. In witneſs whereof we have given her thoſe teſtimonials, to the end that St. Peter, upon ſight of them, may not deny her the opening of the gate to eternal bliſs.

"When all the company were ranged in the room, her ſervants came to take their leave of her, the inferior firſt. They all kiſſed her hand, and the child, aſked her pardon for any crime they had committed, and made the moſt terrible noiſe imaginable, rather howling than crying. After that her acquaintance took their leave, with this difference, that they kiſſed her face, and made a hideous noiſe, though not ſo bad as the others. Then came her relations, the moſt diſtant ones firſt, When her brother came, I really thought he would have pulled her out of the coffin. But the moſt moving ſcene was the huſband, who had begged to be excuſed this diſmal ceremony; but his brother thought he ought to comply with the Ruſſian cuſtom, leſt, as he was a foreigner, it ſhould be deemed a ſlight. He was brought from his own apartment by two gentlemen as ſupporters, and they were really, in this caſe, more for uſe than ſhew. He had true but ſilent ſorrow painted in his face. When he came to the door of the room where the corpſe lay, he ſtopped and aſked for ſome hartſhorn; which, when he drank, and ſeemed to have armed himſelf, he advanced to the coffin, and there fainted. When he was taken out of the room, and recovered, the corpſe was carried down and placed in an open chariot. A great train of coaches followed; and, as a general officer's wife, a party of guards. She was carried to St. Alexander's monaſtery to be buried; and though the coffin lid was put on as the corpſe paſſed the ſtreets, it was taken off again when it came into the chapel; and the ſame ceremony of leave was taken over again, except by the huſband, who was carried home in a ſecond fainting fit, the moment the coffin was uncovered. When the corpſe was buried, all the company retired to the houſe, to a grand dinner, which had more an air of rejoicing than mourning, as every body ſeemed to have forgot their ſorrow: but the huſband was affected with too much real ſorrow to attend."

The Ruſſians are remarkable for the ſeverity and variety of their puniſhments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful inſenſibility. Peter the Great uſed to ſuſpend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themſelves to death, hundreds, nay thouſands, at a time. The ſingle and double knout have been inflicted upon ladies, as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating: but in the double knout the hands are bound behind the priſoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pully, lifts him from the ground, with the diſlocation of both his ſhoulders; and then his back is in a manner ſcarified by the executioner, with a hard thong cut from a wild aſs's ſkin. This puniſhment has been ſo often fatal, that a ſurgeon generally attends the patient to pronounce the moment it ſhould ceaſe. It is not always the number of the ſtrokes, but the method of applying them, which occaſions the death of a criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by ſtriking him upon the ribs; though perſons are ſometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred ſtrokes, moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out of the tongue are likewiſe practiſed in Ruſſia; and even the late empreſs Elizabeth, though ſhe prohibited capital puniſhments, was forced to give way to the ſuppoſed neceſſity of thoſe tortures.

According to the ſtrict letter of the law, there are no capital puniſhments in Ruſſia, except in the caſe of high treaſon: but there is much leſs humanity in this than has been ſuppoſed. For there are many felons who expire under the knout; and others die of fatigue in their journeys to Siberia, and from the hardſhips they ſuffer in the mines; ſo that there is reaſon to believe that no fewer criminals ſuffer death in Ruſſia than in thoſe countries where capital puniſhments are authoriſed by the laws.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and forehead marked, are ſometimes ſentenced for life to the public works at Cronſtadt, Viſhnei-Volotchok, and other places: but the common practice is to ſend them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nerſhink. There are, upon an average, from 1600 to 2000 convicts at theſe mines. The greateſt part are confined in barracks, excepting thoſe who are married: the latter are permitted to build huts, near the mines, for themſelves and families. The prohibition of the torture does honour to the late empreſs Catharine II.

The manner of travelling in Ruſſia is extremely commodious, eſpecially in winter, when their ſledges glide away on the ſurface of the ice or ſnow with incredible diſpatch, and ſo very little labour to the horſes, that they can eaſily perform a journey of 50 or 60 miles a day. Their ſledges are made of the bark of the linden tree, fitted to the ſize of a man, lined with ſome thick felt; and when a man is laid along in them, he is wrapt up, and quite covered, in good furs. The driver, for the moſt part, runs by the ſledge, to keep himſelf warm, or ſits at the feet of the perſon who travels. The ſledges being built ſo very low, ſhould they happen to overturn, there is little danger in the fall. In this mode of travelling the time is moſtly

ſpent

ſpent in ſleeping; the eaſy and almoſt imperceptibe motion favouring their repoſe. When they happen to paſs through deſerts, or great foreſts, where they are obliged to remain all night in the open air, they kindle a great fire, round which they range their ſledges; ſo that being well cloſed on all ſides, and well covered up with their furs, they reſt more commodiouſly than in a country cottage, where man and beaſts being lodged in one room, greatly diſturb a man's reſt.

The greateſt inconvenience in travelling in thoſe parts, is the want of inns on the road, which obliges travellers to carry proviſions along with them, and other neceſſaries they may ſtand in need of. But thoſe who travel ſingly, commonly go poſt, when they pay the whole expence of the journey at ſetting out, and have no more occaſion to put their hand in their pocket till they come to the end of it, which is very convenient. The poſt boy receives a written order, which he delivers to the next who ſucceeds him, and ſo on to the end. They go day and night, having freſh horſes every ten miles. They commonly travel an hundred and fifty miles in twenty-four hours, and ſometimes go three ſtages without waking.

In the ſummer they travel either by water, on the rivers, with which this country abounds, or by land, on horſeback, by coach, or ſleeping waggons; the roads in Ruſſia being very broad, beautiful, and eaſy for travelling. For paſſing the rivers they have a kind of floating bridges, made of large fir trees faſtened together, which can ſupport a great weight. But the violent heat of the ſummer, and the prodigious quanties of muſketos and flies, are very troubleſome, and greatly interrupt the pleaſure a ſtranger would otherwiſe have in paſſing through this country, from the beauty and variety of its foreſts, rivers, and lakes.

For ſome time paſt, inland navigation has been promoted in Ruſſia: Peter the Great well knew the uſe of it, and employed a prodigious number of men in works of that kind. The canal extending from Moſcow to Peterſburg, is one of the moſt ſtupendous works of that great prince. It begins at Nieva, and is continued from lake to lake, and from river to river, for near 100 leagues. What is properly conſidered as the artificial canal, begins at the city of Novogorod, and is carried on with incredible labour and expence through the territories of Bragnitz, Chriſtitz, Chilolova, Witſchora, Voloſcha, Torſchock, the province of Twere, and the diſtrict of Kiln. Another prodigious work of this kind is at the city of Veronis, in the province of Rezan, where the river of the ſame name is made navigable for ſhips of eighty guns, from that city to the Don. A navigable canal is alſo cut between the Wolga and the Don, in order to convey proviſions and materials to Azoph. The diſtance of this communication is about 140 Ruſſian miles, by way of two ſmall rivers, one called the Laffa, which falls into the Don; and the other the Camiſhinſka, which falls into the Wolga. Theſe two rivers are made navigable by means of locks and ſluices, and a canal of near four Ruſſian miles is cut through the neck of land between theſe two ſmall ſtreams. Peter employed two artiſts at different times to perform this work, who failed in the execution; but has been ſince completed.

The eſtabliſhed religion of Ruſſia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are by far too numerous and complicated to be diſcuſſed here; but the great article of faith by which that church has been ſo long ſeparated from the Latin or Catholic church, is the doctrine that the Holy Spirit does not proceed from the father and the ſon, but from the father only. They deny the pope's ſupremacy; and though they diſclaim image-worſhip, they retain many idolatrous and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms. Their churches are full of pictures of ſaints, whom they conſider as mediators. They obſerve a number of faſts and lents, ſo that they live half the year very abſtemiouſly: an inſtitution which is extremely convenient for the ſoil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the ſacraments. They oblige their biſhops, but not their prieſts, to celibacy. Peter the Great ſhowed his profound knowledge in government in nothing more than in the reformation of his church. He broke the dangerous powers of the patriarch and the great clergy. He declared himſelf the head of the church, and preſerved the ſubordinations of metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops. Their prieſts have no fixed income, but depend, for ſubſiſtence, upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after eſtabliſhing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full poſſeſſion of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off their beards: that impolitic attempt was reſerved for the emperor Peter III. and greatly contributed to his fatal cataſtrophe. Before his time, and incredible number of both ſexes were ſhut up in convents: nor has it been found prudent entirely to aboliſh theſe ſocieties. The abuſes of them, however, are in a great meaſure removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of thirty; and no female a nun, till ſhe is fifty; and even then, not without permiſſion of their ſuperiors.

The conquered provinces, as already obſerved, retain the exerciſe of their own religion; but ſuch is the extent of the Ruſſian empire, that many of its ſubjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa, is a flouriſhing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta; the beginning of the ſettlement was in 1765, with diſtinguiſhed privileges from the imperial court.

The common language of Ruſſia is a mixture of the Poliſh and Sclavonian; their prieſts, however, and the moſt learned clergy, make uſe of what is called modern Greek: and they who are acquainted with the ancient language in its purity, may eaſily acquire the knowledge of it in its corrupted ſtate. The Ruſſians have thirty-ſix letters, the forms of which have a ſtrong reſemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

The Ruſſians have hitherto made but an inconſiderable figure in the republic of letters; but the great encouragement lately given by their ſovereigns, in the inſtitution of academies and other literary boards, has produced ſufficient proofs that they are no way deficient in intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them at their academical meetings have been favourably received all over Europe; eſpecially thoſe that relate to aſtronomy, the mathematics, and natural philoſophy. The ſpeeches pronounced by the biſhop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marſhal, at the opening of the commiſſion for a new code of laws, are elegant and claſſical; and the progreſs which learning has made in that empire ſince the beginning of this century, with the ſpecimens of literature publiſhed both at Peterſburgh and Moſcow, is an evidence that the Ruſſians are not unqualified to ſhine in the arts and ſciences. The efforts to civilize them did not begin with Peter the Great, but were much older. A ſmall glimmering, like the firſt day-break, was ſeen under czar Iwan, in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conſpicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz; but under Peter it burſt forth with the ſplendor of a riſing ſun, and has

continued ever ſince to aſcend towards its meridian.

Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moſcow; one for claſſical learning and philoſophy, the ſecond for mathematics, and the third for navigation and aſtronomy. To theſe he added a diſpenſary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of ſome able German chemiſts and apothecaries, who furniſh medicines not only to the army but all over the kingdom. And within theſe few years, Mr. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empreſs Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an univerſity in this city. The late empreſs Catharine II. alſo founded an univerſity at Peterſburgh, and invited ſome of the moſt learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good ſalaries; and alſo a military academy, where the young nobility and officers' ſons are taught the art of war. It ought alſo to be mentioned, to the honour of the ſame royal benefactreſs, that ſhe founded a number of ſchools for the education of the lower claſſes of her ſubjects, throughout the beſt inhabited parts of the empire.

The government of Ruſſia is entirely deſpotic; and here, as in all other arbitrary monarchies, the laws, as well as the lives and properties of the ſubjects, depend wholly on the will of the ſovereign. Theſe, if males, were called czars; if females, czarinas; but at preſent the imperial title is aſſumed. The people are no leſs ſlaves than formerly, but much of the power of the nobility is ſwallowed up in the great importance and authority of the crown. The ſovereign appoints vaivods, or governors of provinces, and beſtows all offices of conſequence, whether eccleſiaſtical, civil, or military. The czar Peter introduced the titles of count and prince of the empire, and inſtituted an order of knighthood in honour of St. Andrew, the patron of Ruſſia, diſtinguiſhed by a blue ribbon and a ſtar.

Here ſtate priſoners are, in general, privately ſeized, partially adjudged, and ſecretly diſpatched, or ſent into baniſhment to Siberia, of which the following is a ſingular incident, as related by a character of eminence, who reſided many years in Ruſſia. "I was not long in Riga (ſays that perſon) when I received the following intelligence from good authority. One Dr. Fonderholſt, a German, was, a few years before my arrival, phyſician to the army. He was ſaid to be a man of learning, but of no great foreſight. Happening to receive an affront from one of the great men of the court, who was in favour with the empreſs, the doctor retorted ſeverely, and rendered him very ridiculous. The courtier had the addreſs to get the doctor ſent to Siberia in the following manner: One day, as the doctor was attending the field-marſhal, who was ſick, a captain of the guards arrived with expreſſes from St. Peterſburg, and demanded immediate audience. He was introduced, and whiſpered ſomething in the field-marſhal's ear, who deſired the doctor to amuſe himſelf in the great hall till he had finiſhed ſome buſineſs with the officer. When that was done, the doctor was again called upon; and when he had given the field-marſhal his advice about ſome diſorder which he at that time laboured under, and was going to retire, the count deſired him to come to dinner, as he might need his further aſſiſtance; and, at the ſame time, adviſed the captain of the guards to dine, telling him he was not able to ſit at the table himſelf, but the vice-governor, prince Dolgoruki, who was preſent, would bear him company. This was agreed to. At dinner the captain told the vice-governor, that a relation of his, in his way to the army, was ſuddenly taken ill, and obliged to remain in a houſe diſtant three or four verſts from the city; and that therefore he deſired him to appoint an able phyſician to attend him, for which he would be amply rewarded. The deputy-governor pointed to Dr. Fonderholſt, as phyſician to the army, and one of the ableſt profeſſors in Riga; and, at the ſame time, politely deſired him to viſit the officer. The doctor agreed, and was giving directions to his ſervants to get his coach ready, when the prince told him that was needleſs, as his coach was large enough to carry them all to ſuch an inconſiderable diſtance. After dinner, when they had arrived at the houſe where they pretended the patient was, and had taken a few glaſſes of wine, the doctor deſired to ſee him, but was anſwered, that he was a ſtate priſoner by order of the cabinet; and therefore they adviſed him to make no reſiſtance, but get into a travelling waggon ready at the door; telling him, at the ſame time, that if he offered the leaſt reſiſtance, he would be bound faſt with ropes, and might be very cruelly treated, on the way, by the ſoldiers who were appointed to convey him to his place of deſtination. Thus this man was conveyed to Siberia, and there long immured, or kept in a hole in the wall, with only a ſmall ſlit through which he received his proviſions. It ſeems he had ſome money about him when he was arreſted; but the captain took nothing from him except his ſword. The ſoldiers, on the way, robbed him of his watch; but he concealed from them what little money he had. Foreſeeing that his money could not maintain him long, and perſuaded that he could not long ſubſiſt upon the poor proviſions allowed to ſuch priſoners, he affected to be a fortune-teller; and appriſed the ſoldiers, who kept guard upon him, of his deſign, offering them the half of what he got by his art. The ſoldiers, being acquainted with many of the ſuperſtitious inhabitants, told the doctor every thing concerning them before they came to him, which he repeated to them, whereby his fame, as a wiſe man, ſpread far, and he acquired the means of ſupport. Having neither books or company to amuſe him in this miſerable ſituation, he got a few hens, and diverted himſelf with feeding them. He gave their eggs a black colour; and wrote upon them with a pin, *Den ungelucklick Doctor Fonderholſt*.. Ungelucklick ſignifies *unfortunate*. Theſe eggs he ſold to the inhabitants as charms. They knew not the meaning of the writing, but thought it rendered the eggs more valuable. After he had been many months thus confined, it happened that the governor's lady put up in this village, in her way from Ruſſia to Siberia, and wanted eggs, among other things, for dinner. The hoſteſs told her that there was, in the place, a priſoner, a very wiſe man, who ſold extraordinary eggs. She deſired to ſee them; and, as ſhe underſtood the German language, was ſurpriſed to ſee written upon them the name of the very phyſician who, a few years before, had recovered her from a very dangerous fever. She went to the hole, ſpoke to the doctor; then applied to her huſband, and cauſed his ſituation to be made much eaſier; and, as ſhe was a great favourite with the empreſs, wrote to her majeſty, and repreſented his undeſerved misfortune ſo pathetically, that the governor received orders to liberate him, and ſend him, at her expence, to Moſcow."

A gentleman who travelled over the greateſt part of this empire, has given us the following new and conciſe deſcription of the Ruſſians, and the arbitrary government under which they live:

"In Ruſſia the ſovereign is ſuppoſed to have no relations. No perſon is allowed to keep any coin ſtamped with the image of a depoſed prince; nor muſt any one paſs the palace without pulling off his hat, or letting down the glaſſes, if he is in a carriage. If you write the ſovereign's name in ſmall characters in a letter, you are liable to ſevere puniſhment.

niſhment. In a room upwards of thirty feet ſquare, in which there were but three Frenchmen, one of them aſked whether the prince Iwan was, or was not, ſtill alive. The anſwer was, that in Ruſſia nobody talked of that prince. When the empreſs Elizabeth was at the eve of death, none durſt make the leaſt inquiry concerning her health: and, when her death was univerſally known, all thought it dangerous to make it the ſubject of converſation. Every Ruſſian has a right to cry in public *ſlow drelow*, or, I declare you are guilty of treaſon in words and actions; and then every by-ſtander is obliged to aſſiſt in apprehending the accuſed.

"The father arreſts the ſon, and the ſon the father, and nature ſuffers in ſilence. Both parties are firſt conveyed to priſon, and then to Peterſburg, where they are tried by the court of Chancery, and if the accuſer ſubmits to the puniſhment of the knout without flinching, the culprit is condemned, though no proof of guilt can be produced. This juriſdiction is allowed to ſubſiſt for the ſake of cutting off with the greater eaſe any perſon that happens to be the object of court jealouſy. For this purpoſe the falſe accuſer is never puniſhed with death, and the knout is ſeldom exerciſed upon him with ſeverity. The nobility, having bowed to this dreadful ſlavery, do not fail to retaliate upon the people, who are abſolute ſlaves to them, to the ſovereign, and to the governors of the provinces. The ſlaves of the ſovereign pay tribute only to the crown; the ſlaves of the nobles pay tribute to the crown and their lords. They are not, indeed, allowed the power of life and death; but as they may puniſh them with the battogen, the difference is not conſiderable.

The Ruſſians are bigotted even to fanaticiſm in favour of the Greek faith, they make religion conſiſt in ceremony, and are, in fact, leſs moral than the Pagans. Except at Peterſburg and Moſcow, married women are ſeldom to be ſeen; and jealouſy is prevalent among them. A magician, and three or four ancient matrons, wait at every wedding, in order to determine, after conſummation, whether the bride has the true ſigns of virginity. When they are ſatisfied, the men ſit down, get drunk, and throughout the whole entertainment occaſion much embarraſſment and confuſion.

The Ruſſians, being ſlaves, are far from being naturally warlike and courageous; but, as they are ſtrong, hardy, and inured to very indifferent food, they have, according to the conſtitution of modern armies, all the ſtamina of ſoldiers. The recruiting parties have a right to pitch upon whom they pleaſe; ſo that the Ruſſian forces may with propriety be, after the example of the Romans, called legions.

The executive part of the government of Ruſſia is veſted in the ſovereign council of chancery, which is chiefly compoſed of the third claſs of the nobility, and divided into ſix departments, in which are ſeparately conſidered, foreign affairs, war, finances, public accounts, civil proceſſes brought by appeal, and criminal cauſes brought by appeal.

The determination of the two laſt mentioned, formerly depended upon the equity of the judge. In 1647 a code, or body of laws, was ordered to be compiled by the wiſeſt men in the empire, which was accordingly done, entitled, Sabrona Uloſienia, or Univerſal and General Right; and by this the judges were to regulate their ſentences. There is this great and ſingular advantage in the courts of judicature of this country, that they are neither expenſive or tedious; for a law-ſuit is begun and determined in the ſpace of ſix or ſeven weeks: nevertheleſs they are extremely venal.

The ſyſtem of civil laws eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia, is at preſent very imperfect, and, in many reſpects, barbarous; being an aſſemblage of laws and regulations drawn from thoſe of moſt ſtates in Europe, ill-digeſted, and, in many inſtances, not adapted to the genius of the Ruſſian nation. But the late empreſs indeed, made a very noble attempt to give her ſubjects a new code of laws. In order to this, ſhe aſſembled the ſtates of the kingdom in the year 1768, and preſented them with inſtructions for their proceedings. The code has ſince been drawn up, but was not then publiſhed. Very pleaſing ideas, have, however, been formed with regard to the rectitude of its precepts; and it has accordingly been for ſome time expected with impatience.

The conſtitution of Ruſſia differs little from that of other arbitrary empires. There is, indeed, a ſenate, compoſed of the moſt reſpectable perſons in the kingdom; and the czar treats the inſtitution with the higheſt regard and deference, ſubmits the greateſt concerns of his empire to their deliberations, but at the ſame time this parliament can be conſidered in no other light than the privy-council. They never preſume to canvaſs any of the meaſures of government, or even to give their ſovereign advice.

In Ruſſia, the ancient nobility conſiſted of three degrees, knezes, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were ſovereigns in their own eſtates, till their exorbitant power was reduced by the czars. The boyars were the ſecond degree of nobility; and the vaivods were the governors of provinces. Peter the Great ſuffered theſe diſtinctions to continue; but the late empreſſes, perceiving that theſe titles too often revived the ideas of their ancient and deſtructive power, thought it prudent to introduce the titles of counts and princes, in conformity to the cuſtom of other European nations.

The Ruſſian coin at preſent conſiſts of gold ducats, rubles, half rubles, quarter rubles, griveners or 10 copecks, copecks of ſilver, five copecks, two copecks, half and a quarter ditto. The ducat is worth two rubles; and the ruble is, in value, about 4s. 6d. ſterling. The half and quarter rubles are expreſſive of their own value. A grivener is the tenth part of a ruble, and a copeck is an hundredth part of the ſame.

The pound weight in Ruſſia is exactly the ſame as our pound apothecaries weight: 40 pounds make a pood; 40 poods a berkwitz; 63 poods a tort.

The liquid meaſures are as follow: 8 cruſkas make 1 vedro, 1 half vedro 1 ſtackan; 2 ſtackans 1 anchor; 6 anchors 1 hog, which is exactly the ſame as an Engliſh hogſhead.

The principal meaſure of extenſion is the verſt, which is 3500 feet, and 104 verſts make a degree; and the Ruſſians reckon diſtances by verſts, as the Engliſh do by miles.

Nothing certain can be ſaid concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly, at preſent, far ſuperior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vaſt exertions for promoting induſtry, made by his ſucceſſors, eſpecially her late imperial majeſty, muſt have greatly added to their income, which is little leſs than 30,000,000 of rubles, or nearly ſix millions ſterling annually; thus coputed:

	Rubles.
Capitation tax	8,500,000
Other taxes and duties	7,000,000
Her own eſtates, and other domains taken from the clergy	6,000,000
Produce of the mines	1,500,000
Monopoly of diſtilled liquors	4,000,000
Monopoly of ſalt	1,800,000
	28,800,000

According

According to Mr. Pleſcheef's computation, publiſhed in Engliſh by the reverend Mr. Smirnove, the revenues of Ruſſia exceed 40,000,000 of rubles; and the expenſes, even in time of war, are ſaid not to amount to 30,000,000.

When this ſum is conſidered relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great-Britain, it will be found a very conſiderable revenue. That it is ſo, appears from the vaſt armies maintained and paid by the two late empreſſes, in Germany, Poland, and elſewhere, when no part of the money returned to Ruſſia; nor do we find that they received any conſiderable ſubſidy from the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. In 1733, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the ſum total is ſaid to have amounted only to thirteen millions of rubles (each ruble amounting to 4s. 6d. ſterling.) This income was at that time ſufficient to maintain 339,500 men, employed in the land and ſea ſervice. The other expenſes, beſide the payment of the army and navy of the late empreſs, the number and diſcipline of which were at leaſt equal to thoſe of her greateſt predeceſſors, were very conſiderable. Her court was elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants ſplendid; and the encouragement ſhe gave to learning, the improvement of the arts, and uſeful diſcoveries, coſt her vaſt ſums, excluſive of her ordinary expenſes of ſtate.

Some of the Ruſſian revenues ariſe from monopolies, which are often neceſſary in the infancy of commerce. The moſt hazardous enterpriſe undertaken by Peter the Great, was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England, in ſeizing the revenues of the church. He found, perhaps, that policy and neceſſity required that the greateſt part of them ſhould be reſtored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his exceſſive power. The clergy are taxed in Ruſſia; but the pecuniary revenues of the crown ariſe from taxes upon eſtates, bagnios, bees, mills, fiſheries, and other particulars.

The Ruſſian armies are raiſed at little or no expenſe, and, while in their own country, ſubſiſt chiefly on proviſions furniſhed them by the country people according to their internal valuation. The pay of a ſoldier ſcarcely amounts to thirty ſhillings yearly; in garriſon he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a ſailor and a gunner is a ruble a month, and they are found with proviſions when on ſhore.

The chief cities and towns in Ruſſia are the following:

The czar, Peter the Great, being deſirous of opening a communication between Archangel and the Baltic, by means of the gulf of Finland, in order to improve the commerce of his dominions, determined to make himſelf maſter of Ingria, which he accordingly did in the beginning of this century. To render it an European maritime power, he determined on one of the moſt ſtupendous undertakings that ever was entered upon by human reſolution, the building the city of PETERSBURG, which he deſigned to make not only the capital of Ingria, but of the whole Ruſſian empire, the centre of trade, and the principal ſeat of the imperial reſidence. It is ſituated between Ingria and Finland, in a fenny iſland, ſurrounded by the river Nieva, in 60 deg. north lat. and 31 deg. 34 min. eaſt long.

A late traveller, who calls this city a creation of the preſent century, ſays further of it, "I am ſtruck with a pleaſing aſtoniſhment while I wander among havens, ſtreets, and public buildings, which have riſen, as by enchantment, within the memory of men ſtill alive; and have converted the marſhy iſlands of the Nieva into one of the moſt magnificent cities on the earth. The imagination, aided by ſo many viſible objects, riſes to the wondrous founder, and beholds, in idea, the titulary genius of Peter yet hovering over the child of his own production, and viewing, with a parent's fondneſs, its riſing palaces and temples. The names on which ancient ſtory dwells with ſo much fondneſs, ſink on a compariſon with this immortal man; and the fabulous legiſlators of Greece and Egypt never preſumed to attempt the mighty transformation which the czar completed. The followers of Cadmus, of Theſeus, and of Romulus, were animated with the ſame ardor as their leader; but the Muſcovites (Ruſſians) wrapt in the moſt profound barbariſm, ſecluded by their illiberal prejudices from an intercourſe with European nations, and equally the ſlaves of ſuperſtition and long preſcription, were forcibly torn from this night of ignorance, and compelled to accept of refinement and civilization.

The iſland on which this fine city has been ſo wonderfully raiſed, was nothing but a heap of mud in the ſhort ſummer of theſe climates, and a frozen pool in winter, not to be approached by land but by paſſing over wild foreſts and deep moraſſes, and had been till then the habitation of bears and wolves, when it was, in 1703, inhabited by above 300,000 Ruſſian, Tartar, Coſſack, &c. peaſants, whom the czar called together from all corners of his vaſt empire, ſome near 1200 miles; and theſe made a beginning of this work. He was obliged to break through foreſts, open ways, dry up moors, and raiſe banks, before he could lay the foundation. The whole was a force upon nature. At firſt the workmen had neither ſufficient proviſions, or even pick-axes, ſpades, wheel-barrows, planks, or huts to ſhelter in; yet the work went on ſo expeditiouſly, that, in five months, the fortreſs was raiſed; though earth thereabouts was ſo ſcarce, that the greateſt part of the labourers carried it in the ſkirts of their clothes, or in bags made of old rags and mats, barrows being then unknown to them. It is computed full 100,000 periſhed at the place; for the country had been deſolated by war, and ſupplies by Ladoga lake were often retarded by contrary winds. The czar himſelf drew the main plan. While the fortreſs was going on, the city began gradually to be built. He obliged many of the nobility, merchants, and tradeſmen, to go and live there, and trade in ſuch commodities as they were ordered. Proviſions being ſcarce, and conveniences wanting, the place, at firſt, was not at all agreeable to perſons of diſtinction, who had in Moſcow large buildings, and ſeats in the country, with fiſh-ponds, gardens, and other rural elegancies: however, he little regarded the complaints of thoſe who only conſidered their own eaſe. The boyars (nobility) brought great retinues with them; and merchants and ſhopkeepers ſoon found their account in ſettling here. Many Swedes, Finlanders, and Livonians, from towns nearly depopulated by the wars, continued here. Artificers, mechanics, and ſeamen, were invited hither, to encourage ſhipping; who, having worked out the time agreed on for the czar, were hired by the boyars; and alſo built for themſelves, and ſettled; each man being allowed to pitch on the ſpot he liked. In one year 30,000 houſes were erected, and, in two or three more, double the number, which doubtleſs are very much increaſed ſince. Some, indeed, but chiefly in the ſlabodas, or ſuburbs, are mean, and may be taken to pieces in two or three hours, and ſet up elſewhere. To build this town, that of Nienſchans (a ſtrong fort on the Nieva, not far from Noteburg) was demoliſhed for the materials, and the inhabitants removed hither. As he intended to remove

the

the trade of Archangel to Peterſburg, in 1713 he made 1000 families come from Moſcow, and offered great advantages to all foreigners that ſhould ſettle there; and ordered that all goods uſually ſent to Archangel, to be ſold, &c. to ſtrangers, ſhould be ſent hither, and the duties to be in every reſpect the ſame. But the commerce, &c. were not entirely removed till ſome years after. In 1714 it was ordered that all houſes ſhould be built of brick, and tiled.

The citadel is a long and irregular hexagon, with ſix baſtions parallel to each other, except the two middlemoſt, one of which, oppoſite to Carelia, has two orillons or blinds; that over-againſt the river none; each of the four others one. They were all, at firſt, but earth and turf; but, in 1710, the czar reſolved to have them all lined with ſtrong walls. Thoſe on Carelia ſide were finiſhed in his life-time; and the work has been carried on and completed by his ſucceſſors. The wall is thirty feet high to the parapet, and the faces are all lined with large iron and braſs guns. On the flanks, which are pretty ſhort, are two rows of cazemattes, one above the other, arched over, and covered with beams and turf, bomb-proof. The curtain on the right of this citadel's gates has one of the fineſt royal diſpenſaries in Europe, both for the great quantity of drugs and medicines, and the large number of beautiful porcelane veſſels from China and Japan, which it contains. This citadel has two gates; one adorned with ſtatues, particularly St. Peter with his two emblematic keys, and on its inſide the black eagle of Ruſſia, with the globe and the ſceptre in its two talons; and below is the figure of the Ruſſian Saint Nicholas. Before that gate is a ravelin, from whence is a bridge, with two draw-bridges over an arm of the river. In this place gallies and ſmall veſſels are ſheltered from bad weather.

The academy eſtabliſhed by Peter the Great has a multiplicity of profeſſors in moſt ſciences, and the belles lettres, who have liberal ſalaries. The building is a ſuperb pile, containing two ſtories, with a beautiful cupola in the middle, and an obſervatory. Here is a good library, and all manner of natural and artificial curioſities. "In one of the galleries (ſays a curious obſerver) in a caſe, is the ſkin of a Frenchman tanned and ſtuffed. This has been the talleſt man I ever ſaw. In another caſe is his ſkeleton, and a pair of breeches made of his wife's ſkin, alſo dreſſed. The leather was like buff. On the bottom, or pavement, ſtands the ſkin of an Engliſh chefnut horſe, ſtuffed, ſaddled, and bridled, and beſide it the ſkeleton: Peter the Great uſed to ride this horſe. Here I ſaw the head of the unfortunate Miſs Hamilton, a Swediſh lady, who loſt it for having murdered her child unlawfully begotten; and this is the only murder of that kind I ever heard of in Ruſſia. This lady was maid of honour to the empreſs Catharine. It is ſaid Peter went and ſaw her executed. He wept much, but could not prevail upon himſelf to pardon her. He cauſed her head to be capped and injected. The forehead is almoſt complete. The face is the beautifulleſt my eyes ever beheld. The *dura mater*, and brain, are all preſerved in their natural ſituation. This is kept in ſpirits in a large cryſtal veſſel."

Beſides the above here are depoſited great quantities of earths, foſſils, ſtones, ores, natural metals, minerals, ſhells, moſſes, corals, &c. In one room is a figure of Peter the Great in wax-work, as large as life. He ſits in an elbow chair croſs-legged, dreſſed in a blue ſuit of clothes, white ſtockings, and has a hanger by his ſide. He has ſhort black hair, his head covered; and the figure is ſurrounded by mathematical, philoſophical, and mechanical inſtruments.

†

Peter the Great alſo formed regulations for the management of this ſeminary. Theſe referred to the profeſſors, the ſtudents, the reſpective ſciences, the ſucceſſion to offices, and other particulars conducive to the intereſt of the inſtitution in general.

Peterſburg is amazingly increaſed in ſize within theſe ſixty years. At the death of Peter the Great, it did not contain 80,000 inhabitants; and now the Ruſſians aſſert that there are 500,000; but this is deemed an exaggeration. It covers a very great extent of land and water. The ſtreets are ſome of them very broad, long, and with canals in the middle of them; and others are planted in the Dutch faſhion. The houſes are immenſely large. The palaces of the nobility exceed in ſize thoſe of moſt cities. That of the emperor is an amazing ſtructure. But theſe are rather great than beautiful: the ſize is all that ſtrikes; and the buildings are ſtuck ſo thick with ornaments, that there is hardly any ſuch thing as judging of their proportions. The Italian architecture is mixed with the Dutch, and the whole forms very inelegant piles, in which true taſte is totally ſacrificed to a profuſion of ornament. But if the eye does not ſcrutinize into the ſeparate parts of the buildings, but takes only the ſtreets at large, the city may be fairly pronounced a very fine one.

Among the public buildings there are many extremely worthy the attention of a traveller, particularly the dock-yards, the naval magazines, the arſenal, foundery, admiralty, &c. without inſiſting on the imperial palace, the cathedral, or many churches. In the docks they continually employ a great number of carpenters. They build here all ſorts of veſſels, from ſhips of 120 guns down to boats; and the number on the ſtocks at a time is conſiderable. After the death of Peter the Great the marine was neglected, inſomuch that the empreſs's naval ſtrength was not computed to be a fifth part of what that great monarch poſſeſſed; and this was owing to a want of trade, which can alone make ſeamen; unleſs when in the hands of ſuch a man as Peter, who created every thing. But the late empreſs, who has thrown the ſpirit of that great monarch into all the departments of the ſtate, has revived it wonderfully; ſo that, at preſent, the Ruſſians have a formidable navy.

There is ſcarcely any thing at Peterſburg more deſerving notice than the foundery. The iron is brought from Kexholm by water; and the number of cannon and mortars that are caſt here is very great; alſo cannon balls, and all ſorts of military implements in which iron is uſed; which are made here at as ſmall an expence as in Sweden, or any other part of the world. The arſenal is always well ſtored with them; and there are vaſt quantities made on a private account for exportation, forming a very conſiderable branch of commerce.

The grand market-place is on the ſouthernmoſt part of the city, with many warehouſes, to depoſit all kinds of commodities and merchandize, both domeſtic and foreign, for ſale. It is a large ſquare, with four entries, and a range of ſhops on each ſide, both within and without, with covered galleries, to ſecure thoſe who frequent it from the rain.

Woollen and linen manufactories were ſet up here, of which the latter is brought to great perfection, as we may obſerve by the linen of late imported from thence. Here is particularly a workhouſe, where an old Dutch woman has eighty young nymphs under her care, who are taught, with a whip, how to handle the ſpinning-wheel; and ſeveral regulations are made for improving the plantations of hemp and flax. Paper-mills and powder-mills have alſo been erected, with laboratories for gunneries and fire-works; and other places for preparing ſalt-petre and brimſtone. Rope-yards,

like

like thoſe in England and Holland, for making of cables and tackling for the navy, are alſo ſet up here. A printing-houſe is eſtabliſhed, and newspapers are now as regularly printed as in other countries of Europe. Several uſeful books have been tranſlated out of the High Dutch, and printed; the government encouraging their ſubjects to enquire into the ſtate of the world abroad, inſtead of keeping them in ignorance, according to their ancient maxims. As to their ſilk and woollen manufactures, they have not been able hitherto to bring them to any degree of perfection.

At a little diſtance from Peterſburg is a noble ſeminary for educating females only, founded by the late empreſs Elizabeth. The building is capacious and grand. Children of diſtinction are kept ſeparate from thoſe of an inferior rank; and the whole contains between 700 and 800 females.

Near the Nieva is a ſmall palace, built by the late empreſs, and called *The Hermitage*. When her majeſty reſided in this building, ſhe was in retreat, and there was no drawing room or court. Theſe apartments are very elegant, and furniſhed with great taſte. There are two galleries or paintings, which have been lately purchaſed, at an immenſe expence, in Italy. The crown, in the palace itſelf, is perhaps the richeſt in Europe. It is ſhaped like a bonnet, and totally covered with diamonds. In the ſceptre is the celebrated one purchaſed by prince Orloff for 500,000 rubles, (112,500l.) and preſented by him to his ſovereign miſtreſs. It far exceeds Pitt's diamond in ſize, and is not inferior in water. Lapidaries declare it the moſt beautiful and rare ever brought from Golconda. One of the nobleſt monuments of the gratitude and veneration univerſally paid to Peter I. is that which the empreſs Catherine II. had ordered to be erected: it is an equeſtrian ſtatue; in which production the artiſt has united the greateſt ſimplicity with trueſt ſublimity of conception. No other ſtatuary, whether ancient or modern, gave him the deſign, which is ſingular in its kind, and admirably adapted to expreſs the character of the man, and of the people over whom he reigned. Inſtead of a pedeſtal adorned with inſcriptions, or ſurrounded by ſlaves, he appears mounted on a rock, or ſtone of a prodigious ſize, upon the aſcent of which the horſe labours, and appears to have nearly reached its ſummit. This attitude has given him room to exert great anatomical beauty and ſkill in the muſcles of the horſe's hind parts and hams, on which the whole of his body is neceſſarily ſuſtained. The czar's figure is full of fire and ſpirit. He ſits on a bear-ſkin, and is clad in a ſimple habit, not characteriſtic of any particular country, but ſuch as may be worn without violation of propriety by an inhabitant of any country.

About twenty miles weſt from Peterſburg is the beautiful palace of Peterſhoff, ſituated on an eminence, in a large garden, commanding a fine view, and ſurrounded by many out-houſes, offices, &c. for ſervants and attendants. It faces the ſouth; and, in the front, there is a beautiful canal of clear tranſparent water, from which three *jets d'eau* are ſupplied, and conſtantly play. When the emperor is here, the guards are encamped in a part of the garden, where their tents make a very agreeable appearance. In ſpeaking of one of theſe *jets d'eau*, a curious traveller ſays, "Out of the water, much to my agreeable ſurprize, aroſe a dog and three ducks, made of copper, or iron, and, in appearance, all alive. The ducks flutter through the water quacking, the dog follows after them barking. There is, in a ſubterraneous place, a charming chime of cryſtal bells, which play by water. The grotto, which is covered before by a caſcade, has two entries, one on each ſide. The entries are guarded by ſtatues, which, when you are in, prevent any one from getting out, till the keeper, by turning a handle, puts a ſtop to them. Theſe ſtatues evacuate ſo much water, by vomiting and ſhooting out of ſtone piſtols and guns, that the keeper ſaid it would overwhelm any man. Beſides the curioſities before mentioned, there is a beautiful gallery full of the fineſt china in the world; in one end of which is a ſmall but commodious room, with a bed in it, whither the late empreſs ſometimes retired to repoſe herſelf.

The apartments here are all ſplendid and nobly furniſhed; and among the paintings there are five matchleſs portraits of the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, viz. 1. Peter the Great. 2. The Livonian Villager, whoſe virtues raiſed her from a cottage to an imperial diadem, and to ſhare the bed of Peter the Great. 3. The empreſs Anne. 4. The empreſs Elizabeth. 5. The late empreſs Catherine II.

Such was the foundation, and ſuch is the preſent ſtate, of the city of Peterſburg, as appears from the moſt authentic and modern accounts we could poſſibly ſelect. The only material circumſtance relative to it, which remains to be mentioned, is the dreadful inundation and hurricane which happened in 1777, and were productive of the moſt fatal effects.

An account tranſmitted from Peterſburg to London, thus ſtates the particulars of this calamitous event:

"An inundation happened here, more extenſive and deſtructive than has ever been remembered in theſe parts. A violent hurricane of wind, at weſt-ſouth-weſt, which began about two o'clock in the morning, raiſed the waters, in the ſhort time of four hours, to the height of fourteen feet above the ordinary level of the Nieva, by which the whole town, and a great extent of the country in the neighbourhood, was rapidly overflowed. The water remained about half an hour at its extreme height; but the wind getting a little to the northward between ſix and ſeven o'clock, it returned, in a very ſhort time, to its uſual bounds. It is impoſſible to eſtimate, with any degree of exactneſs, the loſs which the ſtate and individuals ſuffered. The number of perſons drowned amounted to ſeveral hundreds. In the beſt parts of the town many houſes were unroofed; and the loſs of liquors, and other proviſions, in the cellars and lower apartments, was very great. In the ſhops (which are all in the ſame quarter of the town), goods were deſtroyed to a very conſiderable amount. In the gardens of the ſummer-palace, great numbers of the fineſt trees were broken or torn up by the roots. The lower ſkirts of the town, where the houſes are moſtly of wood, and inhabited by the poorer ſort of people, preſented a ſcene of deſolation which can be more eaſily imagined than deſcribed. Many perſons were drowned in their beds; and others, who ſought for ſafety from the waters on the roofs of their houſes, were carried from thence by the violence of the wind; and thoſe who eſcaped with life, were left deſtitute of habitations and effects. Great damage was done at the quay of the exchange, and the lower magazines and warehouſes. Numbers of barks, laden with iron, hemp, grain, wood, &c. to a very great amount, were ſtaved, ſunk, or driven in pieces in the ſtreets or fields. Several large veſſels, lying between this place and Cronſtadt, were driven aſhore into woods and gardens. Many of the country houſes in the neighbourhood were deſtroyed. The village of Catherinehoff, and ſome others on the ſame coaſt, were entirely ſwept away, with all the cattle, and many lives were loſt there, as well as on the ſide of the Galley Haven, where the ground is very low. The great bridge of boats over the Nieva was carried away; and moſt of the bridges in the town, except

thoſe on the new ſtone quay, (no part of which ſuffered any material damage) were torn up.

"According to accurate obſervations, it appeared that the waters roſe a foot and a half higher than in the great inundation which happened here in the year 1752. The plays of the court theatre were ſtopped for ſome time, on account of this public calamity. Arrangements were made to give all poſſible relief to the poor ſufferers.

"The empreſs, with a degree of humanity that will ever do honour to her character, ordered the royal coffers to be opened to thoſe who had ſuffered moſt materially by the tempeſt."

After Peter the Great had laid the foundation of his new city of Peterſburg, and made ſome progreſs in the buildings, he thought it neceſſary to have a convenient harbour in which the ſhipping might ride ſecure, and pitched upon the iſland of Retriſari, at the mouth of the gulph of Finland. There he built a new town called Cronſtadt, and ſecured it with a caſtle called Cronſlot, ſituated on a ſand bank near the ſide of Ingria; ſo that between the caſtle and the town, the ſhipping ride in a ſafe, deep, and commodious harbour. The caſtle is built in the form of a round tower, and three tier of galleries, well furniſhed with cannon, ſurround it. In caſes of emergency, the piers of the harbour may be mounted with a conſiderable train of artillery; and two ſmall batteries at preſent are ſituated on the oppoſite iſland.

Between Cronſtadt and Peterſburg are many elegant houſes; and on an iſland formed by the river Nieva, near the weſtern banks of the lake Ladoga, is the ſtrong fortreſs and ſeaport of Noteburg, or Oreſco. It was taken from the Swedes by Peter the Great in the year 1702. With reſpect to the other towns, Nieuſchan is demoliſhed. Iwanogorod is a ſtrong caſtle oppoſite to Narva; from which, at the diſtance of 45 miles, is the fortreſs of Caporia, ſituated on the banks of a ſmall river.—Fifteen miles to the north-eaſt of Iwanogorod is Jama, another fortreſs, built on the river of the ſame name.

The building of Peterſburg, and raiſing it on a ſudden from a few fiſhing huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps an enterprize hardly to be paralleled in antiquity. The ſame may be ſaid of the fortreſs of Cronſtadt, in the neighbourhood of Peterſburg, which is almoſt impregnable. This fortreſs and city employed for ſome years 300,000 men in laying its foundation, and driving piles night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The whole plan, with a very little aſſiſtance from ſome German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raiſed to his people, at the time when they could hardly be ſaid to have poſſeſſed a ſhip in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in perſon in all thoſe amazing works, with the ſame aſſiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

The adjacent country is covered with country houſes and gardens; but the ſoil is ſo extremely barren, that the town is obliged to be ſupplied with proviſions from a great diſtance, and of conſequence they are very dear. There are great quantities of woods, conſiſting of pine, fir, alder, poplar, birch, and elm; but the oak and beech are generally brought from Caſan. The weather in winter is exceeding cold, and exceſſive hot in ſummer. In June the length of the night does not exceed three hours, during which the natives enjoy a continued twilight; but in December the ſun is not viſible more than three hours above the horizon.

Moſcow, the capital, once the metropolis of, and the greateſt city in, the whole Ruſſian empire, lies in lat. 55. 42. long. 38. 45. eaſt, and is ſeated in a fine ſpacious plain, on the river of its name, over which it hath a ſtately bridge of twelve arches, of a prodigious height and breadth, becauſe that river often overflows. It was built by prince Gaſiſchin, from the deſign of a Poliſh monk. The town ſtands in a gravelly ſoil, and wholeſome air, and almoſt in the centre of the beſt provinces of Muſcovy. The population of this city cannot be aſcertained. In 1662, when lord Carliſle was ambaſſador there from king Charles II. it was twelve miles in compaſs, full of houſes and inhabitants, inſomuch that the number of the former is, by the loweſt calculations, ſaid to have amounted to 40,000; and by the Ruſſians affirmed to have been above double that number. According to Voltaire, Moſcow, when he wrote, was twenty miles in circumference, and its inhabitants amounted to 500,000; but it is almoſt impoſſible to form a preciſe eſtimate of their preſent number. The houſes are, in general, miſerable timber booths, which always have ſubjected the city to dreadful conflagrations.

This great city is of a circular form, and conſiſts of four diſtinct parts, or quarters, all ſurrounded with a diſtinct wall, viz. Cataigorod, Czargorod, Skorodom, and Strelitze-Slaboda, ſo called becauſe it was formerly the quarter of the Strelitzes, or czar's guards.

The Cataigorod, or middle city, is ſurrounded with a brick wall; and on this ſtands the caſtle, which is two miles in circuit, and fortified with three ſtout walls, ſtately towers, and a foſſe. In the caſtle are two palaces of the czar, one of timber, the other of ſtone, built after the Italian manner; the patriarchal palace, a large ancient building; the exchequer, chancery, and other offices; the grand magazine; two handſome monaſteries; five large churches, among which is that noble one of St. Michael, in which are the tombs of the grand dukes, or czars. There are ſeveral other ſtately buildings in this great caſtle. At the gate ſtands that ſtately ancient fabric called the church of Jeruſalem.

Near the churches are hung ſeveral large bells, one of which is of a ſtupendous ſize. Concerning the celebrated great bell of Moſcow, a learned traveller ſays, "I went to ſee the great bell, which was then in a large pit. A fire had, about two months before this, burnt down about two thirds of this great city, and the belfry, being all of timber, ſhared the ſame fate. The bell fell into the bottom of the pit, and had a piece broken out of its edge, large enough to permit any man to go into it. Its weight is 443,772 pounds, and its height about twenty-one feet four inches and a half. I then went to the top of a very high tower, called Iwan Veliki, or the Great John. From this tower I had a complete view of the whole city, which, indeed, made a very grand appearance.—The weather being very cold, the Ruſſians heat their ſtoves before day-light, and make uſe of a fire at no time of the day except to get dinner ready; ſo that the view is never but at thoſe times obſtructed by the ſmoke. Upon the top of this tower there are three bells, I think the leaſt of which is larger than the largeſt in London. Under the tower is the ancient imperial palace, a large Gothic ſtone building. All theſe which I have mentioned, and all the imperial ancient archives, and different courts of juſtice, are in that part of the city called the Crimline, which is ſurrounded by a high brick wall, ſaid to be about 2090 paces in circumference."

This quarter is called Cataigorod from Catai, the ancient and Ruſſian name of China, becauſe the chief merchandizes ſold in it come from that country: ſo that the name implies the ſame as the Chineſe city.

The

The Czargorod, or ducal city, contains, among other buildings, the great arſenal, and is watered by the Negliga, which runs through it, and thence flows into the ditch that ſurrounds the middle city.

The quarter called Skorodom, or Scoradum, is chiefly inhabited by timber-mongers and carpenters, who ſell houſes ready made. Theſe houſes are moveable, ſold very cheap, and in great numbers: and, indeed, conſidering the frequent fires that happen in this city, owing either to drunkenneſs, a reigning vice here, or to the neglect of putting out the candles, which they light to ſome favourite ſaint, in their houſes and chambers, they have need of ſuch a large market to repair to on thoſe occaſions. It is called Scoradum, which, in the Ruſſian language, ſignifies done in haſte, alluding to the ſpeedy raiſing of the mud wall that ſurrounds it.

The Strelitze-Slaboda, formerly the quarter of the ſoldiers, or guards, ſtands on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt ſide of the Cataigorod and the caſtle; and is itſelf ſurrounded and fortified with wooden ramparts, and divided from the reſt by the river Moſcow; for which reaſon it is ſtiled a ſlaboda, or ſuburb.

Though the houſes of the people in common are poor huts, thoſe of the nobility and opulent, are fine fabricks of brick and ſtone; moſt of them having, on the back part, large courts and gardens, which are ſpacious, in ample order, and ſurrounded with high and ſtrong walls. The ſtreets are not paved with ſtones, but boarded with thick fir planks.

Churches and chapels here, including thoſe that belong to monaſteries, are computed to amount to above 1500. Some of them are very large and ſtately; that, particularly, which is in the Crimline, or grand imperial palace, is a vaſt, ancient building: on the right ſide of the altar is the czar's throne, and on the left that of the patriarch; and in the body of the church hangs a chandelier of immenſe weight and value. The very jewels, and other coſtly ornaments, that enrich a picture of the Virgin Mary here, are valued at half a ton weight of gold; beſides a vaſt number of chalices, pixes, patins, ſtatues, and other church utenſils of gold and ſilver, finely wrought, and enriched with precious ſtones; a vaſt number of other prieſtly veſtments of great value, and an immenſe quantity of donations and preſents offered to the relics of three eminent Ruſſian ſaints, which are here interred. So that the treaſure of this church is deemed equal to that of any church in Europe.

The ſuperb church of Saboor is 90 feet in length, hath a ſtately dome, ſupported by four large pillars, and is, though in the ancient ſtile, magnificent within and without. That of St. Michael is the repoſitory of the dead czars, and of all the royal family of the male ſex. The bodies of the princeſſes of the blood are interred in the ſtately abbey of the nuns, called Tzudoff Monaſtir, in the ſame caſtle, and near the church above mentioned. The tombs of the princes who never reigned, are in a ſeparate chapel. The palls with which their coffins are covered are ſuperb. Thoſe of the czars, eſpecially, are of the fineſt velvet, and have either a maſſy or embroidered golden crucifix upon them, of curious workmanſhip, and enriched with vaſt variety of coſtly ornaments, eſpecially inſcriptions, which are moſtly done with pearls and other precious ſtones.

Monaſteries of men and women are here numerous; and, in general, next to the palaces and noblemen's houſes, ſome of the beſt edifices in the city; the founders of them having ſpared no coſt to adorn them with curious architecture, paintings, gardens, and every thing that is convenient and beautiful. There is one called Dewitze Monaſtir, about a mile out of the city, in which the ambitious princeſs Sophia, who had concerted ſo many plots againſt her brother the czar Peter I. was at length confined, and ended her days. It is ſituated on a ſpacious plain, and hath 300 nuns belonging to it, who lead a very regular life, and never ſtir out of their limits, as ſome others are permitted to do. Theſe are only allowed, on holidays, to walk on the terraces round their gardens, which are raiſed to a convenient height for them to enjoy the proſpect of the adjacent plain.

Of the monaſtery, church of Jeruſalem, &c. a late traveller gives the following account: "The church, biſhops, prieſts houſes, &c. are all encloſed with high brick walls; the wall, forming one ſide of the biſhop's palace, is built on a beautiful detached hill; having on the eaſt, north, and weſt, the fineſt lawns in the world, through which glides a noble river. In the plain, upon the banks of the river, ſtands the builder's romantic houſe, all built of ſtone. It is quite alone, three ſtories in height, in every one of which are four rooms, except the ground ſtory, where are his kitchen, ſtore-room, and a room for his attendants. The area of each of theſe rooms is but about eight, or at moſt but nine feet ſquare. In every one is a ſmall ſtove. His bedſtead is of ſtone, as are his bed and pillow; his chairs are of the ſame materials. Every ſtory of his houſe is vaulted; and it is flat on the roof, for the conveniency of taking a view of the country. It has but one entry, and every room receives light from one window of the leaſt ſize. The builder was a hermit, and a religious devotee. The hoſpital is not large, but well provided with every neceſſary, but medicine, prayers being (in their opinion) ſufficient to cure all diſeaſes which appear in this holy place. At the weſt end of the church is a moſt capacious cupola. The dome is very magnificent and high, with a gallery which ſurrounds it near the top. The windows are large, and it is well lighted. The walls are all hung round with various pictures of the ſaints, very richly adorned with ſilver, gold, pearls, and precious ſtones; and the altar is very grand, and adorned with various pieces of curious workmanſhip.

The late czar Peter I. founded here three colleges, which he took care to fill up with men well verſed in arts and ſciences, and all kinds of literature, for the poliſhing of the next generation. The firſt is for humanity, rhetoric, and philoſophy; the ſecond for mathematics; and the third for navigation, aſtronomy, and other ſciences ſubſervient to them. In all theſe, youth are kept under ſtrict diſcipline, and have, at the ſame time, all due encouragement to excel in their reſpective ſtudies. To theſe the ſame prince added a diſpenſary, which is not only one of the fineſt ſtructures in Moſcow, but one of the beſt furniſhed with all ſorts of medicines, drugs, &c. in Europe. It is put under the care of ſome Germans, who are allowed the beſt maſters in that art, though the moſt ſlovenly in their compoſitions, never ſtudying to pleaſe the eye or taſte in their preſcriptions, as we do in England, but nauſeate their patients by the inelegance of their drugs, which could not poſſibly be taken by the people of any other country. This diſpenſary hath a yearly revenue of 20,000 rubles, to renew their *materia medica*; and furniſhes not only all the army, but likewiſe all the principal cities in the empire with medicines.

We cannot omit to mention, in this place, the foundling hoſpital, founded by the empreſs Catherine II. ſupported by voluntary contributions, well endowed, and conducted by very judicious regulations. It is a grand pile of building, and contained 3000 foundlings ſome few years ago; but

but their number is, in all probability, now much increaſed. The children are taken great care of, and, at the age of fourteen, have the liberty of chooſing any particular branch of trade; and for that purpoſe there are different ſpecies of manufactures eſtabliſhed in the hoſpital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeſhip, they are allowed the liberty of ſetting up for themſelves. A ſum of money is beſtowed upon each foundling; and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Ruſſian empire. This is a great privilege in Ruſſia, where the peaſants are ſlaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permiſſion of their maſters.

The courts of judicature, cuſtom-houſe, and other offices, are generally large, and built of ſtone, and reſemble gaols, and, indeed, are ſuch in ſome ſenſe; having apartments for debtors, as well as criminals, who are kept there chained up. Juſtice is, in general, adminiſtered with ſome ſtrictneſs and ſeverity; but the people here being naturally lazy, and given to drinking, the whole city ſwarms with beggars and vagabonds, and moſtly of ſuch a ſturdy breed, that it is dangerous to deny them alms. This makes it very hazardous to walk in the ſtreets in the night; for they frequently lurk in corners, with a ſhort truncheon, or bludgeon, in their hands, which they throw at the heads of paſſengers with ſuch dexterity, that they ſeldom fail of knocking them down, after which they rob and murder them, and go off. Theſe diſaſters have happened more frequently on holidays, and eſpecially during the carnival. When a perſon was found murdered, they carried the body to a certain place, where it lay expoſed a day or two; and, if it was not owned, it was flung into a deep large pit, made to ſerve on all ſuch occaſions. On the Whitſuntide holidays ſome prieſts come thither to ſay maſs for their ſouls.

Murders were formerly ſo frequent in Moſcow, that few nights paſſed without ſome people being found dead in the ſtreets in the morning. The villains went in ſtrong parties, and ſlew before they robbed. This they did with ſo little fear, that they often performed it before the perſon's own door; and the terror of theſe ruffians was ſo great, that none of the neighbours dared to aſſiſt the unhappy victim, for fear of being butchered themſelves, or, at leaſt, having their houſes burnt. This obliged people, who had occaſion to be in the ſteets in the night, to go in companies together, or have a ſufficient guard of ſervants on horſeback to attend them. The weapon uſed by theſe ruffians was called a *dubien*, which was a long ſtick, with a round knob at one end, and made heavy with iron, with which they ſtruck a man dead at one ſtroke; and if any one of them happened to be taken, a good ſum of money, from the gang they belonged to, would generally get them off.

The highways were alſo much infeſted by theſe *raſbonies*, as they were called, which made it very dangerous travelling in any part of Ruſſia; for they had their ſpies in the towns, who informed them when any perſon was to ſet out on a journey, and how they were to be attended. According to this information they prepared themſelves for an attack, and way-laid them in ſome wood through which they were to paſs.

The writer of this account was informed by a gentleman of rank and veracity, that the czar himſelf had been attacked in his younger days, in the following manner. Going upon a viſit one evening, attended by two ſervants, the one riding before, and the other ſtanding behind the ſledge, up came a ſledge with eight raſbonies in it, and were juſt going to faſten his ſledge to theirs with a grappling iron, which they commonly uſed on theſe occaſions; but the czar being then young, ſtout, and vigorous, got up and ſeized one of the robbers by the hair of the head, pulled him out of their ſledge, and keeping his hold, drove out of their reach, dragging the fellow along with him till he reached the houſe of the nobleman he intended to viſit, which he entered all in a ſweat, ſtill holding the fellow by the hair.

When the ruffian underſtood it was the czar they had attacked, he ſhook and trembled, ſaying, if they had known who he was, they would not have meddled with him; and then begged he might be put to death without being put to the torture. To this his majeſty conſented, on condition that he diſcovered the reſt of his gang; but this he would not do, without a promiſe of his life, and a reward, which was alſo granted him; and he went with a detachment of ſoldiers to the rendezvous of his companions, and, coming to the houſe, he called to them to open the door. On hearing his voice they directly opened it; ſo that the ſoldiers ruſhed in, and ſeized not only his ſeven accomplices, but thirteen others of the ſame gang, who were ſoon after all executed, except the informer.

At another time the czar was attacked on his way from Moſcow to Novogorod, when he was attended by four ſervants only. Going from Tever he was ſtopped by a ſtrong party of raſbonies, on which he immediately jumped out of his ſledge with a ſword drawn in one hand, and a cocked piſtol in the other, and told them he was the czar, aſking them what they wanted? They replied they were poor fellows, reduced to great want; and as he was their lord and maſter, he was the propereſt perſon to relieve them. He told them he had no money about him; to which they anſwered, if he had, they would take none from him; but deſired that he would give them a written order to the governor Novogorod, for what ſum he pleaſed to beſtow upon them; begging that it might be ſuch as would relieve them from their ſtraits. The czar then aſked them if 1000 rubles would be ſufficient; and on their ſaying it would, he wrote an order for that ſum, payable at ſight; for which they diſpatched one of their number, who very ſoon returned with the money. They then obliged the czar to return to Tever, and to pledge his royal word not to proſecute, or even inquire after them; promiſing to amend their lives, and become good ſubjects for the future. Inſtead of proceeding to Novogorod, the czar returned back to Moſcow.

The city of Moſcow is much decayed from its ancient grandeur and opulence, ſince the building of that of Peterſburg. However, it is full of inhabitants; and all kinds of proviſions are brought to it in great plenty, and ſold very cheap; fiſh being the only dear food, which is occaſioned both by the number of inhabitants, the four lents, and other faſts, that are obſerved by the Ruſſians. This cheapneſs hath ſo far lowered the price of land all about the country, that the nobility and gentry are great ſufferers by it, their eſtates being reduced to little more than one-third of what they formerly brought in, when the city was in its flouriſhing ſtate. The canal, made by the order and direction of the late Peter the Great, to open a communication between this metropolis and his new-built and favourite city of Peterſburg, and, by that means, to the Baltic and German Ocean, is a great and noble work, which hath been ſome time finiſhed, at an immenſe charge and labour, running between two cities, which, in a direct line, ſtand near 90 leagues aſunder. It begins at Peterſburg, on the river Niewa, or Nieva, which empties itſelf into the gulf of Finland, and going up that river quite to the lake of Ladoga, croſſes it at the ſouth end, and enters into the Woltoff, another river, which flows thither from the province of Novogorod.

gorod. From the capital of that province begins what is properly called the artificial canal, which, paſſing through the territories of Brognitz, Chreſtitz, Chilolova, Witſchna-Voloſcha, Torſchock, the province of Twere, and the diſtrict of Kiln, reaches, at length, the city of Moſcow, and enriches it by the vaſt quantities of merchandize that are brought to and from that capital.

There is a very conſiderable manufacture at Moſcow of various hemp fabricks, particularly ſail-cloth and ſheeting, which employs ſome thouſands of looms, and many thouſands of people.—The hemp is moſt of it brought from the Ukraine. There are alſo great numbers of conſiderable merchants here, who carry on a very extenſive commerce with all parts of the empire; for there is water-carriage from hence to the Black and Caſpian Seas, and with but few interruptions to the Baltic alſo, which are circumſtances that make it the centre of a very great commerce.

This city is much better ſituated for the metropolis of the empire than Peterſburg. It is almoſt in the centre of the moſt cultivated parts of it; communicating, in the manner above mentioned, with the three inland ſeas, not at a great diſtance from the moſt important province of the empire, the Ukraine; open to the ſouthern territories on the Black Sea; and, by means of the rivers Wolga and Don, commanding an inland navigation of prodigious extent. Its vicinity alſo to the countries which muſt always be the ſeat of any wars with the Turks, the enemies moſt to be attended to of all thoſe with whom the Ruſſians wage war, upon the whole made it infinitely a better ſituation for the ſeat of government than that of Peterſburg, which is at the very extremity of the empire, and poſſeſſing few of theſe advantages. Founding that city, and making it the ſeat of foreign commerce and naval power, was an admirable exertion of genius; but the ſeat of government, in our opinion, ſhould always have been at Moſcow.

It is almoſt impoſſible to make an exact eſtimate of the preſent dimenſions and population of Moſcow. Voltaire ſays, when he wrote, that it was twenty miles in circumference, and the inhabitants amounted to 500,000.

Riga is the capital, not only of Letten, but of all Livonia. It is the moſt conſiderable place for trade, next to Peterſburg, in the Ruſſian dominions. It ſtands very advantageouſly for commerce, near the mouth of the river Dwina, which, with its branches, extending a great way into Poland and Ruſſia, bring immenſe quantities of commodities, which are exported from this city. Among theſe the principal are hemp, flax, timber for maſts and other purpoſes, pitch, tar, and pot aſhes. All theſe commodities are produced in the provinces, or near them, through which thoſe rivers run; and ſome of them, by means of ſhort land carriage, from one river to another, much further; even from the Ukraine and the Poliſh provinces that border upon Turkey. Charles IX. king of Sweden, beſieged Riga unſucceſsfully in 1605, and again in 1609; but his ſon and ſucceſſor, Guſtavus Adolphus, was more fortunate, and took it in 1620. Riga is well fortified; having ſtrong walls, bulwarks, a very large trench on the land ſide, and a ſtrong caſtle on the river, where the governor-general of Livonia reſides. There is alſo a fort oppoſite the town, on the other ſide of the river, which is called fort Kobber, or Kobrums. The harbour is ſecurely guarded by the Dunamond Fort, or, as it is called, the Dunamunder-Schans, ſeated about ſix miles below the city, near the mouth of the river Dwina, as its name declares, and is a fortreſs of great importance, commanding the paſſage of Riga; ſo that, without leave from the governor, no ſhip can ſail thither.

The inhabitants of Riga are a frank kind of people, and very polite to ſtrangers. They live by their trade; and have, by their policy, kept up hitherto a ſhare of liberty. Their city is governed by four magiſtrates; and they have alſo a great number of counſellors, and a ſyndic. Their magiſtrates have a ſalary annexed to their office; and they are not permitted to trade during their magiſtracy, which, though elective, may continue as long as they live, provided they pleaſe their council. They have great power in the city; but if any think they have not juſtice done them, the appeal to St. Peterſburgh, and frequently get the magiſtrates ſentence reverſed. The women are handſome, rather bulky, but of fine features. The unmarried women are kept in good order; but, it is ſaid, that, after marriage, they do not pay a great regard to chaſtity. The ladies of quality are very vain, but at the ſame time polite to thoſe who pay them reſpect. Merchants wives, and other idle women, are to be ſeen at the doors of their houſes almoſt through the whole day, for no other reaſon than to ſee the gentlemen paſs by, and receive their compliments. To ſuch a length is this abſurd cuſtom arrived, that the men ſcarcely can be covered one moment, and therefore walk with their hats under their arms.

The bridge over the Dwina is one of the moſt ſurprizing in Europe, being 900 paces in length. It conſiſts of tranſverſe beams of timber joined together, and riſes or falls with the tide. It is always taken to pieces before the froſt ſets in, which happens in November, and put up as ſoon as the ice is gone. The inhabitants of the city of Riga itſelf are about 8000 in number, and the ſuburbs contain about as many more.

WOLOGDA, ſituated on both ſides of a river of the ſame name, is a large and populous city, inhabited by a rich trading people. This is the paſs through which all commodities muſt be conveyed to and from Archangel; and here are a number of magazines and ſtores, kept by the merchants of England, Holland, and other nations. The city is ſurrounded with a ſubſtantial ſtone wall, and defended by a fortreſs ſo ſtrong, that in times of danger the czars ſend hither their moſt valuable effects for ſafety. Wologda ſtands about ſeventy-five leagues to the northward of Moſcow, and is one of the moſt ancient archiepiſcopal ſees in all Ruſſia. The ſtreets are open and regular, the houſes well built, and the markets plentifully furniſhed with all kinds of merchandize. They are divided into four quarters, in one is ſold the fleſh, in another the wood, in the third the furs, and in the fourth the cloths. The cathedral, called Saboor, is a very noble ſtructure; it has five cupolas covered with tin, and ſurmounted with croſſes finely gilt. There are twenty churches in this city, built of ſtone, and forty-three of timber; there are likewiſe three nunneries, in each of which is an elegant ſtone chapel. The river, which is broad and navigable, contributes greatly to the traffic of the city.

NOVOGOROD VELIKI, called by the Dutch Newgarten, is ſituated on the banks of the Wolohowa; it is a large, populous, and well fortified city; but the houſes are mean, and all built of timber, and the town-walls are compoſed of the ſame materials. It is very evident from the ruins of towers, ſteeples, and old walls, without the circuit of the preſent city, that it was once much more magnificent and extenſive. It ſuffered greatly from the arms of the Ruſſians, Poles, and other nations. In the year 1477, John Baſilius Grotſden made himſelf maſter of Novogorod; he afterwards went there in perſon, and pillaged the city, from whence he is ſaid to have carried to Moſcow many hundred waggons loaded with gold and ſilver, precious ſtones, rich

 ſtuffs,

ſtuffs, and other valuables: he likewiſe removed the principal inhabitants to Moſcow and peopled Novogorod with Ruſſians. Since it became ſubject to the czar of Muſcovy, its trade and ſplendour have been greatly diminiſhed. It is however ſtill the ſee of an archbiſhop, and carries on a conſiderable trade. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Sophia, is an elegant Gothic ſtructure. The caſtle is ſituated on the oppoſite ſide of the river, and near it is the archiepiſcopal palace, and a monaſtery dedicated to St. Anthony of Padua. Beſides theſe there are near an hundred churches, and ſeventy monaſteries in this city, which is about two leagues in circumference.

The Duchy of NISI-NOVOGOROD is watered by the Volga and Occa, and abounds with foreſts; but is, nevertheleſs, pleaſant, populous, and fertile.

The capital, Niſi-Novogorod, is ſituated on a rock, at the confluence of the Volga and Occa, ſurrounded by a ſtone wall, and defended by a ſtrong citadel. Near the river ſide, and before the ſtately gate of the city called Iwanoffki, there is a ſpacious market-place. A noble ſtreet, interſected by others, runs through the whole town. The cathedral, which is built after the model of Santa Sophia at Conſtantinople, is a ſtately edifice, has five cupolas beautifully varniſhed with green, and adorned at the top with elegant croſſes. The ſuperb archiepiſcopal palace is near the cathedral, but contains a church within its own walls. The governor's palace, and the chancery, are noble fabricks; and the houſes, in general, are well built of timber. The city itſelf is ſmall, but the ſuburbs are large, and the whole has a good trade, and is well furniſhed with proviſions. The luxuries, as well as the neceſſaries of life, are remarkably cheap; but the inhabitants, in general, women as well as men, are abominable drunkards.

ARCHANGEL, by the Ruſſians called Archania, is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Dwina, about ſix leagues above the place where that river falls into the White Sea. The city extends about two miles in length, is rich, populous, and built in the modern taſte. It is a metropolitan ſee, and ſtands between the ſixty-fourth and ſixty-fifth degrees of north latitude. Archangel is indebted to the Engliſh for its great wealth and importance, by whom it was diſcovered in 1553. Richard Chancellor, maſter of one of the ſhips fitted out under the command of Sir Hugh Willoughby, who had received a commiſſion to go in queſt of the north-eaſt paſſage to China, was ſeparated from the reſt of the fleet, and obliged by diſtreſs of weather to put into the bay of St. Nicholas, on the White Sea. The czar Iwan Baſilowitz, being informed of his arrival, invited him to his court, where he was hoſpitably entertained, and the czar indulged the Engliſh with a free trade in his dominions. The houſes of Archangel are moſtly of wood, but well contrived; the fineſt edifice is a large town-houſe, built of ſquare ſtones after the Italian manner: it is divided into three parts; one of theſe conſiſts of four large commodious apartments, for the accommodation of merchants, ſtrangers as well as natives; here they are permitted to reſide with their merchandize till the month of October, when all the foreign ſhips ſet ſail for their reſpective countries to which they belong. The ſtreets are paved ſo extremely bad with broken pieces of timber and rubbiſh, that it is dangerous to walk along them, except when they are rendered ſmooth and equal by the ſnow that falls, and freezes in the winter.

CAZAN or CAZANUM, the capital of a duchy of the ſame name, ſtands in the latitude of fifty-ſix degrees fifty-four minutes, on the river Caſanka, in the midſt of a ſpacious and fruitful plain. It is a large and populous city, the ſeat of a Ruſſian metropolitan, abounding with a great number of churches, monaſteries, and ſpires, which afford a magnificent proſpect both from the land, and from the veſſels that are continually ſailing up and down the Volga, into which the Caſanka falls about four miles below the city. The houſes in general, as well as the ramparts and towers, are built of wood. The caſtle, however, is fortified with ſtone walls, ſurrounded by the river, which forms a formidable foſſe, well ſtored with artillery and ammunition, ſecured by a ſtrong garriſon of Ruſſian ſoldiers, under the command of its own vaivod, independent of the governor of the city. At the confluence of the Caſanka and the Volga there is a large commodious dock for building ſhips and other veſſels of conſiderable burthen, to carry on the commerce of the Volga and the Caſpian ſea. Cazan is well ſupplied, both by land and water, with all kinds of proviſions. Wine and fruits are brought hither from Turkey; various commodities, beſides groceries, from Moſcow; teas from China; and iron and furs from Siberia and Tartary. The ſituation is admirable for commerce, which is carried on not only with the abovementioned places, but with Perſia, and other parts of the eaſt. Large quantities of Ruſſia leather, bark for tanning, timber for ſhip-building, &c. are annually ſent hence to Peterſburgh, and other parts of Ruſſia.

RUSSIAN LAPLAND.

We have already preſented our readers with a general deſcription of Lapland, as to the country, inhabitants, cuſtoms, manners, &c. and have obſerved, that it is divided into three diſtinct ſovereignties, namely, thoſe of Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia; it remains for us, under the laſt article, to give a particular account of that part which is diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of Ruſſian Lapland.

This country is bounded, on the north, by the Northern Ocean, on the eaſt and ſouth, by the White Sea; and on the weſt, by Daniſh Lapland. It is further divided into three parts, according to their ſituation. One is called Leporia Mouremanſkoi, or Maritime Leporia; Terrſkoi, or Inland Leporia; and Bellamoureſkoi Leporia.

The whole territory of Leporia Mouremanſkoi is barren, woody, and mountainous; the air is extremely cold; the inhabitants rude and ignorant; and, in general, the country is much like the Swediſh and Daniſh Lapland, formerly ſpoken of. Moſt of the iſlands, cities, and towns, ſtand on the ſea-coaſts. The only obſervation worthy of mentioning concerning any of them is, that there are, in ſome of them, ancient monaſteries; and that the rivers contiguous abound with fiſh, and particularly ſalmon.

Terrſkoi Leporia, or the inland part of Ruſſian Lapland, is almoſt ſurrounded with the ſea, and is the land that makes the gulf of the White Sea. It is no leſs woody and barren than the reſt; and the chief town in it is Warſiga, ſituated on the ſouth coaſt, over-againſt Archangel.

Bellamoureſkoi Leporia lies at the bottom of the above-mentioned gulf, called the White Sea, and, like the reſt, is cold, barren, and thinly inhabited. The chief town is Soma, ſituated at the very entrance into the Ruſſian Lapland, on the White Sea.

The natives of Ruſſian Lapland are of a middling ſtature; they have generally a flattiſh face, fallen cheeks, dark grey eyes, thin beard, brown hair, are well built, ſtraight, and of a yellowiſh complexion, occaſioned by the weather, the ſmoke of their habitations, and their habitual filthineſs.

Their

Their manner of life renders them hardy, agile, and ſupple; but at the ſame time, they are much inclined to lazineſs. They have plain common ſenſe, are peaceable, obedient to their ſuperiors, not given to theft, not fickle, and cheerful in company; but miſtruſtful, cheats in commerce, proud of their country and conſtitution, and have ſo high a notion of it and themſelves, that, when removed from the place of their nativity, they ſometimes die with longing to return. Their women are ſhort, complaiſant, chaſte, oftent well made, and extremly nervous; which is alſo obſervable among the men, though not ſo frequently. It often happens, that a Lapland woman will faint away, or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a ſpark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noiſe, or the ſudden ſight of an uncommon object, though in its own nature not in the leaſt alarming. During theſe paroxyſms of terror, they deal about blows with the firſt thing that preſents itſelf; but, on coming to themſelves, are utterly ignorant of all that has paſſed. This probably ariſes from their amazing credulity in ſupernatural agents.

Notwithſtanding the introduction of Chriſtianity, the Laplanders have preſerved the manners of the Nomades, ſo that agriculture proſpers not much among them. They divide themſelves into Lapland-fiſhers, and Lapland-mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink, or in the neighbourhood of ſome lake, whence they draw their ſubſiſtence. The others ſeek their ſupport upon the mountains and their environs, with their rein-deer, more or leſs numerous, according to the ſeaſon, and are almoſt always ambulatory. They are excellent and very induſtrious herdſmen, and are rich, in compariſon of the Lapland-fiſhers. Theſe laſt are alſo called Laplanders of the woods; becauſe in ſummer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the foreſt; they live by fiſhing and hunting, and chooſe their ſituation by its convenience for either. They do not travel much on foot, as the greater part of them have ſome rein-deer, and they are active and expert in the chace. The introduction of fire-arms has almoſt entirely aboliſhed the uſe of the bow and arrow.

The men, beſides looking after their rein-deer, the fiſhery, and the chace; employ themſelves in the conſtruction of their canoes, which are ſmall, light, and compact. They alſo make ſledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harneſs for the rein-deer, all ſorts of utenſils in wood, as cups, bowls, and ſuch like, which are ſometimes prettily carved, and ornamented with bones, braſs, or horn It is alſo the man's buſineſs to look after the kitchen, in which the women never interfere.

The employment of the women conſiſts in making nets for the fiſhery, in drying fiſh and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheeſe, and in tanning hides. They prepare the nerves of the rein-deer in ſuch a manner, as to make them ſerve as thread; and they draw braſs-wire by the help of the horns of the rein-deer pierced, inſtead of a drawing-iron. They embroider their clothes, which they make themſelves, with braſs-wire, ſilver, ſham gold, or wool, which they have the art of dying in all colours.

Theſe people live in huts in the form of tents. —The carcaſe of the hut is compoſed of poles ſtuck in the ground, and bent up at top in ſuch a manner as to compoſe a vault almoſt round. A hut is about four or five fathom in diameter, and not much obove in height. They cover them according to the ſeaſon and the means of the poſſeſſor; ſome with briers, bark of birch, and linen; others with turf, coarſe cloth, felt, or the old ſkins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains, which open aſunder. A little place ſurrounded with ſtones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is ſuſpended to hang the kettle upon. Round the fire they lay boughs of fir, which they cover with ſkins, felt, and the like. They are not able to ſtand upright in their huts, but conſtantly ſit upon their heels round the fire. At night, they lie down quite naked; and, to ſeparate the apartments, they place upright ſticks at ſmall diſtances. They cover themſelves with their clothes, or lie upon them, and in winter they put their feet into a fur bag.

Their houſehold furniture conſiſts of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups very neatly cut, bowls, ſpoons, and ſometimes tin, or even ſilver baſons, to which may be added the implements of fiſhing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry all theſe things with them in their excurſions, they build in the foreſts, at certain diſtances, little huts made like pigeon-houſes, and placed upon a poſt, which is the trunk of a tree cut off at about the height of a fathom from the root. In theſe elevated huts they keep their goods and proviſions, and they are never plundered, though they are never ſhut.

They uſe no kind of linen in their dreſs. The men wear cloſe breeches, reaching down to their ſhoes, which are made of untanned ſkin, pointed, turned up before, and in winter they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their ſhape, and open at the breaſt. Over this they wear a cloſe coat with narrow ſleeves, whoſe ſkirts reach to the knees, and which is faſtened round them by a leather girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or braſs. To this girdle they tie their knives, their inſtruments for getting fire, their pipes, and the reſt of their ſmoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, leather, or cloth; the cloſe coat, of cloth or leather, is always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four ſeams adorned with liſts of a different colour from that of the cap. The ſkins of rats are generally uſed for the borders of the caps of the Ruſſian Laplanders.

The women wear breeches, ſhoes, doublets, and cloſe coats, in the ſame manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewiſe the implements for ſmoking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with braſs wire. Their cloſe coat has a collar, which comes up a little higher than that of the men. Beſides theſe, they wear kerchiefs, and little aprons, made of Ruſſia painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to which they ſometimes hang chains of ſilver, which paſs two or three times round the neck. They are often dreſſed in caps, folded after the manner of turbans. They wear alſo caps of the ſhape of the head; but all are ornamented with the embroidery of braſs wire, or at leaſt with liſt of different colours, which, in their opinion, make an elegant appearance.

The greateſt part of the food of the Laplanders is the rein-deer; the chace and the fiſhery furniſh the reſt. Among their game, the wild rein-deer is very uſeful, and in plenty; but the fleſh of the bear is their moſt delicate meat. They eat every kind of fiſh, even the ſea-dog, as well as all ſorts of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey, and carnivorous animals. Their winter proviſions conſiſt of fleſh and dried fiſh in the open air, both of which they eat raw, without any ſort of dreſſing. They put the milk of the rein deer into the ſtomachs of that animal, and ſo let it freeze. The cold alſo preſerves their proviſions, which conſiſt of all ſorts of wild-fruits, myrtle-berries, gooſeberries, and a kind of cranberries, which grow in the moſs in the foreſts. In the winter, when they want to uſe their frozen milk, they chop off pieces with a

hatchet. A ſort of ſweet milk, curdled, and retaining all its cream, is one of the greateſt dainties of a Laplander. Their common drink is water, ſometimes mixed with milk, and they alſo make broths and fiſh ſoups; but brandy, which is very ſcarce with them, is the higheſt article of their luxury.

The moſt conſiderable branch of their commerce is the traffic they carry on with the Norwegians. This trade was formerly carried on in the way of barter; but coin is now more current among them. The balance is always in favour of the Laplanders; becauſe they can furniſh more merchandize in ſkins and furs, than they buy flour, oatmeal, cloth, knives, hatchets, and other utenſils and hardware goods. Hence it is that they commonly pay their taxes in current coin, though they might pay them in ſkins and furs, if they choſe it.

Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family ſpreads a mat on the ground, for they never lay their meat on the bare ground. Men and women ſquat round this mat, which is covered with diſhes; and every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a ſpoon, and a little cup to drink out of. Each has their portion ſeparately given them, that no perſon may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal, they make a ſhort prayer; and, as ſoon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

They bury in the earth all the money they have not immediate occaſion for, as well as their plate, and whatever they think of value; nor even at the point of death do they declare the ſpot where it is hidden, imagining that they ſhall want it in the other world. By theſe means, the beſt part of their property is entirely loſt. Many of their children die by the hardy manner in which they are brought up; but ſuch as ſurvive are generally robuſt and alert. What may contribute much to the ſtrength of their conſtitution is their living free from care, their temperance, and continual exerciſe; yet, after all, it is very rare that any of them live to be far advanced in years.

Sterility, among the Lapland women, is a ſort of reproach. They are generally delivered without difficulty; the huſband aſſiſts at the labour, and affords his wife the neceſſary help. Without this practice they would often be diſtreſſed, as the inhabitants are frequently at ſuch a diſtance from one another as to preclude the aid of any woman. Their cradle, formed out of wood, is ſmall, light, and made in the ſhape of a ſhuttle, or of a canoe pointed at two of the extremities. Into this the child is put, quite naked, upon moſs, and is covered with a piece of fur faſtened to the cradle by a piece of ſtring. The Laplanders ſuſpend theſe cradles in their huts, or, if the ſeaſon permit, to the branch of a tree; but the women carry them at their backs when they go a journey.

The father preſents his new-born ſon with a female rein-deer, on which he makes ſome figure as a diſtinctive mark. This mark becomes afterwards the proper and peculiar ſignature of the new citizen; and all the produce of this female rein-deer is the unalienable property of the child, and makes no part of the family poſſeſſion. On the child's cutting its firſt tooth, the father, if he be rich, or in eaſy circumſtances, gives him a ſecond rein-deer. In general, the fathers beſtow an extravagant fondneſs on their children; the conſequence of which is, in Lapland, as well as every where elſe, that theſe too indulgent parents find themſelves, if not hated by their children, too frequently abandoned by them in that period of life, when they ſhould have moſt to expect from their gratitude and duty.

The marriages of the children are directed by the fancy of the parents, and in this they have no other view than intereſt. Hence the moſt contemptible woman may make a good match, if ſhe poſſeſs but ſome property. A young man is not permitted to marry until he be able to take and kill a rein-deer; and in ſome provinces, they manage the contract of marriage with all the formality of a bargain, when the pretenſions on both ſides frequently riſe very high on the firſt propoſal. They reckon ſeverally whatever the young man is to give in order to obtain his fair-one, which moſt commonly conſiſts of rein-deer, or different kinds of ſkins.

The wedding is celebrated at the bride's houſe; ſhe is dreſſed in the beſt manner, and appears before the gueſts with her head quite uncovered, which, at other times, is never the cuſtom with either women or maidens. The feaſt is a kind of meſs, to which each of the gueſts bring meat and drink. Their diverſion at weddings, and other merry-makings, is the game of fox and gooſe, a kind of draughts, with thirteen men, twelve repreſenting geeſe, and the thirteenth a fox. They wreſtle, and jump over a ſtick held horizontally, and are fond of giving groteſque accounts of different adventures. They likewiſe dance and ſing, or rather howl in diſagreeable meaſures. The new-married people live with the woman's relations for the firſt year, at the end of which they retire to a hut of their own.

Theſe people bury their dead without coffins, in ſome cantons with their clothes on, in others quite naked. The Pagan Laplanders inter their moſt famous hunters near the places conſecrated to ſacrifice. Formerly their cuſtom was, to throw the body into the ground naked, and without ceremony; afterwards to ſurround the ſpot with ſtones, and to pile others upon it. They generally place a ſledge with its bottom upwards upon the grave, and ſome eatables and pieces of furniture near it. The rich give ſome little refreſhment to the funeral attendants; but the generality of people do not obſerve that cuſtom.

All the Swediſh and Norwegian, as well as the greater number of the Ruſſian Laplanders, bear the name of Chriſtians; but their religion is full of ſuperſtition, and a compound of Chriſtian and Pagan ceremonies. The heathens ſtill acknowledge, as their anceſtors heretofore did, an univerſal God. Beſides him they admit of inferior divinities, good and bad, gods and goddeſſes. Theſe deities, as they imagine, dwell and rule in heaven, and take to themſelves at death ſuch as have conducted themſelves well through life. Other gods inhabit the air, ſuch as the ſun; and their celebrated Thor, who rules the thunder. They have other divinities, who direct the ſtorms, and terreſtrial deities, who preſide over hunting. Maderakko is a goddeſs, who, with her three daughters, direct every thing relating to women. Jabme Akko, or the mother of the dead, has her abode on the ſurface of the earth, and takes care of departed ſouls till the final deciſion of their doom. They have their infernal and malevolent gods, who dwell in the centre of the earth, where theyplace their hell; and alſo evil dæmons, who have their habitations in the waters. They are afraid of fiery goblins and ſpectres, ſatyrs or dæmons of the woods, and malevolent fairies of the lakes. There is, however, a great difference in matters of faith; one man believes in all theſe divinities, while another admits a larger ſtock, and ſome reduce their number conſiderably.

Inſtead of temples, they have conſecrated mountains, and have lakes and rivers that are ſacred. There are alſo conſecrated trees, on which figures are carved, and around them are little ſcaffoldings, for the offerings, from three to five feet high. Even the Chriſtian Laplanders have ſo much veneration

ration for theſe places, that they never approach them without making ſome offering; nor will they, upon any account, hunt or make their habitation in the neighbourhood of them. Here are to be ſeen miſ-ſhapen idols of wood and ſtone, or carved out of roots of trees. The ſtone idols are chiefly found near lakes and rivers, and conſiſt of a great heap of ſtones, ſhaped and piled up in the moſt whimſical manner. While they are fiſhing in theſe holy waters, they are forbidden, among other things, to ſpeak, to have a dog with them, or to be aſſiſted by women.

In caſes of ſickneſs, of unfruitful marriages, in times of epidemical diſeaſes among the rein-deer, and other temporal adverſities, they make their offerings, always conſulting a magician, to which of the gods they ſhall ſacrifice, what offering they ſhall make, in what place they ſhall depoſit it, and many more particulars. For this purpoſe, the magician makes uſe of his magical drum, which is a box of an oval ſhape, covered on one ſide with a ſkin, and furniſhed on the other ſide with ſeveral ſtrings and pieces of iron, to rattle and make a noiſe. Strange figures, intended to repreſent the heavenly bodies, ſuch as beaſts and birds, are drawn on the ſkin. The ſorcerer puts a ring upon his drum, beats on it with his drum-ſtick, which is made of the moſſy horn of a rein-deer; and, according to the figure on which the vibration of the ſkin cauſes the ring to fall, he anſwers all queſtions concerning former or future events. At the ſame time, he invokes the ſpirits to aſſiſt his drum, and, during this mummery, he falls into a fit, when his ſoul is ſuppoſed to be with the ſpirits of the air, hearing their converſe, and learning the decrees of heaven.

Every perſon carries his offering himſelf. Previous to this, the votary performs his purifications, ties up all his dogs, that they may not croſs his way, and proceeds, without ſpeaking, towards the holy place, bearing the bones, or the horns, of the animal preſcribed by the ſorcerer; and, as ſoon as he comes within ſight of the place appointed for the offering, he falls down on his hands and knees, and crawls up to it. He then places his offering on the ſcaffold, and makes his prayer, continuing all the while proſtrate with his face upon the earth. This done, the buſineſs is over, and the votary returns home.

It is not at all ſurpriſing that people of ſuch principles ſhould be fertile in viſions, apparitions, ſuperſtitions and childiſh tales, which the Laplanders are in a great degree. They imagine their magicians poſſeſs the power of controlling the winds and the rain, of producing and deſtroying inſects, of ſpeaking to ſpirits, and a thouſand other fooleries; but they believe, at the ſame time, that the thunder is inimical to the magicians; and hence their proverb, "If it were not for thunder, the world would be deſtroyed by magic." They attribute ſingular effects to certain words and phraſes, and ſcarcely undertake any thing without a previous charm.

NOVA ZEMBLA.

The above name was given by the Ruſſians to their new-diſcovered tract, and in their language ſignifies New Land, It is ſeparated from the northern part of Ruſſia by the ſtreight called Veigatz, or Wygatz, which lies in north lat. 70 deg. The land that forms this ſtreight is a promontory, advancing ſouthward from the main country, which is ſuppoſed to extend itſelf much further north. It was long doubted, whether this country joined to the continent of Greenland on the weſt, or of Tartary on the eaſt, but it is now known to be an extenſive iſland.

This inhoſpitable region was firſt diſcovered by the Engliſh, anno 1553, when captain Hugh Willoughby ſailed thither with three veſſels, and advanced from the north cape of Finmark, as far north as the 72d deg. of lat. where he thought he had deſcried this land; but being obliged, through ſtreſs of weather, to put into a port of Lapland, he there periſhed with cold, with all his company. Captain Burroughs ſailed in ſearch of it three years after, and having doubled the above-mentioned cape, diſcovered the ſtreight of Wygatz, between the ſouth part of Nova Zembla and the north coaſt of Samoieda. Since that time it hath been often viſited, both by Dutch and Engliſh, in hopes of finding out the north-eaſt paſſage; but the coldneſs of the climate, and the mountains of ſnow which covered that whole country, prevented their making any great diſcoveries. Some Dutchmen wintered there, anno 1596, but found the cold ſo exceſſive, that they, with great difficulty, kept themſelves alive till the next ſummer. They ſaw no ſun from January 4 to June 24, during which long and dark interval they had no light, but what the moon gave them from the firſt to the laſt quarter, in which ſhe ſhone by day as well as night. The account they gave of it is, that ſome parts of that country is inhabited by a people of low ſtature, who are idolaters and barbarous.

The attempts made afterwards by Barentz, a Hollander; by Hudſon, Wood, and Flaws; proved likewiſe of little or no conſequence to the public, and of deſtructive conſequence to themſelves. Wood, indeed, made ſome remarks, which gave him reaſon to think there was a paſſage between this country and that of Greenland. Nova Zembla he repreſents as the moſt forlorn ſpot in all the world, the greateſt part of which is laid under ſnow and ice; and that where there are neither of theſe, nothing preſents itſelf to the view but diſmal quagmires, covered with moſs, and ſome blue and yellow flowers. Upon digging two or three feet into the earth, they found the ice as hard as marble, which ſhews how vain it would be to attempt to winter there in caves dug under ground. In other northern countries the ice and ſnow is obſerved to melt much ſooner on the ſea-coaſts than in the inland parts, but here it proves the reverſe; and the ſea, which beats againſt mountains of it of a prodigious height, hath ſo undermined it, that it ſeems to hang in the air, and diſcovers ſuch monſtrous chaſms, as cannot be beheld without horror.

Nova Zembla, ſo far as our author had an opportunity to view it, breeds ſome ſorts of wild creatures, ſuch as large white bears, foxes, ſome ſmall creatures like rabbits, larger than rats, large penguins, &c. The penguin is of the ſize of a gooſe, and the feathers are ſomewhat like hairs, and of an aſh colour. The wings are very ſhort in proportion to the body; the bill is black, and the legs are of a bright green. They keep in the water all the day, where they feed upon fiſh. As they cannot fly, they cannot ſhun their enemies, except by leaping along, which they do pretty well by the help of their ſhort wings. However, this bird is active upon the water, and ſeems to be very ſkilful in catching its food. When the ſun begins to ſet, they retire to the rocks near the ſea, where they continue till morning, at which time they are eaſily taken. They build their neſts upon the rocks, on the craggy points, to which theſe birds can get up very eaſily. Their eggs are very good, but the fleſh has a diſagreeable fiſhy taſte, and is never eaten but in caſes of great neceſſity. It is worthy of remark, that the bird penguin, which is not only common to theſe northern parts, but likewiſe in ſeveral countries of North America, is every where known by the ſame name, with little or no variation; and that the word penguin, in the Celtic, and in our preſent Welſh, ſignifies a white head, as that bird actually hath. This, together with ſome great affinity which is found in many of the radical words and proper names, uſed by thoſe diſtant regions, confirms a curious conjecture of the authors of the Univerſal

Hiſtory, which is, that the deſcendants of Gomer, the eldeſt ſon of Japhet, were not only the firſt peoplers of Europe, even in its remoteſt parts, but have preſerved their ancient language more than any other nation we know of, except the Chineſe.

The ſouthern part of this country has been ſince found to be inhabited by a ſquat, ſwarthy ſort of people, who clothe themſelves with ſeal-ſkins, or with the ſkin of the bird penguin, with the feathers outward. They live upon what game or fiſh they catch; they worſhip the ſun and moon, and have ſome little wooden idols, in human ſhape, but monſtrouſly carved or rather notched.

A variety of romantic tales, and manifeſt abſurdities, having been publiſhed by many of the Dutch voyagers, theſe, together with the ridiculous relations of Ferdinand Mendez and Pinto, and the improbable ſtories of Sir John Mandeville, gave riſe to a witty and ingenious ſatire, written by the celebrated Sir Richard Steele, and publiſhed in the Tatler, as if from a manuſcript of Sir John Mandeville. The ſcene being founded in Nova Zembla, the humour being admirable, and the ſatire pointed againſt all travellers and voyagers who attempt to impoſe upon the public, we ſhall make an extract from it without further apology.

Sir John Mandeville is ſuppoſed to be the narrator, and to relate as follows: "We were ſeparated by a ſtorm, in the latitude of 73, inſomuch that only the ſhip in which I ſailed, with a Dutch and French veſſel, got ſafe into a creek of Nova Zembla. We landed in order to refit our veſſels, and ſtore ourſelves with proviſions. The crew of each veſſel made themſelves a cabin of turf and wood at ſome diſtance from each other, to fence themſelves againſt the inclemencies of the weather, which was ſevere beyond imagination. We ſoon obſerved, that, in talking to one another, we loſt ſeveral of our words, and could not hear one another at above two yards diſtance, and that too when we ſat very near the fire. After much perplexity, I found that our words froze in the air, before they could reach the ears of the perſon to whom they were ſpoken. I was ſoon confirmed in the conjecture, when, upon the increaſe of the cold, the whole company grew dumb, or rather deaf; for every man was ſenſible, as we afterwards found, that he ſpoke as well as ever; but the ſounds no ſooner took air, than they were condenſed and loſt. It was now a miſerable ſpectacle, to ſee us gaping and nodding at one another, every man talking, and no man heard. One might obſerve a ſeaman that could hail a ſhip at a league's diſtance, beckoning with his hand, ſtraining with his lungs, and tearing his throat, but all in vain.

"We continued here three weeks in this diſmal plight. At length, upon a turn of wind, the air about us began to thaw. Our cabin was immediately filled with a dry clattering ſound, which I afterwards found to be the crackling of conſonants that broke above our heads, and were often mixed with a gentle hiſſing, which I imputed to the letter *S* that occurs ſo frequently in the Engliſh tongue. I ſoon after felt a breeze of whiſpers ruſhing by my ear; for thoſe being of a ſoft and gentle ſubſtance, immediately liquified in the warm wind that blew acroſs our cabin. Theſe were ſoon followed by ſyllables and ſhort words, and at length by entire ſentences, that melted ſooner or later, as they were more or leſs congealed; ſo that we now heard every thing that had been ſpoken during the whole three weeks that we had been ſilent, if I may uſe that expreſſion. It was now very early in the morning, and yet, to my ſurpriſe, I heard ſomebody ſay, "Sir John, it is midnight, and time for the ſhip's crew to go to bed." This I knew to be the pilot's voice; and, upon recollecting myſelf, I concluded, that he had ſpoken theſe words to me ſome days before, though I could not hear them till the preſent thaw. My reader will eaſily imagine how the whole crew was amazed, to hear every man talking, and ſee no man open his mouth. In the midſt of this great ſurpriſe we were all in, we heard a volley of oaths and curſes, laſting for a long while, and uttered in a very hoarſe voice, which I knew belonged to the boatſwain, who was a very choleric fellow, and had taken his opportunity of curſing and ſwearing at me, when he thought I could not hear him; for I had ſeveral times given him the ſtrappado on that account, which I did not fail to repeat for theſe his pious ſoliloquies when I got him on ſhipboard.

"I muſt not omit the names of ſeveral beauties in Wapping, which we heard every now-and-then in the midſt of a long ſigh that accompanied them, as Dear Kate! Pretty Mrs. Peggy! When ſhall I ſee my Sue again? This betrayed ſeveral amours which had been concealed till that time, and furniſhed us with a great deal of mirth in our return to England.

"When this confuſion of voices was pretty well over, though I was afraid to offer at ſpeaking, as fearing I ſhould not be heard, I purpoſed a viſit to the Dutch cabin, which lay about a mile further up in the country. My crew were extremely rejoiced to find they had again recovered their hearing, though every man uttered his voice with the ſame apprehenſions that I had done.

"At about half a mile's diſtance from our cabin, we heard the groanings of a bear, which at firſt ſtartled us; but, upon our inquiry, we were informed by ſome of our company that he was dead, and now lay in ſalt, having been killed upon the very ſpot about a fortnight before, in the time of the froſt. Not far from the ſame place, we were likewiſe entertained with ſome poſthumous ſnarls and barkings of a fox."

HISTORY OF RUSSIA.

IT is the received opinion of hiſtorians, that ſome of the moſt neglected parts of this country were early peopled, and poſſibly much richer than at preſent; but the few accounts we have of this northern nation are ſo enveloped in fable and fictitious relations, that it is hardly poſſible to form a conſiſtent narrative, founded on truth, before the introduction of Chriſtianity, about the tenth century, when Olha, a Ruſſian princeſs, was baptized at Conſtantinople, and called Helen. Her example, however, was not generally followed till the year 987, when Volodimer her grandſon, having formed an alliance with Baſil, emperor of Conſtantinople, patriarch Photius, ſo famous for his amazing erudition, his diſputes with the Roman church, and his misfortunes, ſent proper perſons to baptize the Ruſſian prince, and add that part of the world to his patriarchate.

John or Iwan Baſilides, a man of courage and intrepidity, aſcended the Ruſſian throne in the year 1450, and delivered his country from the yoke of the Tartars, and increaſed his territories by the acquiſition of Novogorod, and the city of Moſcow. He even extended his conqueſts into Finland, which has ſo often been the ſource of wars between Ruſſia and Sweden. It is ſaid that this emperor brought back from Moſcow three hundred cart loads of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones.

His grandſon, John Baſilides, who mounted the Ruſſian throne in 1540, purſued the ſteps of his predeceſſor, and cleared his country from the incurſions of the wandering Tartars: he ſubdued the kingdoms of Kaſan and Aſtracan, in Aſia, and annexed them to his dominions, but could not maintain his ground on the ſide of Finland; his forces were always defeated by the regular troops of Sweden.

John Baſilides II. who died in 1584, left two ſons, the one named Fedor, or Theodore, the other Demetrius. Fedor ſucceeded his father, and Demetrius was confined to a village called Uglis, with the czarina, his mother. The rude manners of the Ruſſian court had

had not yet adopted the policy of the Turkiſh ſultans, in ſacrificing the princes of the blood to the ſecurity of the throne. Boris-Godonow, the prime miniſter, whoſe ſiſter was married to Fedor, perſuaded his maſter that he could never reign quietly unleſs he imitated the Mahometan court, in aſſaſſinating his brother. Fedor liſtened to his advice, and an officer was diſpatched to execute his inhuman reſolution. The officer at his return to court declared that he had put Demetrius to death, and demanded the reward that had been promiſed him for this ſanguinary ſervice; but Boris, inſtead of a reward, put him to death, in order to ſuppreſs every poſſible proof of the murder.

About the ſame time there appeared in Lithuania, a young man, who pretended to be prince Demetrius, aſſerting that he had eſcaped from the hands of the aſſaſſin. Several who had ſeen him at his mother's houſe, knew him again by particular marks. He perfectly reſembled the prince; he ſhewed the croſs ſet with diamonds which had been tied about the neck of Demetrius. The palatine of Sandomir acknowledged him immediately for the ſon of John Baſilides, and for the lawful czar. The diet of Poland made a ſolemn inquiry into the proofs of his royal extraction, and finding them abundantly ſufficient, furniſhed him with an army to drive out the uſurper, and recover the throne of his anceſtors.

However, in the mean time, Demetrius was treated in Ruſſia as an impoſtor, and even as a magician. The Muſcovites could not believe that Demetrius, who was ſupported by the Poles, a catholic nation, and who had two jeſuits in his council, could be their king. So little did the boyars queſtion his being an impoſtor, that, upon the death of the czar Boris, they made no difficulty of placing his ſon, then only fifteen years of age, on the Ruſſian throne.

During theſe tranſactions Demetrius was on his march into Ruſſia, at the head of a Poliſh army: and all thoſe who were diſſatisfied with the government, declared in his favour. A Ruſſian general advancing within ſight of Demetrius's army, cried out, "He is the only lawful heir of the empire," and immediately joined his ſtandard with the forces under his command. The revolution was ſudden and complete, and Demetrius was no longer a magician. The inhabitants of Moſcow ran to the palace, and dragged the mother and ſon of Boris to priſon. Demetrius was unanimouſly proclaimed czar; and it was given out, that both young Boris and his mother had killed themſelves in confinement. Probably they were put to death by Demetrius. This event happened in 1605.

The widow of John Baſilides, mother of the real or pretended Demetrius, had been long ſince baniſhed to the northern parts of Ruſſia; and the new czar now ſent a magnificent carriage to bring her to Moſcow. He went himſelf part of the way to meet her; they embraced each other with tranſports and tears of joy, in the preſence of a prodigious multitude of people, ſo that none doubted but Demetrius was the lawful emperor. In 1606, he married the daughter of the palatine of Sandomir, his firſt protector, and this brought on his ruin. Shocked at ſeeing a catholic empreſs, a court compoſed of foreigners, and, above all, a church erected for the jeſuits, the people no longer conſidered Demetrius as a Ruſſian, the ſon of John Baſilides, and determined to drive him from the throne.

In the midſt of the entertainments at the marriage of the czar, a boyar, whoſe name was Zuſki, put himſelf at the head of a number of conſpirators, and entering the palace with a ſword in one hand, and a croſs in the other, cut the Poliſh guards in pieces, hurried Demetrius to priſon, and loaded him with chains. He was ſoon after confronted with the dowager czarina, who had ſo ſolemnly acknowledged him for her ſon. The clergy obliged her to ſwear upon the croſs, and to declare whether Demetrius was or was not her ſon. Accordingly ſhe affirmed, that the czar was not her child; that the real Demetrius was murdered in his infancy; that ſhe had only followed the example of the whole nation in acknowledging the new czar, and to be revenged for the blood of her ſon upon a family of aſſaſſins. Demetrius was now ſaid to have been originally nothing more than a peaſant named Griſka Utropoya, who had for ſome time lived as a monk in a Ruſſian convent. But however that be, Zuſki killed him with his own hand, and took his place on the throne in the year 1606.

The reſt of the boyars, however who had before been Zuſki's equal, but now his ſubjects, could not behold his exaltation with patience. They aſſerted that the late czar was not an impoſtor, but the real Demetrius, and that the murderer was unworthy of the throne. The name of Demetrius now became dear to the Ruſſians; and the chancellor of the murdered czar declared, that he was ſo far from being dead, that he would ſoon recover of his wounds, and appear again at the head of his loyal ſubjects.

Accordingly, the chancellor traverſed every part of Muſcovy, with a young man in a litter, whom he called Demetrius, and treated as a ſovereign. At the very name of Demetrius the people flew to arms; they fought ſeveral battles in his favour, without ſeeing him; but the chancellor's party having been defeated, the ſecond Demetrius diſappeared. The people however were ſo fond of this name, that a third Demetrius ſoon after aroſe in Poland. This man was more fortunate than the reſt. He was ſupported by Sigiſmund, king of Poland, and laid ſiege to Moſcow, where Zuſki reſided. The tyrant was ſhut up in his capital, but he had ſtill the widow of the firſt Demetrius, and the palatine of Sandomir, her father, in his power. The third Demetrius demanded the princeſs his wife. Zuſki delivered up both the father and the daughter, hoping, perhaps, to ſoften the king of Poland, or flattering himſelf that the palatine's daughter would diſown him. He was however miſtaken; the widow of the firſt, declared this third Demetrius to be her real huſband; the palatine ſwore that this was his ſon-in-law, and the people made no doubt but it was true. The boyars, divided between Zuſki and the impoſtor, would acknowledge neither. They depoſed Zuſki, and ſhut him up in a convent, where he finiſhed his days; and Demetrius was aſſaſſinated at a public entertainment by a gang of Tartars, in the year 1610.

The throne of Ruſſia being thus vacant, the boyars offered it to prince Uladiſlaus, ſon to Sigiſmund, king of Poland. But before he had finiſhed the neceſſary preparations for his journey to Moſcow, a fourth Demetrius ſtarted up, and claimed the crown of Ruſſia. This impoſtor pretended that God had conſtantly preſerved him, though he had been aſſaſſinated at Uglis by the orders of the tyrant Boris, at Moſcow by the uſurper Zuſki, and afterwards by the Tartars. This ſtory, however improbable, was countenanced by many of the people; it was conſidered as a miracle, and as ſuch it was believed. The town of Pleſkou acknowledged him as czar; and there, for a few years, he fixed his reſidence. During this interval, the Ruſſians repenting they had called in the Poles, drove them back to their own kingdom, and Sigiſmund renounced all hopes of ſeeing his ſon Ladiſlaus placed on the Ruſſian throne.

In the midſt of theſe diſturbances, Michael Federowitz, the ſon of the patriarch Fedor Romanzow, or Philaretes, was made czar, at the age of ſeventeen, by the great influence of his father. All Ruſſia acknowledged him for its ſovereign, and the city of Pleſkou delivered up to him the fourth Demetrius, who was hanged upon a gibbet. A fifth Demetrius however ſtill remained. He was the ſon of the firſt of that name, by the daughter of the palatine of Sandomir. His mother removed him from Moſcow, when ſhe went to meet the third Demetrius, and pretended to acknowledge him for her real huſband.

She

She afterwards retired with this child into the country of the Coſſacks; and he was always conſidered, and probably really was, the grandſon of John Baſilides. But Michael Federowitz was no ſooner ſeated on the Ruſſian throne, than he obliged the Coſſacks to deliver up the mother and child, who were both drowned.

It would hardly be expected that a ſixth Demetrius ſhould appear; but this was really the caſe. During the reign of Michael Federowitz, ſome young men bathing with a Coſſack of their own age, they took notice of certain Ruſſian characters on his back, pricked with a needle; and, on a more careful examination, found them to be, "Demetrius, ſon to the czar Demetrius." This perſon was immediately ſuppoſed to be the prince whom the czar Federowitz had cauſed to be drowned: a miracle had been wrought in his favour; and he was treated as the czar's ſon at the court of Uladiſlaus, in order to excite freſh diſturbances in Ruſſia. The untimely death of his protector, however, blaſted all his hopes; he retired to Sweden, and afterwards to Holſtein. Unfortunately for him, the duke of Holſtein having ſent an embaſſy into Ruſſia in order to open a communication for a ſilk trade with Perſia; but failing in the attempt, and having contracted conſiderable debts at Moſcow, the duke of Holſtein, in order to diſcharge theſe incumbrances, ungenerouſly delivered up Demetrius, who was quartered alive.

Theſe kind of impoſtures ſufficiently diſplayed the deſpicable ſtate of ignorance in which the Ruſſians were then immerſed. But the time was now arrived when that empire began to know its own power, and to ſupport that independence which was on the point of being extinguiſhed.

It has been already obſerved, that the Ruſſians had offered their crown to Uladiſlaus. This offer was carried by Philaretes; and during his ſtay at the Poliſh court, his ſon was raiſed to the throne. Exaſperated at the behaviour of the boyars, Sigiſmund committed Philaretes to priſon: but being afterwards exchanged for ſome Poliſh priſoners, he held the reins of government for his ſon, with great prudence and diſcretion.

The czar Michael Romanzow, having declared his intention to marry, moſt of the celebrated beauties in his dominions were ſent for to court, and entertained in a very elegant manner. The czar ſaw them often, the wedding-day was fixed, and the neceſſary preparations for the ſolemnity was finiſhed, before it was known on whom the happy lot had fallen. On the morning when the nuptial ceremony was to be performed, the fortunate lady was preſented with a wedding robe and a caſket of magnificent jewels; the other candidates alſo received valuable preſents, and were ſent to their reſpective places of abode. The name of the lady's father who pleaſed Michael was Streſehmen, and he was ploughing his own little farm when the czar's chamberlains informed him that his daughter was placed upon the Ruſſian throne.

On the death of Michael Romanzow, which happened in 1645, his ſon Alexis Michaelowitz, then in his ſeventeenth year, aſcended the throne. He married in the ſame manner as his father, and choſe the moſt amiable among the beauties preſented to him. The tranquility of his reign was diſturbed both by bloody and furious commotions and foreign wars. He was not, however, ſo wholly taken up with wars and military tranſactions, but he found leiſure to draw up a code of laws, which, though imperfect, ſufficiently proved that he had formed a proper idea of legiſlation and diſtributive juſtice. He cultivated a polite correſpondence with moſt of the powers of Europe, introduced manufactures of ſilk and linen into his dominions, and peopled the banks of the Volga and Kama with Lithuanian, Poliſh, and Tartar families taken in his wars. Before his time all priſoners became the ſlaves of thoſe into whoſe hands they fell; Alexis made them huſbandmen. Their labours enriched his country, and many of the Ruſſians followed their example. Other ſchemes equally advantageous to his people were formed by this great prince, but before they could be carried into execution, death put a period to his life, in the beginning of the year 1675.

The death of this great prince was a dreadful blow to the Ruſſian empire; confuſion once more prevailed, and the blood of innocent perſons again ſtained the ſtreets of Moſcow. Alexis left three ſons and ſix daughters; the ſons were Fædor or Theodore, Iwan or John, and Peter; the laſt was by a ſecond marriage. Among the daughters one only deſerves attention in the hiſtory of Ruſſia. Her name was Sophia, a princeſs famous for her talents, and ſtill more for her ambition and intrigues. Alexis, dreading the conſequence of leaving the Ruſſians, ſo prone to rebellion, without a prince upon the throne, had cauſed Theodore, his eldeſt ſon, to be acknowledged emperor ſome time before his death.

Theodore took poſſeſſion of the government on the deceaſe of his father, without the leaſt oppoſition. He was a prince of a weak and ſickly conſtitution, but theſe infirmities had no effect upon the vigour of his mind. He formed ſeveral ſchemes for the good of his people; but the war in which he was engaged againſt the Turks, or rather the Crim Tartars, which continued during his whole reign, prevented him from carrying them into execution. Theodore ſoon perceiving that the crown of Ruſſia was a burthen too heavy for a perſon of his weak conſtitution, and that his brother Iwan, who was almoſt blind and dumb, was ſtill leſs able to ſupport it, he nominated Peter, his ſecond brother, then only ten years of age, as his ſucceſſor to the throne.

Peter had already given many indications of extraordinary abilities, but his youth rendered him incapable of holding the reins of government; and the ambitious Sophia, perceiving her brother Theodore could not long ſupport the fatigues of royalty, determined, if poſſible, to aſcend the Ruſſian throne, at leaſt to ſway the ſceptre during the minority of Peter. Accordingly, ſhe formed a ſtrong party among the Strelitzes, or ſtanding forces of Ruſſia, by bribes and promiſes, and immediately on the death of Theodore convened a meeting of the princeſſes of the blood, the generals of the army, the boyars, the patriarchs, the biſhops, and even the principal merchants. In this aſſembly ſhe expatiated on the injuſtice of appointing Peter ſucceſſor to the throne in oppoſition to the natural right of his brother Iwan; that the talents of the latter for government were far from being contemptible; and that Peter was too young to hold the reins of government.

Theſe repreſentations produced the deſired effect; a dreadful ſedition was raiſed by the Strelitzes; many of the nobles, who were thought to favour Peter, were maſſacred with circumſtances of cruelty ſhocking to humanity; and Moſcow again experienced all the horrors of anarchy and confuſion. But at laſt the ſword of aſſaſſination was ſheathed, and Iwan and Peter declared joint ſovereigns of Ruſſia, though Sophia acquired the whole power, and was, in every thing but title, the czarina of the empire. Her buſt was ſtruck upon the coin, ſhe preſided in the council, ſhe planned and ſigned all expeditions, and her will became the law of Ruſſia.

Soon after Iwan was placed on the throne, he married a young lady called Soltikoff; but during the rejoicings that followed his eſpouſals, the Strelitzes fomented a dangerous ſedition on account of ſome religious diſputes. The inſurrection did not however long continue, but ſoon after broke out with much greater violence, under the influence of a popular nobleman, to revenge himſelf on Sophia for her ingratitude, who had totally neglected his intereſt,

reſt, though it was principally to him that ſhe owed her elevation.

Sophia, aware of the conſequences that might probably attend this popular inſurrection, retired with her two brothers and the other branches of the royal family, to the monaſtery of the Trinity, ſituated about twelve leagues from Peterſburg. This monaſtery, which belongs to the monks of St. Baſil, is ſurrounded with large ditches, and ſtrong ramparts mounted with a numerous artillery. In this place of ſafety Sophia entered into a negotiation with the leader of the rebels; and, under pretence of granting him his own terms, ſhe prevailed on him to repair to a certain town in the neighbourhood in order to ſign the treaty. Deceived by the artifices of Sophia, the nobleman, attended by one of his ſons, and thirty-ſeven of the officers of the Strelitzes, repaired to the place, where they were all immediately ſeized and beheaded. This rebellion however convinced Sophia, that ſhe wanted power to ſway the ſceptre of Ruſſia conformable to her own will, and therefore determined to marry the prince Galitzin, a man of ſenſe, ſpirit, and ſome learning. She had already placed him at the head of the army, made him prime miniſter, and keeper of the ſeals.

Peter, who was now in his eighteenth year, being alarmed at the partiality of Sophia for Galitzin, determined to aſſert his right to the crown. Iwan and Sophia were at Moſcow when this reſolution was taken; but Peter had retired to the convent of the Trinity, where he declared that a conſpiracy was formed againſt his life. He was immediately joined by the Strelitzes, and many of the moſt powerful nobility; upon which he marched directly for Moſcow, and Sophia, with her brother Iwan, were obliged to retire to the monaſtery of the Trinity. All the conſpirators were puniſhed with a ſeverity common in that country, except Galitzin, who was ſtripped of his immenſe fortune, and baniſhed into Siberia. His ſentence was very curious, it was as follows: "Thou art commanded by the moſt clement czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majeſty, out of his extreme goodneſs, allows thee threepence per day for thy ſubſiſtence." The princeſs Sophia was confined to a monaſtery in Ruſſia; a puniſhment ſufficient to a woman of her ambition. Nor had Iwan any other ſhare in the government, except that of having his name in the public acts. He led a private life at Moſcow, and died in 1696.

On Peter's acceſſion to the throne, he aſſociated himſelf with foreigners, and laboured aſſiduouſly to improve his education, which had been greatly neglected through the ambition of his ſiſter. He was, even from his infancy, fond of the arts, and ſhocked at the rude manners and ignorance of his ſubjects. His favourite Le Fort, a Piedmonteſe, encouraged this diſpoſition; and at the ſame time raiſed and exerciſed a body of 12,000 men, among whom he introduced the French and German exerciſe, in order to render them capable of oppoſing the inſolence of the Strelitzes; while general Gordon, a Scotchman, diſciplined the czar's own regiment, conſiſting of 5000 foreigners.

This great prince, after providing for the internal peace of his dominions, began his travels into foreign parts, as an attendant on his own ambaſſadors. By working as a common ſhipwright in the yards of Deptford and Saardam, he completed himſelf in ſhip-building and navigation; and prevailed on ſeveral ingenious men to ſettle in Ruſſia, in order to introduce the arts into his empire. At the ſame time he procured a great number of manufacturers from Germany to remove to Moſcow, and other cities, in order to carry on their reſpective trades, to the great advantage of his ſubjects. The troops diſciplined by Le Fort and Gordon, were ſoon in a condition of cruſhing all inſurrections and ſeditions, and even of exterminating the two feeble regiments of Strelitzes. Peter, in the mean time, preferred men of ability only; he paid no regard to nobility or fortune; merit alone was the paſſport to his favour; and poſſeſſed of merit, no man, however poor or depreſſed, ever applied in vain. He himſelf roſe gradually through every rank and ſervice both in the fleet and army; and the many defeats he met from Charles XII. ſerved only to extend the ſphere of his ambition. After the fatal battle of Narva, the czar was ſo far from abandoning himſelf to deſpair, that when advice arrived of this alarming misfortune, he only ſaid to his officers, "I expected to be defeated by the Swedes, and ſhall poſſibly be again defeated; but they will, in time, teach us to be conquerors." He was not deceived, the battles he loſt added experience to his courage; and Charles, in his turn, was ſoon after totally defeated at Pultowa. The military and naval triumphs which readily ſucceeded one another, after that deciſive victory, are far from forming the chief glories of Peter's reign. His aſſiduous application to the improvement of commerce, arts, and ſciences, by which his people were enriched and civilized, place him in a more diſtinguiſhed point of light; even among the few princes who have laboured for the benefit of mankind, and whoſe names will be mentioned with gratitude by poſterity. Always intent on the civilization and happineſs of his people, and knowing that the life of any perſon is too ſhort for completing ſo noble a deſign, he married a young Lithuanian woman, called Catherine, who had been betrothed to a Swediſh ſoldier; becauſe, after a long cohabitation, he found her poſſeſſed of a ſoul capable of executing his plans, and aſſiſting his counſels.

The wiſeſt and moſt fortunate princes are, however, not exempt from misfortunes. Peter experienced one of the ſharpeſt of this kind in the undutiful behaviour of his ſon; who not only married without his royal parent's conſent, but was alſo guilty of dangerous practices againſt his perſon and government. He was tried, and condemned to death; but died in priſon before his ſentence was carried into execution. Soon after the death of his ſon, he cauſed Catherine to be crowned with all the pompous ceremonies uſed by the Grecian princes while the eaſtern empire ſubſiſted, and to be recognized as his ſucceſſor. He died on the 28th day of January, 1725.

Catherine, who aſcended the Ruſſian throne on the death of the czar, governed that great empire by the ſame principles on which it had been founded; and during her whole reign was reſpected, both by her own ſubjects and all the powers of Europe, as the worthy ſucceſſor of Peter the Great. She did not, however, long enjoy this high dignity; for ſhe paid the debt of nature in 1727, after a ſhort but glorious reign.

Peter II. grandſon of Peter the Great, then a minor, aſcended the throne on the death of Catherine. This reign, though ſhort, was attended with many domeſtic revolutions; but the moſt remarkable was the diſgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the principal favourite in the two laſt reigns, and eſteemed the richeſt ſubject in Europe. He was a perſon of boundleſs ambition, and had formed a deſign of marrying his daughter to the czar. Probably he might have ſucceeded, had he not, by an act of inſolence, incurred the diſpleaſure of the emperor, who diſgraced and baniſhed him into Siberia. He died of the ſmall-pox, on the 19th of January, 1730.

The Ruſſian ſenate, upon the death of Peter II. notwithſtanding the deſpotiſm of Peter and his wife, ventured to ſet aſide the ſucceſſion, as it had been eſtabliſhed by the empreſs Catherine. According to the will of that princeſs, the ſon of her eldeſt daughter, Anne Petrowna, ducheſs of Holſtein, ought to have been called to the throne; but he being at that time not more than two years old, it was thought prudent, in order to avoid ſo tedious a minority, to

place Anne Iwanowna, ducheſs of Courland, on the Ruſſian throne, contrary to all the rules of ſucceſſion; for ſhe was the ſecond daughter of the emperor Iwan, and her eldeſt ſiſter, the ducheſs of Mecklenburg, was then alive. Her reign was however at once proſperous and glorious. She indeed accepted of the crown under limitations; but ſhe ſoon cancelled them all, and baniſhed the nobles who had impoſed them upon her. She made choice of grave and wiſe perſons for her miniſters, and gave the command of her army to able and experienced generals. By purſuing theſe wiſe methods, ſhe was enabled to govern her empire with reputation, and to maintain the credit of Ruſſia, with regard to the reſt of Europe, in as great a degree as any of her predeceſſors. She nobly aſſiſted the emperor Charles VI. againſt the houſe of Bourbon; ſhe placed Auguſtus, the late king of Poland, on the throne of that kingdom; ſhe raiſed her favourite Biron to the duchy of Courland; ſhe carried on a very ſucceſsful war againſt the Turks, and, in the courſe of it, totally ruined the power of the Crim Tartars.

Anna's death happening in October 1740, John, ſon of her ſiſter the princeſs of Mecklenburg, was placed on the Ruſſian throne; but being then only two years old, Biron was appointed adminiſtrator of the empire during his minority. This deſtination was diſagreeable not only to the princeſs of Mecklenburg, but alſo the people themſelves. Biron was therefore ſoon arreſted, tried, and condemned to die; but his ſentence was changed into baniſhment. Nor was the adminiſtration of the princeſs of Mecklenburg and her huſband agreeable to the Ruſſians, on account of their German connections; and ſchemes were ſoon formed for changing the government.

Peter the Great left a daughter called Elizabeth Petrowna, a princeſs of diſtinguiſhed accompliſhments, and then about 38 years of age. She had lived at court in a manner far from being ſuitable to her birth: and the prudence of her behaviour, joined to that magnanimity with which ſhe ſupported her misfortunes, had ſuch an influence on the whole nation, that ſhe had long reigned in the hearts of the people, though others were inveſted with the enſigns of royalty. At laſt, the whole Ruſſian nation, princes, nobility, ſenators, ſoldiers, and even the populace, teſtified ſuch an affection for her perſon, that ſome who had ſerved her father with fidelity, and enjoyed the rewards of their ſervices, determined to hazard their lives and fortunes in her defence, and either place her on the throne of her anceſtors, or periſh in the glorious attempt. They ſucceeded; and one night put an end to the conteſt; the ſun at his ſetting ſaw her nothing leſs than a priſoner in the palace, and at his riſing beheld her placed on the throne. The young emperor, his father and mother, were made priſoners, and ſent to the caſtle of Riga.

No ſooner was Elizabeth poſſeſſed of the reins of government, than ſhe diſplayed thoſe virtues which rendered her worthy to fill the throne of her illuſtrious anceſtors. She aboliſhed capital puniſhments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation till her time unknown in Ruſſia. She made peace with Sweden, and ſettled the ſucceſſion to that crown, as well as of her own dominions, on the moſt equitable foundation. In a word, few princes ever enjoyed a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expence of a great ſubſidy; but many political, and perhaps ſome private reaſons, determined her to take part with the houſe of Auſtria againſt the king of Pruſſia. Her armies turned the ſcale in favour of the empreſs-queen; and ſeemed to threaten deſtruction to Pruſſia, which was ſaved by her critical death on the 5th of January, 1762.

Peter III. grand duke of Ruſſia, and duke of Holſtein Gottorp, aſcended the throne. This prince is accuſed of having obſerved no rules of prudence or moderation; either in his public or private proceedings. It is certain that he mounted the throne poſſeſſed of an enthuſiaſtic admiration of his Pruſſian majeſty's virtues, and whoſe principles he ſeemed to have adopted as rules to direct his future reign. One of his firſt acts of government was that of making peace with Pruſſia, which gave ſome uneaſineſs to the Ruſſians. But in all probability he would have ſurmounted the effects of this, and other particulars, unpopular as they were in Ruſſia, had not he aimed at reforming the church. He even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy, which even Peter the Great had attempted in vain. He highly offended the Ruſſian nobility by his warm attachment to the Germans. He has alſo been accuſed of certain domeſtic infidelities, which were too provoking for a princeſs of ſpirit and fortitude to bear; and it is even ſaid that he had formed a deſign of ſhutting his conſort up in a convent, and raiſing his miſtreſs, the counteſs of Woronzoff, to be his partner in the throne. Whatever truth there may be in theſe ſuggeſtions, it is certain that ſo ill was the czar ſerved, that the conſpiracy was become general, without his receiving the leaſt notice of it; and he remained in perfect ſecurity, whilſt the ſenate and clergy were aſſembled to paſs the ſentence of his depoſition. He was indulging himſelf in indolent amuſements, and lulled in the moſt profound ſecurity, at a houſe of pleaſure called Oraniebaum, on the ſea-ſhore, when he received news that his kingdom was taken from him. After ſome ſhort and tumultuous deliberations, he reſolved to throw himſelf on the compaſſion of the empreſs; and accordingly ſent letters to her, containing a renunciation of the empire, and ſtipulating no other terms than leave to return to Holſtein, and the ſatisfaction of taking with him, as the companion of his retreat, the counteſs of Woronzoff, and one ſingle friend. His terms were rejected, and he was required to ſign an unconditional reſignation of his crown, according to a form that was prepared for him. After he had ſigned this abdication, which was in July 1762, he gave up his ſword, and was conducted to priſon, where in a ſhort time he died of a diſorder called the hæmorrhoidal cholic. Thus was a revolution of ſuch immenſe importance effected in a ſingle day, and without ſhedding a ſingle drop of blood; the unfortunate emperor having enjoyed the power, of which he made ſo imprudent an uſe, only ſix months. His conſort, without any hereditary claim, was immediately placed on the Ruſſian throne, and has ſince ſwayed the ſceptre of that vaſt empire under the title of Catherine II.

This princeſs always purſued a very different conduct. She ſtudied the Ruſſian language, aſſiduouſly complied with the cuſtoms and manners which prevailed in that empire, and expreſſed, on all occaſions, a remarkable zeal for the Greek church. By this method ſhe obtained ſo great an influence over the minds of the Ruſſians, that it was no difficult taſk to bring about a revolution which placed her on the throne. The moſt remarkable domeſtic tranſaction of her reign, was the death of prince Iwan, ſon to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, and, while in his cradle, emperor of Ruſſia. He loſt his life in an ill-concerted conſpiracy, formed by a few private officers to place him on the throne.

Ruſſia has always conſidered the internal quiet of Poland as a capital object; and this induced her imperial majeſty to take a principal part with regard to the election of the late prince to the throne, and to ſecure the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Diſſidents, or the Greek and Proteſtant ſubjects of Poland. This gave great umbrage to the Roman Catholic Poles; and the Ruſſian troops ſtill continuing in their country, firſt occaſioned a civil war, and afterwards the forming of the moſt dreadful confederacies, which have rendered Poland a ſcene of ſlaughter and devaſtation.

The

The conduct of Ruſſia reſpecting Poland gave ſo much offence to the Ottoman court, that the grand ſignior ſent Obreſkoff, the Ruſſian miniſter, to the priſon of the ſeven towers, declared war againſt Ruſſia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Ruſſia and Poland, whereupon hoſtilities ſoon commenced between theſe rival and mighty empires.

In the months of February and March 1769, Crim Gueray, khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of thoſe people, ſupported by 10,000 ſpahis, having broken the Ruſſian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off ſome thouſand families captive. In April following, the grand vizier, at the head of a great army, began his march from Conſtantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube.

Mean time, prince Gallitzin, who commanded the Ruſſian army on the bank of the Nieſter, thought this a proper time to attempt ſomething deciſive, before the arrival of the great Turkiſh force in that quarter. Having accordingly croſſed the Nieſter with his whole army, he advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in ſight of a body of 30,000 Turks, intrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince attacked the Turks in their intrenchments, and, notwithſtanding an obſtinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortreſs, at length forced them from their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack the right wing of the Ruſſian army; but they had ſuch a warm reception from the artillery, that they ſoon retired in great diſorder. General Stoffeln and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to purſue the fugitives, at the head of eight battalions; which they did ſo effectually, that they followed them into the ſuburbs of Choczim, and their purſuit was at length only ſtopped by the paliſadoes of the fortreſs. The town was ſoon after ſet on fire by red-hot balls; and a great number of Jews and Chriſtians took refuge in the Ruſſian camp. It might have been expected, from theſe ſucceſſes, that Choczim would have immediately fallen into the hands of the Ruſſians: but this was not the caſe, for prince Gallitzin thought proper to retire from the place, and paſs the Nieſter: but on the 13th of July, a very obſtinate battle was fought, in which the Turks were defeated. The Ruſſians immediately inveſted the town; but the garriſon being numerous, made frequent ſallies, and was greatly ſtrengthened by reinforcements from the grand vizier's camp, who was now conſiderably advanced on this ſide the Danube. Several actions enſued, and prince Gallitzin was at length obliged to retreat from before Choczim, and again repaſs the Nieſter. The Ruſſians are ſuppoſed to have loſt 20,000 men by the ſiege of Choczim and the actions conſequent to it. The army which the grand vizier commanded was extremely licentious, and his caution diſpleaſed the janiſſaries; ſo that in conſequence of their clamours, and the weakneſs of the counſels that prevailed at the Ottoman court, he at length became a ſacrifice; and Moldovani Ali Pacha, who poſſeſſed more courage than conduct, was appointed to ſucceed him in the command of the army.

During theſe tranſactions, the Ruſſian general Romanzow, committed great deveſtations upon the Turks, in the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt ſeveral towns and villages, defeated a Turkiſh detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars alſo committed great ravages in Poland, where they almoſt totally deſtroyed the palatinate of Brucklaw, beſides doing much miſchief in other places.

In the beginning of September, the Ruſſian army appeared again on the banks of the Nieſter, in order to defend the paſſage of that river againſt the Turks, whoſe whole army, under the command of the new vizier, was poſted on the oppoſite ſhore. The two armies being thus ſituated, 8000 Turks, conſiſting entirely of janiſſaries and ſpahis, the two moſt celebrated corps of the braveſt and beſt diſciplined Turkiſh horſe and foot, paſſed the river in the night, and at break of day attacked a body of Ruſſians who were encamped on this ſide. Prince Repnin, who was poſted near the ſpot, marched immediately to the relief of this corps, and attacked the Turks at the head of four regiments with fixed bayonets. The engagement was furious and bloody; but at length the Turks were driven back, and purſued to the river, which they endeavoured to paſs in the utmoſt diſorder and confuſion; above 4000 of their number being either killed or wounded in this ill-judged attempt.

This misfortune was not ſufficient to convince the vizier, who was raſh and obſtinate, of the danger of ſending detachments acroſs a great river, in the face of a powerful enemy, without a communication with the main army, or the leaſt probability of ſupport. Having therefore laid three bridges over the Nieſter, the Turkiſh army, without making uſe of any ſtratagem or deception, began to paſs the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Gallitzin, having perceived this motion, immediately attacked thoſe troops that had croſſed the river in the night; who conſequently could neither chooſe their ground, nor have time to extend or form themſelves properly where they were. Notwithſtanding theſe great diſadvantages, the engagement was very ſevere, and continued from ſeven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obſtinacy; but they were at length totally defeated, and obliged to repaſs the river with conſiderable loſs, and in the greateſt diſorder and confuſion. It was computed that about 60,000 Turks croſſed the river before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Gallitzian charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, who deſtroyed the flower of the Turkiſh cavalry. The loſs of the Turks, in this battle, is ſaid to have amounted to 7000 men killed upon the ſpot, beſides wounded and priſoners, and a great number who were drowned.

Though the ill conduct of the vizier had greatly contributed to this capital misfortune, yet this conſideration did not deter him from engaging in another operation of the ſame nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to paſs over with the whole army. Accordingly, on the 17th of September, 8000 janiſſaries, and 4000 regular cavalry, the flower of the whole Ottaman army, paſſed over a large train of artillery; and the reſt of the army were in motion to follow, when a ſudden and extraordinary ſwell of the waters of the Nieſter carried away and totally deſtroyed the bridge. The Ruſſians loſt no time in making uſe of this great and unexpected advantage. A moſt deſperate engagement enſued, in which the ſlaughter of the Turks was prodigious. Not only the field of battle, but the river, over which ſome few hundreds of Turks made their eſcape by ſwimming, was for ſeveral miles covered with dead bodies. The Ruſſians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horſe-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, and abandoned the ſtrong fortreſs of Choczim, with all its ſtores and numerous artillery, and retired tumultuouſly towards the Danube. Prince Gallitzin placed a garriſon of four regiments in the fortreſs of Choczim, and ſoon after reſigned the command of the army to general Romanzow, and returned to Peterſburgh, covered with laurels. The Turks were much exaſperated at the ill conduct of their commander; and it was computed that they loſt 28,000 of their beſt and braveſt troops within little more than a fortnight; and that 40,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deſerted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube.

The war continued to be carried on ſucceſsfully by the Ruſſians, who over-ran the great province of Moldavia;

davia; while general Elmpt took poſſeſſion of the capital city of Jaſſy without oppoſition: and as the Greeks in this province had always ſecretly favoured the Ruſſians, they now took this opportunity of their ſucceſs, and the abſence of the Turks, to declare themſelves openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards thoſe of Wallachia, alſo acknowledged the empreſs of Ruſſia as their ſovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her.

On the 18th of July 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkiſh army near the Larga: the Turks are ſaid to have amounted to 80,000 men, and were commanded by the khan of the Crimea; and on the 2d of Auguſt, the ſame general obtained a ſtill greater victory over another army of the Turks, commanded by a new grand vizier. This army, though very numerous, was totally defeated; above 7000 Turks are ſaid to have been killed on the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies. There fell into the hands of the Ruſſians ſome thouſand carriages laden with proviſions, 143 pieces of cannon, and a vaſt quantity of ammunition.

The war continued for ſome time to be carried on between the Ruſſians and Turks, both by land and ſea, to the advantage of the former. Some attempts were, however, at length made to negotiate a peace; but it was a long time before matters could be accommodated between theſe great contending powers; hoſtilities were repeated, ſuſpended, and afterwards renewed: but at laſt a peace was concluded, highly honourable and beneficial to the Ruſſians. and by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all the ports of the Ottoman empire.

The war with the Turks was not quite concluded, when a rebellion broke out in Ruſſia, which gave much alarm to the court of Peterſburg. A coſſac; whoſe name was Pugatſcheff, took upon him to perſonate the late unfortunate emperor Peter III. He appeared in the kingdom of Kaſan, and pretended that he made his eſcape through an extraordinary interpoſition of Providence, from the murderers who were employed to aſſaſſinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. He is ſaid to have greatly reſembled the late emperor in his perſon; which circumſtance induced him to engage in this enterpriſe. As he poſſeſſed abilities and addreſs, his followers ſoon became very numerous; and he at length found himſelf ſo powerful, and his followers being armed and provided with artillery, that he ſtood ſeveral engagements with able Ruſſian generals, at the head of large bodies of troops, and committed great ravages in the country: but he was at laſt totally defeated and taken priſoner; and, being brought to Moſcow in an iron cage, he was beheaded in that city on the 21ſt of January 1775.

Notwithſtanding the very unfavourable circumſtances the empreſs of Ruſſia was ſubject to, on her taking poſſeſſion of the government of that extenſive empire, it is on all ſides allowed that ſhe has, from the commencement of her reign, continued to govern with diſtinguiſhed reputation and ability. She has endeavoured greatly to extend the commerce of her ſubjects; and, as far as the Ruſſian government would permit, has given great encouragement to learning and the arts and ſciences. Many beneficial and important regulations have been made by her in the interior police of her vaſt empire; one of which is, the abolition of the uſe of torture; beſides adopting an excellent plan for the reformation of priſons. But one of the moſt remarkable tranſactions of her reign, is her eſtabliſhment of an armed neutrality, for the protection of the commerce of nations not at war, from any attacks or inſults from belligerent powers. In 1780, her imperial majeſty invited to it the powers not at war; and the kings of Sweden and Denmark and the States-General accordingly acceded to it the ſame year.

In the year 1790, the flames of war again broke out, in which the Ruſſians and Danes united their forces againſt the Swedes, whoſe bravery was greatly ſignalized againſt the enemy, particularly at ſea, under the conduct of the duke of Sudermania. The king of Sweden alſo attacked the Ruſſian fleet in the road of Revel on the 13th of May; in this engagement the Ruſſians had eleven ſhips of the line and five frigates, which were ſupported by the guns of the works and ſeveral batteries; notwithſtanding which, the Ruſſians received much damage, and had it not been for a ſtorm, during which the wind changed, and the Swediſh ſhips could not uſe their lower deck guns, and many of them could not keep their place in the line, the Ruſſian fleet muſt have been ruined.

The Swedes alſo, in the ſame month, entered the Ruſſian territories, and poſſeſſed themſelves of a very ſtrong poſt called Karnankoſky, on the borders of the lake Saima, where the Ruſſians, with 10,000 men, made an attempt to diſlodge them. The Swedes withſtood their aſſault, and repulſed the Ruſſians, who are ſaid to have left near 2000 men on the field.

After various ſucceſs in the courſe of this war, the contending parties ſeemed diſpoſed for peace. The ſame motives which, for a ſeries of years, had rendered Guſtavus the devoted inſtrument of France; the ſame motives which had induced him to ſacrifice the lives of his people in the preſent conteſt, might be employed to convert him from the enemy into the ally of Ruſſia; on the 14th of Auguſt, 1790, therefore, a convention was ſigned between the courts of Ruſſia and Sweden, and was ratified in ſix days after. The baſis of the convention was, a general treaty of peace and amity, an alliance of the ſtricteſt nature, and an agreement that the boundaries of their reſpective territories ſhould remain the ſame as confirmed by the treaties of Abo and Nyſtadt.

At the cloſe of the year 1790, the empreſs had the ſatisfaction to ſee her conqueſts no longer bounded by the courſe of the Danube. The capture of Iſmail was the laſt important action. Eight different times were the Muſcovites repulſed with the ſlaughter of many of their braveſt ſoldiers. At the ninth, general Suwarrow put himſelf at their head, and ſnatching a ſtandard out of an officer's hand, ran directly towards the town, paſſed the trenches, and clambering up the wall, planted it himſelf upon the ramparts. "There," cried he, "my fellow ſoldiers, behold there your ſtandard in the power of the enemy, unleſs you will preſerve it; but I know you are brave, and will not ſuffer it to remain in their hands." This ſpeech had the deſired effect. It was taken by ſtorm on the 22d of December, 1790; and it is ſaid that the ſiege and capture did not coſt the Ruſſians leſs than 10,000 men. The moſt ſhocking part of the tranſaction is, that the garriſon (whoſe bravery merited, and would have received from a generous foe, the higheſt honours) were maſſacred in cold blood by the mercileſs Ruſſians, to the amount of upwards of 30,000 men, by their own account; and the place was given up to the unreſtrained fury of the brutal ſoldiery. The moſt horrid outrages were perpetrated on the defenceleſs inhabitants; and the conduct of the conquerors was more like that of a horde of cannibals, than of a civilized people.

England and Pruſſia, after a long and extenſive armed negotiation, at length aſſented to the demand of the empreſs, which was ſtrengthened by the interference of Spain and Denmark, that Oczakow, and the territory between the rivers Bog and Nieſter, ſhall in full ſovereignty belong to Ruſſia; that the river Nieſter ſhall for the future determine the frontiers of Ruſſia and the Porte; that the two powers

may

may erect on the ſhores of that river what fortreſſes they think proper: and Ruſſia engages to grant a free navigation on the river Nieſter. This was concluded on the 11th of Auguſt, 1791. Thus has the Porte entered into a war, for the purpoſe of regaining the Crimea, and after reducing the Ottoman empire to extreme weakneſs, and internal ſymptoms of ruin, irretrievable by a government in a regular progreſs of deterioration, loſt an important territory, and left the exiſtence of the empire at the mercy of another Ruſſian war. By ſome advantages offered to Pruſſia and Poland, and a few intrigues, Ruſſia may change the fluctuating ſtream of European politics, and by one powerful campaign overturn the Turkiſh monarchy.

The final treaty with the Turks was concluded at Jaſſy, the 9th of January, 1792. Catharine then applied herſelf to the improvement of Oczakow, and rendered it a place of great ſtrength, importance and commerce. At the ſame time ſhe was not inattentive to European politics. When the coalition of ſovereign powers was formed againſt France, Guſtavus III. the late king of Sweden, was to have conducted that expedition which was afterwards made againſt France by the king of Pruſſia and the prince of Brunſwick. Catharine, on this occaſion, promiſed to aſſiſt him and the alliance, with twelve thouſand Ruſſian troops, and an annual ſubſidy of three hundred thouſand rubles. She aſſured the pope that ſhe would ſupport him in the reſumption of Avignon, and publiſhed a ſtrong manifeſto againſt the French revolution and the progreſs of liberty; but the only active part ſhe took againſt that revolution, was ſending twelve ſhips of the line and eight frigates to join the Engliſh fleet, which were paid for by a ſubſidy, victualled and repaired in the Britiſh ports, and then returned home without rendering any further ſervice. But her attention was principally directed to Poland, and the efforts which that people made in the cauſe of liberty. Whilſt ſhe amuſed the world with manifeſtoes againſt France, ſhe beheld, with pleaſure, the greateſt powers of Europe waſting their ſtrength and treaſure; and undiſturbed by any foreign interference, made a ſecond partition of Poland, the circumſtances of which the reader will find briefly narrated in our account of that unfortunate country.

By her intrigues, ſhe, in like manner, annexed to the crown of Ruſſia the fertile and populous country of Courland. She invited the duke of Courland to her court under the pretext that ſhe wiſhed to confer with him on ſome affairs of importance; and during his abſence the ſtates of Courland aſſembled, and the nobles propoſed to renounce the ſovereignty of Poland, and annex the country to the empire of Ruſſia. The principal members of the great council oppoſed this change; but the Ruſſian general Pahlen appeared in the aſſembly, and his preſence ſilenced all objections. The next day (March 18, 1795) an act was drawn up, by which Courland, Semigallia, and the circle of Pilten, were ſurrendered to the empreſs of Ruſſia. The act was ſent to Peterſburg, and the ſubmiſſion of the ſtates accepted by the empreſs. The duke of Courland was in no condition to refuſe his acquieſcence: he received very conſiderable preſents from the empreſs, in compenſation, and retired to live on ſome extenſive eſtates he had purchaſed in Pruſſia.

But the acquiſition, by intrigue and artifice, of countries incapable of reſiſtance, was not ſufficient to ſatisfy the ambition of Catharine. Inceſſantly anxious to extend her dominions, ſhe turned her arms againſt Perſia, under the pretext of defending Lolf Ali Khan a deſcendent of the race of the Sophis; but in reality to ſeize on the Perſian provinces which border on the Caſpian ſea. Her general Valerian Zouboff penetrated, at the head of a numerous army, into the province of Dagheſtan, and laid ſiege to Derbent. Having carried a high tower which defended the place, he put all the garriſon to the ſword, and prepared to ſtorm the city. The Perſians, terrified at the barbarous fury of the Ruſſians, demanded quarter; and the keys of the city were delivered up to Zouboff by the commandant, a venerable old man, a hundred and twenty years of age, who had before ſurrendered Derbent to Peter I. at the beginning of the preſent century. Aga Mahmed was advancing to the relief of Derbent, when he learned that the place was already in the power of the Ruſſians. Zouboff drew out his army, and gave him battle; but victory declared in favour of the Perſians, who forced the Ruſſians to retire into Derbent; in conſequence of which defeat, a ſtrong body of Ruſſian troops were ordered to reinforce the army of Zouboff.

Theſe martial preperations, and plans of ambition, were, however, interrupted by her death. On the morning of the 9th of November, 1796, ſhe appeared very chearful, and took her coffee as uſual. Soon after ſhe retired into the cloſet, where continuing unuſually long, her attendants became alarmed, and at length opened the door, when they found her on the floor in a ſtate of inſenſibility, with her feet againſt the door. Doctor Rogerſon, her firſt phyſician, was immediately called, who bled her twice. At firſt ſhe appeared rather to revive, but was unable to utter a word, and expired at ten o'clock at night.

Catharine II. in her youth had been handſome, and preſerved in the cloſe of life a graceful and majeſtic air. She was of a middle ſtature, well proportioned, and, as ſhe carried her head very erect, appeared taller than ſhe really was. Her forehead was open, her noſe aquiline, her mouth well made, and her chin ſomewhat long, though not ſo as to have a diſagreeable effect. Her countenance did not want for expreſſion; but ſhe was too well practiſed in the courtly habits of diſſimulation, to ſuffer it to expreſs what ſhe wiſhed to conceal.

With reſpect to her political character, ſhe was undoubtedly a great ſovereign. From the commencement of her reign ſhe laboured, and with the greateſt ſucceſs, to increaſe the power and political conſequence of her country. She encouraged learning and the arts, and made every exertion to extend, encourage, and enlarge the commerce of her ſubjects. She effected many and important regulations in the interior police, and particularly in the courts of juſtice. She aboliſhed the torture, and adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of priſons. The new code of laws, for which ſhe gave inſtructions, will contribute ſtill more to mitigate the rigour of deſpotiſm. In the execution, indeed, of her plans for the aggrandiſement of her empire, ſhe appears to have acknowledged no right but power, no law but intereſt. Of her private life, her panegyriſts, if prudent, will ſpeak but little. They will dwell lightly on the means by which ſhe mounted the throne. The only palliation of that conduct, which the moſt friendly ingenuity can ſuggeſt, will be derived from the frequent and bloody uſurpations which, ſince the death of Peter the Great, had almoſt become the habit of the Ruſſian court. But there are ſome acts, at the recital of which we ſhould ſhudder, even if the ſcene were laid in Morocco. The myſterious fate of prince Iwan, in 1763, cannot be obliterated from hiſtory; the blood ſpilt in the long-conceived ſcheme of expelling the Turks from Europe, and reeſtabliſhing the eaſtern empire in the perſon of a ſecond Conſtantine, will not be expiated, in the eſtimation of humanity, by the gigantic magnificence of the project. Above all the fate of Poland, the diſſenſions and civil wars induſtriouſly fomented in that unhappy kingdom, for a period of thirty years, —the horrible maſſacres which attended its final ſubjugation, and the impious mockery of returning ſolemn thanks to heaven for the ſucceſs of ſuch

atrocious crimes, will be a foul and indelible ſtain on the memory of Catharine.

The character of her ſucceſſor Paul I. as far as it has been diſplayed ſince the commencement of his reign, appears to be milder and more pacific than that of his mother. Immediately on his acceſſion to the throne, he ordered hoſtilities to ceaſe between Ruſsia and Perſia; and a peace was ſoon after concluded between the two countries. He has ſet at liberty the unfortunate Koſciuſko, the general of the Poliſh inſurgents, beſtowed on him a penſion, with liberty either to reſide in his dominions or retire to America, which latter country the general has choſen for his aſylum. He has behaved with an honourable liberality towards the depoſed king of Poland; and reſtored to their eſtates a great number of Poliſh emigrants and fugitives. Should his abilities, as ſome have ſuggeſted, be unequal to the extenſive ſchemes of unjuſt ambition, planned and partly executed by his predeceſſor, the good qualities of his heart, which theſe acts ſeem to evince, may ultimately tend much more to the proſperity and happineſs of his people.

Catharine II. the empreſs of all the Ruſsias, was born May 2, 1729, and aſcended the throne July 9th, 1762, upon the depoſition and death of her huſband. She was married to that prince while he was duke of Holſtein Gottorp, Sept. 1, 1745; and died Nov. 9, 1796.

Paul I. preſent emperor of Ruſsia, was born Oct. 1, 1754. He has been twice married, and by his preſent conſort, who was princeſs of Wirtemberg, has iſſue:

1. Alexander, born Dec. 23, 1777, married to the princeſs Louiſa of Baden, May 21, 1793.
2. Conſtantine, born May 8, 1779, married to the princeſs of Saxe Cobourg, February 14, 1796.
3. Alexander Powlowna, born in Aug. 1783.
4. Helena, born Dec. 24, 1784.
5. A princeſs, born in March, 1786.
6. Another princeſs, born in May, 1788.
7. Another princeſs, born in 1792.

CHAP. VIII.

ISLANDS OF SCOTLAND.

Situation, Extent, Climate, Inhabitants, Animal and Vegetable Productions, Curioſities, &c.

THE iſlands belonging to Scotland conſiſt of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides or Weſtern Iſles.

SHETLAND ISLANDS lie north-eaſt of the Orcades, or Orkney Iſlands, between 60 and 61 deg. of north lat. and are part of the ſhire of Orkney. The Orcades lie north of Dungſby-Head, between 59 and 60 deg, of north lat. divided from the continent by a tempeſtuous ſtreight called Pentland Frith, twenty-four miles long and twelve broad. The Hebrides, or Weſtern Iſlands are very numerous, and ſome of them large, ſituated between 55 and 59 deg. of north lat. theſe lie ſcattered in the Deucaledonian ſea, to the north-weſt of of Scotland.

The air of theſe iſlands is ſalutary, but keen and piercing, except in ſummer, when it is very ſerene. During the months of June and Juiy, the inhabitants can ſee to read at midnight; but then they are ſubject to a winter of eight months, in which ſeaſon they are involved in darkneſs, ſtorms, and fogs. In ſummer their ſea is covered with fiſhing-veſſels belonging to different nations, who reſort thither to catch herrings, with which their coaſt abounds; but from October to May, they are deprived of every communication with other countries; and not a ſingle ſhip is ſeen on their coaſt. The ſoil is in general rocky and ſandy, and conſequently barren in many places.

Many of the Shetland iſlands (which are forty-ſix in number) are uninhabited, Mainland is the largeſt, being ſixty miles in length, and twenty in breadth. Larwick is the principal town, and contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the iſland not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where may be ſeen the remains of a caſtle, and it is the ſeat of a preſbytery. The Dutch begin at Midſummer to fiſh for herrings on the coaſt of this iſland, and their fiſhing-ſeaſon laſts ſix months. The Shetlands derive a great advantage from this fiſhery. A great traffic is carried on between theſe iſlanders and the people of Hamburg and Bremen, who take in return for brandy, ſpices, &c. their live ſtock, hoſe, and mittens.

The ORKNEY ISLANDS are about thirty in number, but moſt of them unpeopled; the largeſt is called Pomona, being thirty-three miles in length, and nine in breadth, in ſome places. It contains nine pariſh churches, and has four excellent harbours. The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a pariſh church. Its roof is ſupported by fourteen pillars on each ſide, and its ſteeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white poliſhed ſtones, emboſſed and elegantly flowered.

MULL, one of the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and in ſome places almoſt as broad. It contains two pariſh churches, and a caſtle, called Duert, which is the chief place in the iſland. The other principal weſtern iſlands are Lewis, or Harris, both which form one iſland, which belongs to the ſhire of Roſs, and is 100 miles in length, and thirteen or fourteen in breadth; its chief town is Stornvay.

Sky, belonging to the ſhire of Inverneſs is forty miles long, and thirty broad in ſome places; fruitful, and well peopled. Bute, about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the caſtle of Rothſay, which gave the title of duke to the eldeſt ſons of the kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothſay is likewiſe a royal burgh; and the iſlands of Bute and Arran form the ſhire of Bute. Ila and Jura are part of Argyleſhire, and contain together 370 ſquare miles, but they have in them no remarkable towns. North Uiſt contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fiſhing. Many other of the Hebrides iſlands are of ſmall importance either to the public or the proprietors, though, by the very improveable fiſheries upon their coaſts, it is not unlikely they may in future times be of great conſequence to both. Jona was once famous for being the ſeat and ſanctuary of ancient learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. St. Kilda, or Hirt, is the remoteſt of all the north-weſt iſlands, and very difficult of acceſs: it contains about thirty-five families.

The inhabitants of Shetland were originally emigrants from Norway, to which for many years they paid a tribute called Schet, from whence their new ſettlement derived the name of Schetland. But ſome centuries ago theſe iſlands were ceded to the king of Scotland, for a valuable conſideration, and have ever ſince been annexed to the Scottiſh crown, and, with the iſles of Orkney, form a ſhire. The Shetlanders are in general ſimple, honeſt, religious, hoſpitable, humane, and commonly live to a great age. Thoſe who poſſeſs eſtates, are of Scotch extraction, and live in as great elegance as the gentry of that kingdom: but the poorer ſort of people ſubſiſt chiefly upon fiſh, which ſupplies them with light as well as food; for they make an oil of it, which they burn in lamps during the continuance of their long winter; when, having

having no wood, they make fires of turf, peat, and heath. Their common drink is butter-milk mixed with water and whey; which latter, by a peculiar method of fermentation, acquires a vinous quality, when they barrel it for uſe.

The people who inhabit the leſſer iſles ſubſiſt upon the eggs and fleſh of ſea-fowl, the firſt of which they obtain at the imminent hazard of their lives, climbing up the rocks to the neſts, or being lowered down to them by ropes, over dreadful precipices. Theſe iſlanders, in general, enjoy an excellent ſtate of health, and, when attacked by any diſeaſe, ſeldom employ a phyſician. They are ſubject to the ſcurvy, which they cure with the cochlearia or ſcurvy-graſs, and their ſovereign remedy for the jaundice is powder of ſnail-ſhells.

The inhabitants of the Hebrides are deſcended from the ſame anceſtors with thoſe who live in the Highlands of Scotland, to whoſe cuſtoms they entirely conform; but are much more ſimple and induſtrious. They are in general ſtrong, vigorous, and healthy. The men are fond of tobacco to exceſs, and make uſe of it in all the different ways of chewing, ſmoaking, and ſnuff. They ſometimes eat fleſh, but their moſt common food conſiſts of oatmeal, cheeſe, butter, milk, and whey. The better ſort of people live very comfortably, but the poor dwell in wretched cabins built of looſe ſtones and mud, and thatched with ſtraw. The partitions within are no other than a kind of hurdle, plaſtered with clay, and they have neither glaſs in their windows, nor any other chimney, than a hole in the centre of the roof, immediately under which is a hearth made of ſtone, whereon they burn wood, peat, or turf. Around this hearth the family ſit in the day time, and lie at night, during the winter. At the further end of the ſame houſe, the cattle are ſtalled, and the children, calves, and pigs, frequently ſleep all together; for theſe people are exceedingly naſty, and to this ſluttiſhneſs in themſelves and habitations may be imputed that inveterate itch with which they are ſo generally infected. The attachment of theſe iſlanders to their chieftains is remarkably ſtrong, norwithſtanding great pains have been taken by the legiſlature of Great Britain to overcome connexions ſo dangerous to government. Both ſexes are exceedingly fond of dancing to their own muſic, and the men are very expert and agile in all the exerciſes of the field.

The reader would not pardon an author, who, in treating of this ſubject, ſhould omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which diſtinguiſhes the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of *ſecond ſight*. It would be equally abſurd to attempt to diſprove the reality of the inſtances of this kind that have been related by reputable authors, as to admit all that has been ſaid upon the ſubject. The adepts of the ſecond ſight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather preſentations, either really or typically, which ſwim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the courſe of 24 or 48 hours. I do not, however, from the beſt information, obſerve that any two of theſe adepts agree as to the manner and form of thoſe revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth ſeems to be, that thoſe iſlanders, by indulging themſelves in lazy habits, acquire viſionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are preſented with thoſe phantaſms, which they miſtake for fatidical or prophetic manifeſtations. They inſtantly begin to propheſy; and it would be abſurd to ſuppoſe, that, amidſt many thouſand predictions, ſome did not happen to be fulfilled; and theſe being well atteſted, give a ſanction to the whole.

The iſlands of Orkney, which were originally peopled from Norway, were formerly ſometimes ſubject to the Norwegians, and at others to the Scots, juſt as the chance of war determined; but at length they were entirely ceded to Alexander, king of Scotland, by Magnus, king of Norway, for the ſum of 4000 marks ſterling, and an annual acknowledgement of 100 more.

In theſe iſlands the genteeler ſort of people are exceedingly polite, hoſpitable, frugal, ſagacious, circumſpect, and religious; conforming themſelves entirely to the manners of the Scots, from whom they are in general deſcended. The common people, particularly the mariners, are bold, active, dextrous, hardy, and inured to fatigue even from their infancy. Their common food is ſalt fiſh, which ſubjects them to ſevere attacks of the ſcurvy. In moſt diſorders they make uſe of plants, but being exceedingly ſuperſtitious, they put great faith in charms and amulets. Theſe people, like the Shetlanders, are remarkable for longevity.

The population of theſe three diviſions of iſlands cannot be given with certainty. They are repreſented by credible hiſtorians as having been much better peopled about 400 years ago, than they are at preſent: for the Hebrides themſelves were often known to ſend 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. It is ſaid, their numbers do not now exceed 48,000. The religion profeſſed in the Hebrides is chiefly Preſbyterian, as eſtabliſhed in the Church of Scotland; but great ignorance ſtill prevails among ſome of the iſlanders; whilſt they are extremely addicted to ſuperſtitious practices and cuſtoms. The language of the inhabitants of the Hebrides ſeems to be a compound of the Daniſh, Norwegian, and that of other northern people, but in no degree approaches to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erſe, which has been the received, though erroneous opinion, of many learned men.

Iron, tin, lead, and ſilver mines; marl, ſlate, free-ſtone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon theſe iſlands; alſo talc, cryſtals, and numbers of curious pebbles; and they are not deſtitute of fine freſh water, nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. The preſent face of the ſoil is bare, and unornamented with trees, except a few that are reared in gardens; but experience daily ſhews, that, if the ſoil of the northern and weſtern iſlands was, till of late barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it muſt have been owing to its want of improvement by cultivation; for ſuch ſpots as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables, and garden-ſtuff, more than ſufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Many of theſe iſlands have been the habitations of the Druids, whoſe temples are ſtill viſible in moſt of them; and thoſe temples were ſurrounded with groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The ſtumps of former trees, however, are diſcernable, as are many veſtiges of grandeur, even ſince the admiſſion of the Chriſtian religion; which prove the decreaſe of the riches, power, and population of the inhabitants.

The ſtaple commodities of theſe iſlands conſiſt of fiſh, eſpecially herrings, which are the beſt in the world, and, when properly cured, are ſuperior even to thoſe of the Dutch. They carry on likewiſe a conſiderable trade in down and feathers; and their wool, which they manufacture into coarſe cloths, ſtockings, and a variegated ſtuff called tartan, and the linen manufactures make no ſmall progreſs in theſe iſlands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are diſpoſed of in ſale or barter, as are large quantities of mutton, which they ſalt in the hide. From the Orkneys, they annually export, beſides cattle, ſkins of ſeals, otters, lambs, and rabbits; alſo corn, butter, tallow, ſalt, down, feathers, writing quills, and hams; to which we may add, wool and ſtuffs.

Moſt of the birds and fiſhes common to the northern countries are to be found here; beſides which,

which, here is a ſpecies of falcon or hawk, of a more docile nature than any that are to be found elſewhere. The Shetland iſlands are famous for a ſmall breed of horſes, which are exceedingly active, ſtrong, and hardy, and frequently ſeen in the ſtreets of London, yoked to the ſplendid carriages of the curious or wealthy. The Orkneys bear plentiful crops of barley, and oats will come to perfection. In theſe iſlands are alſo, beſides a great variety of cattle, all kinds of domeſtic animals, and poultry. Plenty of red deer, partridges, growſe, heath-cock, and plover, are found on the heaths and commons; and the waters abound in duck, teal, and widgeon. The ſea, beſides whales, ſeals, and otters, furniſhes the inhabitants with cod, ling, tuſk, herrings, crabs, oyſters, remarkable large muſcles and cockles. The rocks are covered with eagles, hawks, kites, wild geeſe, ſolan geeſe, barnacles, lipes, and other ſpecies of wild fowl.

The artificial curioſities conſiſt chiefly in the remains of Druidical monuments, ancient caſtles, and churches. The firſt are found in many of the iſlands; but the moſt remarkable is ſituated near the village of Claſſerniſs, in the iſland of Lewis. This monument conſiſts of thirty pyramidical ſtones ſtanding upright, about ſix or ſeven feet high above the ſurface of the ground; forming a kind of avenue eight feet wide, leading to a circle of twelve ſtones of the ſame dimenſions, and one in the centre. The central ſtone is thirteen feet high, and ſhaped like the rudder of a ſhip. On the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt ſides of this circle, are four ſtones ſimilar to thoſe which compoſe the circle and avenue, forming three right lines, or rays, iſſuing from the body of the circle. This is ſuppoſed to have been a Druid temple, and the inhabitants have a tradition that the chief Druid ſtood by the large ſtone in the centre, and harangued the audience.

The fortifications are thoſe principally erected by the Danes, and conſiſt of watch-towers, beacons, and a great number of caves, or caverns, ſome of which are capacious, and almoſt impregnable.

A great variety of eccleſiaſtical antiquities, conſiſting of the ruins of churches, convents, and other ſtructures dedicated to religion, are found in many of theſe iſlands; but the moſt remarkable are thoſe on Jona, or St. Columb-kill. According to ancient tradition, St. Columba firſt landed in this iſland from Ireland; and after converting the Picts by his preaching the Chriſtian religion, the king beſtowed this iſland on him, as a mark of his gratitude for the eminent ſervice he had done his country. But however that be, it is certain that he erected in that iſland two churches, and two monaſteries, and inſtituted a ſeminary which ſoon became famous for learning. Here the remains of ancient literature were cultivated and preſerved, when it was almoſt obliterated in other parts of Europe. Theſe foundations were richly endowed by the kings of Scotland, and lords of the iſles; Jona became the reſidence of the biſhop of the iſles, and, on account of its ſuppoſed ſanctity, was choſen as the burial place for kings, heroes, and eccleſiaſtical perſons.

The Church of St. Mary is built in the form of a croſs, and in the Gothic ſtyle of architecture. On each ſide of the choir are two chapels, adorned at the entrance with large pillars carved in baſſo-relievo; the ſteeple, doors, and windows are decorated with curious fretwork: the altar is large, magnificent, and compoſed of fine poliſhed marble. Several abbots are interred within the church, and among theſe, Mac-Ilikenich, whoſe ſtatue of black marble, as big as the life, is placed over his tomb, in an epiſcopal habit, with his mitre and croſier. Behind the church are the ruins of a cloiſter, library, and hall. At the weſt end of the church is a ſmall cell, where we find the tomb of St. Columba, but without any inſcription. Near it ſtands the Croſs of St. Martin, an entire piece of porphyry, eight feet high, placed on a pedeſtal, and exhibiting on the eaſt ſide the figure of a tree, and on the weſt a large crucifix. On the ſouth ſide of the Church of St. Ouran is the cemetry, where the kings and chieftains lie buried under ſhrines. Here are three vaults diſtinguiſhed by inſcriptions, now not legible. In that on the right hand, four kings of Ireland lie interred; in that on the left, eight kings of Norway; and in the middle-moſt, forty-eight kings of Scotland.

In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the weſtern iſlands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a ſtone called a dwarf ſtone, thirty-ſix feet long, eighteen broad, and nine thick; in which is a ſquare hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a ſtone of the ſame ſize, for a door. Within this entrance is the reſemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the ſtone, big enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequently in theſe iſlands; and the gigantic bones found in many burial-places here, give room to believe that the former inhabitants were of larger ſize than the preſent.

In theſe iſlands, the natural curioſities are very numerous: they abound with rocks of various uncommon forms, prodigious caverns, and cataracts. But the whirlpool, or vortex, near Jurah, called Cory-Vreltan, muſt not be paſſed over without notice. It is ſituated between the north-end of Jurah, and the ſmall iſland of Scarba. In this vortex, which extends about a mile in breadth, the ſea begins to boil and ferment with the tide of flood, increaſing gradually to a number of whirlpools, which, in the form of pyramids, ſpout up the water with a great noiſe, as high as the maſt of a ſmall veſſel, agitated into ſuch a foam, as gives the ſea a white appearance, at two leagues diſtance. About half flood the violence begins to decreaſe, and continues gradually ſubſiding, till about half an hour after high-water, when the ſmalleſt fiſhing-boat may croſs it without the leaſt danger. And Sir Joſeph Banks, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno 1772, gives us the following deſcription of one of the moſt aſtoniſhiſhing appearances in nature. "We were no ſooner arrived (ſays this gentleman) than we were ſtruck with a ſcene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the moſt ſanguine probability: the whole of that end of the iſland (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) ſupported by ranges of natural pillars, moſtly above fifty feet high, ſtanding in natural colonades, according as the bays or points of land formed themſelves: upon a firm baſis of ſolid unformed rock, above theſe, the ſtratum which reaches to the ſoil or ſurface of the iſland, varied in thickneſs as the iſland itſelf formed into hills or vallies; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; ſome of theſe above ſixty feet in thickneſs from the baſe to the point, formed, by the ſloping of the hill on each ſide, almoſt into the ſhape of thoſe uſed in architecture." But the moſt ſtriking object in this field of ſcenery is Fingal's Cave, thus deſcribed by Mr. Banks: "We proceeded along the ſhore, treading upon another Giant's Cauſeway, every ſtone being regularly formed into a certain number of ſides and angles; till, in a ſhort time, we arrived at the mouth of the moſt magnificent cave that has probably ever been deſcribed by travellers. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than ſuch a ſpace, ſupported on each ſide by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of thoſe which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow ſtalagmitic matter has exuded, which ſerves to define the angles preciſely, and at the ſame time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and, to render it ſtill more agreeable, the

whole

A NEW and Correct MAP of SCOTLAND.

Drawn from the Latest SURVEYS of that Part of GREAT BRITAIN.

C. Pinas Sc. No. 53 Holborn

ORKNEY ISLANDS

WESTERN OCEAN

SHETLAND ISLANDS

Note these Islands are placed here because they are in a higher Latitude than what the Scale of the Map will admit of

ENGLAND

Longitude West from London

British Statute Miles

whole is lighted from without; ſo that the furtheſt extremity is very plainly ſeen from without, and the air within being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholeſome, free entirely from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns generally abound." The length of this wonderful cave, from the arch without, is 371 feet; from the pitch of the arch, 250; breadth at the mouth, 53; height of the arch at the mouth 117; at the end, 70; height of an outſide pillar, 39; of one at the N. W. corner, 54; depth of the water at the mouth, 18; at the bottom, nine feet.

On the weſt ſide of the iſland of Pabbay, a ſtream running down the face of a rock petrifies into a white hard ſubſtance, of which the natives make excellent lime.

For an account of learning, learned men, and hiſtory, the reader is referred to the enſuing deſcription of SCOTLAND.

CHAP. IX.

SCOTLAND.

Situation, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Rivers, &c. Produce, Population, Inhabitants, Cuſtoms, Cities, Commerce and Manufacturies, Fiſheries, &c.

SCOTLAND, or NORTH BRITAIN, is ſituated between 54 and 59. deg. of north lat. and between 1 and 6 deg. of weſt long. It is about 300 miles in length, 190 in breadth, and contains an area of 27,794 ſquare miles; being bounded on the north by the Deucaledonian Ocean, on the ſouth by England, on the eaſt by the German Ocean, and on the weſt by the Iriſh Sea.

Scotland is divided into two parts, ſeparated by the Frith of Forth; Edinburgh is the capital of the ſouthern diviſion, and Aberdeen the chief town of the northern. The northern contains fifteen counties, and the ſouthern eighteen, and theſe counties are ſubdivided as follow:

Shires.	*Sheriffdoms and other Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
1. Edinburgh	Mid-Lothian	Edinburgh, Muſſelburg, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington	Eaſt-Lothian	Dunbar, Haddington, and North Berwick.
3. Merſe, anciently Berwick	The Merches and Bailiery of Lauderdale	Dunſe and Lauder.
4. Roxborough	Tiviotdale, Lidſdale, Eſkdale, and Euſdale	Jedburgh, Kelſo, and Melroſs.
5. Selkirk	Ettrick Foreſt	Selkirk.
6. Peebles	Tweedle	Peebles.
7. Lanerk	Clydeſdale	Glaſgow, Hamilton, Lanerk, and Rutherglen.
8. Dumfries	Nithſdale, Annandale	Dumfries, Annan.
9. Wigtown	Galloway, W. Part	Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn.
10. Kirkcudbright	Galloway, E. Part	Kirkcudbright.
11. Aire	Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham	Aire, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybole, Stewarton, and Salcots.
12. Dumbarton	Lenox	Dumbarton.
13. Bute, and 14. Caithneſs	Bute, Arron, Caithneſs	Rothſay, Wick, Thurſo.
15. Renfrew	Renfrew	Renfrew, Paiſley, Greenock, and Port-Glaſgow.
16. Stirling	Stirling	Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow	Weſt-Lothian	Linlithgow, Burroughſtonneſs, and Queen's Ferry.
18. Argyle	Argyle, Cowval, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with part of the W. Iſles, particularly Iſla, Jura, Mull, Wiſt, Teriff, Col, and Liſmore	Inverary, Dunſtaffnage, Killemor, and Campbel-Town.
19. Perth	Athol, Gowry, Breadalbane, Monteith, Strathern, Stormount, Glenſheild, and Raynork	Perth, Scone, Dumblain, Blair, and Dunkeld.
20. Kincarden	Mearns	Bervie, Stonhive, and Kincardin.
21. Aberdeen	Mar, Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogie	Old Aberdeen, New Aberdeen, Frazerburgh, Peterhead Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum.
22. Inverneſs	Aird, Strathglaſs, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, and Glenmoriſon	Inverneſs, Inverlochy, Fort Auguſtus, and Boſbaw.
23. Nairne, and 24. Cromarty	Weſtern Part of Murray and Cromarty	Nairne, Cromarty.
25. Fife	Fife	St. Andrew's Cowper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt-Iſland, Dumfermline, Dyſart, Anſtruther, and Aberdour.
26. Forfar	Forfar, Angus	Montroſe, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroath, Brechin.
27. Banff	Banff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Eury, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan	Bamff and Cullen.
28. Sutherland	Strathnaver and Sutherland	Strathy and Dornock.
29. Clacmannan, and 30. Kinroſs	Fife part	Culroſs, Clacmannan, Alloa, and Kinroſs.
31. Roſs	Eaſter and Weſter Roſs, Iſle of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarren, Ardmeanach, Redcaſtle, Ferrintoſh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald	Taine, Dingwall, Portroſe, Roſamarkie, and New Kelſo.
32. Elgin	Murray and Strathſpey	Elgin and Forres.
33. Orkney	Iſles of Orkney and Shetland	Kirkwall, Skalloway.

In all, thirty-three ſhires, which chooſe thirty repreſentatives to ſit in the parliament of Great-Britain; Bute and Caithneſs, Nairne and Cromarty, Clackmannan and Kinroſe, chooſe alternately.

Each of the fifteen royal boroughs chooſes one repreſentative. Theſe are, 1. Edinburgh; 2 Kirkwall, Wick, Dornock, Dingwall, and Tayne; 3 Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairne, and Forres; 4. Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverary, and Kintore; 5. Aberdeen, Bervie, Montroſe, Aberbrothe, and Brechin; 6. Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrew's; 7. Crail, Kilrenny, Anſtruther Eaſt and Weſt, and Pittenweem; 8. Dyſart, Kirkaldy, Kinghorn, and Burnt-Iſland; 9. Innerkythen, Dumfermline, Queen's-Ferry, Culroſs, and Stirling; 10. Glaſgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton; 11. Haddington, Dunbar, North Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh; 12. Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk; 13. Dumfries, Sanquebar, Annan, Lochmaben, and Kirkcudbright; 14. Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn; 15. Air, Irvin, Rothſay, Campbel-Town, and Inverary.

The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in ſo northerly a climate. This ariſes partly from the variety of its hills, vallies, rivers, and lakes; but ſtill more, as in England, from the vicinity of the ſea, which affords thoſe warm breezes that not only ſoften the natural keenneſs of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent thoſe epidemical diſtempers which prevail in other countries. In the northern parts, day-light, at Midſummer, laſts eighteen hours and five minutes; and the day and night in winter are in the ſame proportion. The ſoil in Scotland varies, as it commonly does in every other country; the Lowlands are rich, and only want proper culture to produce good crops of wheat and other grain; but the finer particles of earth, inceſſantly worked down from the mountains, and depoſited in the vallies, afford them a vegetable nouriſhment capable of carrying the ſtrongeſt plants to perfection; though many vegetables and hortulan productions do not come ſo ſoon to perfection here as in England. The water naturally depends on the quality of the ſoil over which it paſſes; but it is for the moſt part very ſalutary; and, of late years, ſome mineral ſprings have been diſcovered in this country. The Uplands yield excellent paſture, but there are in them extenſive tracts of barren heath.

Though Scotland enjoys many large and long tracts of ground, fit for all the purpoſes of agriculture, yet it is in general very mountainous; from eaſt to weſt it is divided by a chain of theſe, known by the name of Grants-Bain, or the Grampian-Hills, which run through Lothian, and join the mountains of Tweedale. A third diſtinguiſhed by the name of Lammer-Muir, riſing near the eaſtern coaſt, runs weſtward through the Merſe; and, beſides theſe, there are a prodigious number of detached hills and mountains, remarkable for their ſtupendous height and declivity.

In this country, there are many rivers, lakes, rivulets, and fountains; the names of the principal rivers are the Tweed, the Forth, the Clyde, the Tay, and the Spey. The Tweed takes its riſe on the borders of Annandale, which ſerves as a boundary between Scotland and England; and, after a ſerpentine courſe of great length, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at Berwick. The Forth riſes in Monteith, near Callendar, paſſes by Stirling, and, after a courſe of twenty-five leagues, runs into the arm of the ſea called the Frith of Forth, which divides the coaſt of Lothian from Fife. The Clyde takes its riſe from Errick-Hill, in the ſhire of Lanerk, traverſes the ſhire of Clydeſdale, waſhes the city of Glaſgow, widens in its paſſage to the caſtle of Dumbarton, and forms the Frith of Clyde, adjoining to the Iriſh ſea. The Tay derives its ſource from Loch-Tay in Breadalbane, and, after a ſouth-eaſt courſe, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea below Dundee. The Spey iſſues from a lake of the ſame name in Badenoch, and, running a north-eaſterly courſe, falls into the German Ocean near Aberdour. Beſides theſe capital rivers, there are a number of ſmaller ſtreams, that are very deep, and contribute greatly to the beauty and advantage of the country.

The lakes in Scotland are very numerous; the inhabitants ſometimes giving the name of lake, or loch, to an arm of the ſea; which is the caſe of Loch Fyn, famous for its excellent herrings, it being ſixty miles long and four broad. Loch An, Loch Lomond, and Loch Tay, preſent us with the moſt beautiful ſcenes, and their banks, like thoſe of many others, are adorned with woods. Near Lochneſs, on the top of a hill, two miles in perpendicular height, is a lake of freſh water, about 180 feet in length, unfathonable, and remarkable for never having been known to freeze; whereas Loch Anwyn, or Green Lake, which is not above ſeventeen miles diſtant from it, is perpetually covered with ice. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is frequented by large flights of ſwans and cygnets, which are ſometimes ſo numerous as to cauſe a ſudden darkneſs in the air. Their fondneſs for this ſpot is, with great appearance of reaſon, attributed to their feeding on the plant Olorina, which grows in this lake, and riſes above the water with a long ſtraight ſtalk, bearing a cluſter of ſeeds at the top. The coaſts of Scotland are, in many parts, indented with large, bold, and navigable bays, or arms of the ſea; as the bay of Glenluce and Wigtown-Bay; alſo the Solway Bay or Frith, which ſeparates Scotland from England, on the weſt; the Frith of Forth, Murray, Cromarty, Dornock, &c.

It is ſuppoſed that Scotland was formerly over-run with timber; for, in every part of it, large trees are frequently dug up, and great logs of wood are found in the deepeſt moraſſes, as well as human bodies; by which it appears, that their waters, being impregnated with turpentine, have a preſerving quality. Very little timber grows in their foreſts except pines. The Scots oak, which grows in the Highlands, is eſteemed very good; but its diſtance from any water-carriage, renders that valuable article of very little benefit either to the nation or the owners. Fir-trees grow in great perfection in this country, and form beautiful plantations.

Small pieces of gold have often been found in brooks after a great torrent, which induce us to believe the accounts which hiſtorians give of the gold mines in Scotland. At the nuptials of James V. with a daughter of France, covered diſhes filled with coins of Scots gold, were repreſented to the gueſts by way of deſert: and, in the time of that monarch, the mines of Crawfurd-Moor were worked by Germans, under the direction of one Cornelius, their chief. But the civil wars, which happened in the reign of Mary, queen of Scots, obliged theſe people to abandon their works, which have never ſince been reſumed.

There are ſeveral lead mines in Scotland, which produce great quantities of ſilver: ſome copper mines have been diſcovered near Edinburgh: and no country boaſts of greater plenty of iron ore.

The eaſt, weſt, and northern parts of the country produce exceeding good coal, of which large quantities are exported: and, where there is a deficiency of this firing, the inhabitants ſupply its place by burning turf and peat. In many parts, however, they are reduced to the greateſt diſtreſs for fuel, being obliged to burn cow-dung, which they carefully dry and depoſit for that purpoſe. Lime-ſtone and free-ſtone are found here in great plenty, which, added to the exceeding low price of labour, enables the people to erect very elegant houſes. In Bamff-ſhire, alum mines have lately been diſcovered.

Variegated pebbles, cryſtal, and ſeveral other tranſparent ſtones are found in many parts of Scotland, which, when poliſhed, are proper for ſeals, ſnuff-

boxes,

boxes, ear-rings, and other toys; and in Lanerkſhire, or Clydeſdale, large pieces of lapis lazuli are frequently dug up. The country abounds in flint, talc, ſea-ſhells, fullers earth, and potters-clay. Here are vaſt numbers of ſmall ſtones of a particular ſpecies, which the inhabitants call elf-arrow heads, and to which they are ſtudious to aſſign a ſupernatural origin and uſe, and, at this period, it is difficult to determine what they originally were; but it is ſuppoſed, that they are the flint heads of the arrows, uſed by the Caledonians and ancient Scots.

Various improvements in huſbandry, have been lately made; ſo that the Lowlands produce variety of grain, fruits, and herbs, viz. wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, and hay; apples, pears, cherries, plums, ſtrawberries, raſberries, gooſeberries, and currans; peaches, nectarines, apricots, and, ſometimes, even grapes, are brought to perfection here, though not ſo early as in England; all ſorts of kitchen roots, ſalads, and greens, particularly the Scots kail, or colewort. The trees and ſhrubs natural to this country are, the oak, fir, birch, poplar, alder, willow, elder, hazle, mountain-aſh, crab-tree, juniper, hawthorn, ſloe, and dog-roſe. The heaths are covered with furze, broom, fern, the bramble-berry, cranberry, wild ſtrawberries, and the myrtillis, the fruit of which is called bilberries. The ſea-coaſt produces a variety of ſea-plants, particularly the alga-marina, dulſe, or duliſh, which is a moſt wholeſome nutritive weed.

Salmon, trout, jack, and eels, are found in great plenty in the rivers in Scotland; and the ſea ſupplies them with every ſpecies of ſalt-water fiſh. Of late years, ſocieties have been erected for the improvement of fiſheries in that nation, and they are at preſent brought to ſuch a degree of perfection as falls very little ſhort of the Dutch themſelves: their ſalmon, in particular, is of infinite advantage to them, as they can cure it, and ſend it much earlier to the Levant and ſouthern markets than the Engliſh or Iriſh can, and conſequently find a quicker ſale for it.

The Highlands are well ſtocked with red-deer and roe-bucks, but their fleſh is not comparable to Engliſh veniſon; they have alſo hares, rabbits, foxes, wild cats, and badgers; and the hills in general are covered with black cattle and ſheep. Plenty of game is likewiſe found there, particularly growſe and heath-cock, which is a moſt delicious bird. Two remarkable birds, called the capperkaily and the tarmacan, are inhabitants of the Highlands. The capperkaily is about the ſize of a turkey, and eſteemed a great delicacy. The tarmacan is a ſpecies of pheaſant, and feeds upon the tender tops of the fir and pine branches, from which the fleſh contracts a turpentine flavour, very agreeable both to the palate and ſtomach. There are no animals in Scotland which are not to be found in England.

The horſes in Scotland are exceedingly ſmall. Formerly their kings and nobility endeavoured, by importing a larger ſpecies of that uſeful animal, to mend the breed; but they are found, by repeated trials, to degenerate both in ſize and ſpirit. The Lowlanders make uſe of a breed which came from England.

The number of inhabitants in Scotland, it is ſaid, amount to a million and a half; but there is reaſon to think they are far more numerous. By the records of the army, the number of ſoldiers furniſhed by Scotland in the American war were 80,000 men, and, conſidering the number of emigrants which daily leave that nation, we may from hence reaſonably conclude, that the inhabitants muſt greatly exceed the number aſcertained; above 60,000 have been raiſed in the iſlands and Highlands; ſo that it is probable that they amount to near two millions and a half. The Scots are in general brave, but paſſionate and vindictive; but, at the ſame time, ſober, induſtrious, circumſpect, and eaſily conform to any ſtation in life. In their perſons they are uſually raw-boned, hard-featured, lank, and muſcular; having long viſages, and red hair; they are clean-limbed and can indure incredible fatigues.

The family pride, which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguiſhed in Scotland, was owing to the feudal inſtitutions which prevailed there in all their horrors of blood and barbarity. Their family differences, eſpecially among the Highlanders, familiarized them to blood and ſlaughter; and the death of an enemy howſoever effected, was always a matter of triumph. Theſe paſſions did not only reign in the breaſts of the common people, but were authorized and cheriſhed by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had ſeen the world, were converſant in the courts of Europe, maſters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and ſocial life. Their kings, excepting ſome of them who were endowed with extraordinary virtues, were conſidered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war; for, in time of peace, their civil authority had ſo little weight, that every clan or family, even in the moſt civilized parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as the ſovereign. The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the firſt who had the patriotiſm to attempt to reform his dependents. His example has been followed by others; and it is probable that the Highlanders will be reconciled to all the milder habits of ſociety in a very few years.

The eſtates of Scotland, like thoſe of England, being generally confined to the elder branch, the younger ſons are obliged to ſeek that ſubſiſtence abroad, which the narrow bounds of their country will not afford them at home. Great numbers of them are in the land and ſea ſervice, and prove an honour to both. Education being exceedingly cheap in Scotland, there are few of the inhabitants, let their ſtation be what it will, but have received ſome learning; and many of them being excellent ſcholars, are thereby qualified for the different profeſſions of phyſicians, ſurgeons, apothecaries, merchants, and ſchool-maſters; in which capacities they are to be met with in moſt parts of the globe, and, happily for them, they aſſimilate with the greateſt eaſe and freedom to the manners of the people among whom they are ſettled.

The inhabitants in many parts live entirely by paſture, and among theſe are found numbers who have a natural taſte for poetry and muſic. The Scotch airs are ſoft, lively, and beautifully ſimple.

In general the Scots enjoy a great ſhare of health, the immediate effect of a ſalubrious air and temperate diet. Their common food is oatmeal, which they ſometimes make into a kind of flummery, termed by them ſowens; milk, cheeſe, and a ſpecies of ſoup-meagre, compoſed of greens, roots, oatmeal, and butter. They very ſeldom eat butcher's meat, but every family in tolerable circumſtances, kills a cow at Martinmas, which is pickled down, as we do pork, and uſed occaſionally in broth, or boiled with greens. Many of their diſhes are peculiar to the country, viz. the haggice, which is the lights, liver, and ſuet of a hog, or ſheep, haſhed, ſeaſoned, and boiled in the animal's ſtomach, ſo that, when it is ſerved to table, it has the appearanee of a full blown bagpipe. The hodge-podge, a rich ſoup, compoſed of beef, mutton, veal, lamb, and fowl, ſtewed rice or barley, green peas, lettuce, cabbage, turnips, and onions; to all theſe ingredients they ſometimes add a ſheep's head and feet, the wool of which is ſinged off ſmooth with a red-hot iron. Fiſh in ſauce, which is a kind of ſoup made with haddocks, or other fiſh, the head being ſtuffed with forced meat. Chicken broth, which is made very rich with eggs, and has the appearance of a ſpoiled fricaſſee, but is very delicate to the taſte, and nouriſhing to the ſtomach. Minced collops, made of the rump of beef, and ſuet, cut very ſmall, ſeaſoned with pepper, ſpice, and vinegar, and kept in a cloſe jar, to be fried occaſionally for the table. The uſe of theſe diſhes is ſtill retained

by

by the middling claſs of people; but thoſe of the higher rank conform entirely to the French cookery. The bread chiefly uſed in Scotland, is broad, thin, triangular cakes, made of oatmeal, firſt baked over the fire on a thin plate of caſt iron, and then toaſted until they become criſp.

The dreſs of the Highlanders conſiſts of the brechan, the cuoranen, the truiſh, the fillebeg, and a flat cap on their heads, which they call a bonnet. The brechan is compoſed of twelve or thirteen yards of a narrow ſtuff, wrapped round the middle, and reaching down to the knees; this, in cold weather, is large enough to wrap round the whole body from head to feet, and is often the ſole covering they make uſe of; not only within doors, but in the open air during the whole night. They gird it round their middle with a belt, and it is then called brechanſeal: at other times, it is faſtened on the ſhoulders, and before, with large pins of ſilver, and other metal. Their ſtockings, which are ſhort, are tied below their knee; and the cuoranen is a ſhoe made of a ſkin with the hairy ſide outwards, but now ſeldom worn. The truiſh were breeches and ſtockings made of one piece, and formerly worn by the gentry. The fillebeg, likewiſe called kelt, is a kind of ſhort petticoat, reaching only to the knees, and is a modern ſubſtitute for the lower end of the plaid, being leſs cumberſome, particularly in time of action, when they were formerly obliged to tuck their brechan into their girdle. Moſt of them have a great pouch of badger and otter ſkins, which hangs before them, where they keep their tobacco and money.

The dreſs of the women is the kirch, or a white piece of linen, pinned over the foreheads of thoſe that are married, and round the hind part of the head, falling behind over their necks. The ſingle women wear only a ribbon round the head, which they call a ſnood. The tannic, or plaid, hangs over their ſhoulders, and is faſtened before with a brotche; but, in bad weather, is drawn over their heads. It is common during divine ſervice for the women to keep continually drawing it forward, in proportion as their attention increaſes, ſo that at laſt the whole face is concealed; perhaps to exclude every external object, that their devotion may not be interrupted. In the county of Breadalbane, many wear, when in full dreſs, a great plaited ſtocking, of an enormous length, called oſſen; but, in other reſpects, they are dreſſed like the women in England.

The ancient arms of the Highlanders were the Lochaber axe, now only uſed by the town-guard of Edinburgh, the broad ſword, and target. With the laſt they covered themſelves, with the firſt reached their enemy at a conſiderable diſtance. Bows and arrows were uſed in war as late as the middle of the laſt century. The dirk was a ſpecies of dagger ſtuck in the belt, uſed by the ancient Caledonians.

The ancient ſports of the Highlanders, ſuch as archery, hunting, and fowling, are now for the moſt part diſuſed. Thoſe retained are the throwing the putting-ſtone, or ſtone of ſtrength, which occaſions a ſtrong emulation who can throw a heavy ſtone the furtheſt. Throwing the penny-ſtone is ſimilar to our quoit. The ſhinty, or the ſtriking a ball of wood, or of hair: this game is played between two parties on a large plain, furniſhed with clubs; whoever ſtrikes it firſt to their own goal, wins the match. The amuſements by their fire-ſides were, the telling of tales, the wildeſt and moſt extravagant imaginable. In former times, the harp, covered with leather and ſtrung with wire, was the favourite inſtrument, but is hardly known at preſent. Bagpipes are ſuppoſed to have been introduced by the Danes; the oldeſt are played with the mouth; the other, played with the fingers only, is of Iriſh original: the firſt ſuited the genius of this warlike people, rouſed their courage to battle, alarmed them when ſecure, and collected them when ſcattered. Vocal muſic was greatly in vogue among them, and their ſongs were chiefly in praiſe of their ancient heroes. They have ſtill fragments of the ſtory of Fingal, and others, which they ſing as they paſs along, or when employed in the field.

Singular cuſtoms attend the courtſhip of the Highlanders. After privately obtaining the conſent of the fair, he formally demands her of her father. The lover and his friends aſſemble on a hill allotted for that purpoſe in every pariſh, and one of them is diſpatched to obtain permiſſion to wait on the daughter: if he is ſucceſsful, he is again ſent to invite the father and his friends to aſcend the hill, and partake of a caſk of whiſkey, which is never forgot: the lover advances, takes his future father-in-law by the hand, and, having plighted his troth, the fair-one is delivered up to him. During the marriage ceremony, great care is taken that no dogs paſs between them, and particular attention is paid to the leaving the bridegroom's ſhoe without buckle or latchet, to prevent witches from depriving him, on the nuptial night, of the power of looſening the virgin zone.

It is uſual, on the death of a Highlander, to ſtretch the corpſe on a board, and cover it with a coarſe linen wrapper, the friends lay on the breaſt of the deceaſed a wooden diſh, containing a ſmall quantity of ſalt and earth, in ſeparate parcels. The earth is an emblem of the corruptible body; the ſalt, an emblem of the immortal ſpirit. All fire is extinguiſhed while a corpſe is kept; and it is reckoned ſo ominous for a dog or cat to paſs over it, that the poor animal is killed immediately.

Another ceremony uſed at funerals, is what they call the late wake. The evening after the death of any perſon, the relations and friends of the deceaſed meet at the houſe, attended by a bagpipe, or a fiddle. The neareſt of kin opens a melancholy ball, dancing and crying violently at the ſame time; and this continues till day-light, with the moſt unſeemly frolics among the younger part of the company. If the corpſe remains unburied for two nights, the ſame rites are renewed. The coranich, or ſinging at funerals, is ſtill in uſe in ſome places. The ſongs are generally in favour of the deceaſed, or a recital of the valiant deeds of his anceſtors.

In Scotland Chriſtianity was planted long before Auſtin the monk eſtabliſhed the pope's authority. When the Reformation was ſettled there by the preaching of John Knox, his brethren naturally imagined that they ſhould ſucceed to the revenues of the Romiſh clergy. But the nobility took care to monopolize all the church livings, leaving very little for the miniſters. Since that time their ſtipends have been conſiderably augmented. None indeed exceeds 150l. a year, but few fall ſhort of 60l. and none of 50l.

In Scotland the Preſbyterian government was eſtabliſhed by act of parliament, in the year 1690; and was afterwards ſecured by an expreſs article in the treaty of union between the two kingdoms of England and Scotland. No miniſter, conſidered as an individual, has an authoritative juriſdiction over another. Juriſdiction is competent for them only when they act in a collective body, or as a court of judicature, and then there is a ſubordination of one court to another, or inferior and ſuperior courts. The courts eſtabliſhed by law are the four following, viz. church ſeſſions, preſbyteries, provincial ſynods, and, above all, a national or general aſſembly.

A church ſeſſion is compoſed of the miniſter of the pariſh and certain diſcreet laymen, who are choſen and ordained for the exerciſe of diſcipline, and are called elders. The number of theſe elders varies according to the extent of the pariſh. Two of them, together with the miniſter, are neceſſary, in order to hold a legal meeting. The miniſter always preſides in theſe meetings, and is called moderator; but has no other authority than what belongs to the præſes of any

any other court. The church ſeſſion is appointed for inſpecting the morals of the pariſhioners, and managing the funds appropriated for the maintenance of the poor within their bounds. When a perſon is convicted of any inſtance of immoral conduct, or of what is inconſiſtent with the Chriſtian profeſſion, the church ſeſſion inflicts ſome eccleſiaſtical cenſure, ſuch as giving him an admonition, or rebuke: or, if the crime be of a groſs and public nature, they appoint him to profeſs his repentance in the face of the whole congregation, in order to make ſatisfaction for the public offence. The higheſt degree of church cenſure is excommunication, which is ſeldom inflicted but for contumacy, or for ſome very atrocious crime obſtinately perſiſted in. In former times there were certain civil pains and penalties, which followed upon a ſentence of excommunication; but, by a Britiſh ſtatute, theſe were happily aboliſhed. The church of Scotland addreſſes its cenſures only to the conſciences of men: and as they cannot, by the method of perſuaſion, reclaim offenders, they think it inconſiſtent with the ſpirit of true religion to have recourſe to compulſive methods, ſuch as temporal pains and penalties.

Any perſon who thinks himſelf aggrieved by the church ſeſſion, is permitted to ſeek redreſs, by entering an appeal to the preſbytery, which is the next ſuperior court. In like manner he may appeal from the preſbytery to the provincial ſynod, and from the ſynod to the aſſembly, whoſe ſentence is final in all eccleſiaſtical matters.

A preſbytery conſiſts of the miniſters within a certain diſtrict, and alſo of one ruling elder from each church ſeſſion within the diſtrict. In ſettling the boundaries of a preſbytery, a regard was paid to the ſituation of the country. Where the country is populous and champaign, there are inſtances of thirty miniſters, and as many elders, being joined in one preſbytery. In mountainous countries, where travelling is more difficult, there are only ſeven or eight miniſters, and in ſome places fewer, in a preſbytery. The number of preſbyteries is computed to be about ſeventy.

Preſbyteries review the procedure of church ſeſſions, and judge in references and appeals that are brought before them. They take trials of candidates for the miniſtry; and if, upon ſuch trial, they find them duly qualified, they licenſe them to preach, but not to diſpenſe the ſacraments. Such licentiates are called probationers. It is not common for the church of Scotland to ordain or confer holy orders on ſuch licentiates, till they are preſented to ſome vacant kirk, and thereby acquire a right to a benefice.

Preſbyteries are more ſevere in their cenſures upon their members for any inſtance of immoral conduct. If the perſon be convicted, they ſuſpend him from the exerciſe of his miniſterial office for a limited time; but, if the crime be of a heinous nature, they depoſe, or deprive him of his clerical character, ſo that he is no longer a miniſter of the church of Scotland; but forfeits his title to his benefice, and other privileges of the eſtabliſhed church. However, if the perſon thinks himſelf injured by the ſentence of the preſbytery, he may appeal to the provincial ſynod, within whoſe juriſdiction his preſbytery lies; and from the ſynod he may appeal to the national aſſembly. Preſbyteries generally hold their meetings every month, except in remote countries, and have a power of adjouring themſelves to whatever time or place within their diſtrict they may think proper. They chooſe their own præſes or moderator, who muſt be a miniſter of their own preſbytery. The ruling elders, who ſit in the preſbytery, muſt be changed every half year, unleſs they are re-choſen by their reſpective church ſeſſions.

The next ſuperior courts to preſbytery are provincial ſynods; theſe are compoſed of the ſeveral preſbyteries within the province, and of a ruling elder from each church ſeſſion. The ancient dioceſes of the Scottiſh biſhops are, in general, the boundaries of a ſynod. Moſt of the ſynods in Scotland meet twice every year, namely, in the months of April and October, and at every meeting they chooſe their præſes, or moderator, who muſt be a clergyman of their own number. They review the proceedings of the preſbyteries, and judge in appeals, references, and complaints, brought before them from the inferior courts; and, ſhould a preſbytery be found negligent in executing any of the eccleſiaſtical laws againſt their members, or any other perſon within their juriſdiction, the ſynod have power to call them to account, and cenſure them as they ſee cauſe.

The ſupreme court in eccleſiaſtical matters is the general aſſembly, from whoſe ſentence there is no appeal. As they have a power of making laws and canons concerning the diſcipline and government of the church, and the public ſervice of religion, the king always ſends a commiſſioner to repreſent his royal perſon, that nothing may be enacted inconſiſtent with the laws of the ſtate. The perſon who repreſents the king is generally ſome Scotch nobleman, whom his majeſty nominates annually ſome time before the meeting of the aſſembly, and is allowed a ſuitable ſalary for defraying the expences of this honourable office. He is preſent at all the meetings of the aſſembly, and at all their debates and deliberations. After the aſſembly is conſtituted, he preſents his commiſſion, and delivers his ſpeech. And when they have finiſhed their buſineſs, which they commonly do in twelve days, he adjourns the aſſembly, and appoints both the time and place of their next annual meeting, which is generally at Edinburgh in the month of May.

The general aſſembly is compoſed of miniſters and ruling elders, choſen annually from each preſbytery in Scotland. As the number of miniſters and elders in a preſbytery varies, ſo the number of repreſentatives muſt have a proportion to the number of miniſters and elders that compoſe the preſbytery. This proportion is fixed by laws and regulations for that purpoſe. Each royal borough, and univerſity in Scotland, has alſo the privilege of ſending a ruling elder to the general aſſembly; but all elections muſt be made forty days at leaſt before the meeting. Their juriſdiction is either conſtitutive or judicial. By the former they have the power of making eccleſiaſtical laws, by the latter they judge in appeals brought before them by the ſubordinate courts; and their ſentence is deciſive and final. One particular which employs a conſiderable part of their attention, is the ſettling of vacant pariſhes. The common people of Scotland are greatly prejudiced againſt the laws of patrimony. Hence, when a patron preſents a candidate to a vacant pariſh, the inhabitants frequently make great oppoſition to the preſentee, and appeal from the inferior courts to the general aſſembly. That body are not now much diſpoſed to indulge the pariſhioners in their unreaſonable oppoſition to preſentees. On the other hand, they are unwilling to ſettle the preſentee in oppoſition to the people, who refuſe to ſubmit to his miniſtry; becauſe, in this caſe, his labour among them muſt be uſeleſs and ineffectual. The aſſembly, therefore, generally delay their ſentence till they have uſed all their endeavours to reconcile the pariſhioners to the preſentee; but, if their attempts prove unſucceſsful, they procceed to ſettle the preſentee purſuant to the act of parliament concerning patronage. Upon the whole, it appears that, in the government of the church of Scotland, there is an annual repreſentation of the laity as well as the clergy; a great ſecurity to the former againſt the uſurpations of the latter.

The buſineſs of every miniſter in a pariſh is, to perform religious worſhip, and to preach to his flock in the language of his country, every Sunday, and on other extraordinary occaſions appointed by the

church. They likewiſe examine the pariſhioners annually. They go to the different towns and villages of the pariſhes; and, in an eaſy and familiar manner, converſe with them on the eſſential points of religion; making trial of their knowledge by putting queſtions to them on theſe heads. The adults, as well as the children, as catechiſed; and the miniſter endeavours, by every power of perſuaſion, to make up quarrels that may have happened among them, and reconcile the parties.

In the reign of queen Ann, a ſociety was incorporated by patent, for erecting ſchools in North-Britain and the Weſtern Iſles; which was afterwards eſtabliſhed by act of parliament, and a fund appropriated for carrying the deſign into execution: his preſent majeſty contributes 1000l. per ann. to this fund.

The principles of the church of Scotland, is principally modelled after the Calviniſtical plan eſtabliſhed at Geneva. This eſtabliſhment proved, at various periods, ſo tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the greater and leſſer excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of eſtate, and ſometimes of life, that the kirk ſeſſions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who are extremely jealous of their being revived. It is ſaid, that the obliging fornicators of both ſexes to ſit upon what they call a repenting-ſtool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found that the Scots women, on account of that penance, were the greateſt infanticides in the world. The power of the Scots clergy is at preſent very moderately exerciſed: ſince the Revolution they have been firm adherents to civil liberty, and the houſe of Hanover; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dreſs without clerical robes; but ſome of them appear in the pulpit in gowns and bands, after the Geneva form. They make no uſe of ſet forms in worſhip, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's prayer. The rents of the biſhops, ſince the abolition of epiſcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purpoſes. The revenues of the Preſbyterian clergy of late years, have been much augmented

The ſpirit of the Preſbyterians in Scotland, is mild and gentle, and the ſermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines are equally diſtinguiſhed by good ſenſe and moderation; but this moderation has been too often interrupted by the fanatics not only of lay ſeceders but even of regular miniſters. Theſe are very numerous in the Lowlands. They maintain their own preachers; and though ſcarcely any two congregations agree with each other either in principle or practice, yet we do not know that they are diſpoſed to fly in the face of the civil power.

In Scotland, learning has flouriſhed for 1400 years paſt. The poems of Oſſian ſufficiently ſhew that the muſes were no ſtrangers there in the moſt remote ages. St. Patrick, the celebrated apoſtle of Ireland, was a native of this kingdom, which became, for ſome time, a refuge for the learned; eſpecially the little iſland of Jona, called St. Columb-Kill. The pure Latin ſtile of Buchanan is a ſufficient proof that the ſtudy of languages was cultivated in this time; but his writings are to this day the moſt claſſical of all modern productions. But the deſtruction of the Scottiſh monuments of learning and antiquities has rendered their early annals very imperfect, and in many reſpects fabulous.

Among the modern writers, we may rank Napier of Monhiſton, the inventor of logarithms; a diſcovery, which, in point of ingenuity and uſe, may vie with any that has been made in modern times. Keil, in his mathematical works, to the clearneſs of his reaſoning, has added the colouring of a poet. Gregory is, of all writers on aſtronomy, allowed to be one of the moſt perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and friend of Sir Iſaac Newton, was endowed with all that preciſion and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary capacities, and for diffuſing that light through the world, which Newton had confined within the ſphere of the learned. His treatiſe on Fluxions is regarded by the beſt judges in Europe as the cleareſt account of the moſt refined and ſubtle ſpeculations on which the human mind ever exerted itſelf with ſucceſs. Maclaurin alſo purſued this new career, and the late Dr. Simſon was a geometrican no leſs famous than the former, for having diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the ſure but almoſt deſerted tract of antiquity, of which his illuſtration of the ancient geometry is a convincing proof. To theſe we may add, in medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie, Whytt, and others, who deſerve a diſtinguiſhed ſeat among the literati of Europe. The Scots have been equally ſucceſsful in cultivating the Belles Lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and ſuppoſe the northern nations incapable of tenderneſs and feeling, are aſtoniſhed at the poetic genius and delicate ſenſibility of Thomſon. Nor has learning declined ſince the death of theſe authors: Scotland can now boaſt of authors, eſpecially with regard to hiſtorical compoſition, whoſe labours will be handed down to poſterity with applauſe, and reflect honour on their country.

There are four univerſities in Scotland, viz. St. Andrew's, founded in 1411; Glaſgow, in 1454; Aberdeen, in 1477; and that of Edinburgh; in each of which are a certain number of profeſſors in various branches of literature, moral and natural philoſophy, mathematics, aſtronomy, divinity, &c.

Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally claims the firſt place in this diviſion. The caſtle, before the uſe of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whoſe territory reached the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the caſtle; and a more inconvenient ſituation for a capital can ſcarcely be conceived; the High-ſtreet, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying eaſt and weſt; and the lanes running down its ſides north and ſouth. This ſituation ſuggeſted the idea of building very lofty houſes divided into ſtories, each of which contains a ſuite of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the uſe of a family; ſo that the High-ſtreet of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn ſtone, broad, and well paved, makes a moſt auguſt appearance, eſpecially as it riſes a full mile in a direct line and gradual aſcent from the palace of Holyrood-houſe on the eaſt, and is terminated on the weſt by the rude majeſty of its caſtle, built upon a lofty rock, inacceſſible on all ſides, except where it joins to the city. The caſtle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a moſt extenſive proſpect of the river Forth, the ſhipping, the oppoſite coaſt of Fife, and even ſome hills at the diſtance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands. The caſtle has ſome good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were depoſited here under the moſt ſolemn legal inſtruments of their never being removed from thence.

Facing the caſtle, at a mile's diſtance, ſtands the abbey, or rather palace of Holyrood-houſe. The inner quadrangle of this palace, begun by James V. and finiſhed by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan and under the direction of Sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greateſt architects of that

†

A View of EDINBURGH

that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilaſters; and the inſide contains magnificent apartments for the Duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and for other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, ſome of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern artiſts, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it ſtood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a moſt elegant piece of architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rows of ſtone galleries, ſupported with curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inſide was demoliſhed and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repoſitories of the dead, and diſcovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his firſt queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this chapel gave way and fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occaſioned by the enormous weight of a new ſtone roof, laid over it ſome years before, which the walls were unable to ſupport.

The hoſpital, founded by George Herriot, goldſmith to James VI. commonly called Herriot's Work, ſtands to the ſouth-weſt of the caſtle, in a noble ſituation. It is the fineſt and moſt regular ſpecimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.) has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be ſeen in England. One Balcanquhille, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is ſaid to have prevailed upon Jones to admit ſome barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have inſiſted that the ornaments of each ſhould be ſomewhat different from thoſe of the others. It is, notwithſtanding, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradeſmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magiſtrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh, before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an univerſity, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magiſtrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be ſaid of its buildings, which were calculated for the ſober literary manners of thoſe days; they are, however, improveable, and may be rendered elegant. What is of far more importance, it is ſupplied with excellent profeſſors in the ſeveral branches of learning: and its ſchools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. The college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which is ſaid to have been of late greatly augmented; and a muſeum belonging to it was given by Sir Andrew Balfour, a phyſician. It contains ſeveral natural and ſome literary curioſities, which one would not expect to find in Edinburgh.

The Parliament-ſquare, or as it is there called, Cloſe, was formerly the moſt ornamental part of this city; it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which conſiſts of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equeſtrian ſtatue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-houſe, though not ſo large, is better proportioned than Weſtminſter-hall; and its roof, though executed in the ſame manner, has been by good judges held to be ſuperior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a ſingle judge, called the Lord Ordinary, preſides by rotation: in a room near it ſit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, ſhrievalty, and magiſtracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at firſt entirely founded and furniſhed by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquiſite taſte and judgment. It contains likewiſe the moſt valuable manuſcript remains of the Scotch hiſtory, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a ſeries of medals. Adjoining the library, is the room where the public records are kept: but both it, and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are dark and diſmal. It is ſaid that preparations are now carrying on, for lodging both the books and papers in rooms far better ſuited to their importance and value.

The high church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room where the general aſſembly ſits. It is a large Gothic building, and its ſteeple is ſurmounted by arches, formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect to the eye. The churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the union, contain little but what is common to ſuch buildings; but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deſerves particular attention.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, ſuch as the exchange, public offices, its hoſpitals, bridges, and the like, demonſtrate the vaſt improvement of the taſte of the Scots in their public works. Paralel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have almoſt completed a new town, which does honour to the preſent age. The ſtreets and ſquares are laid out with the utmoſt regularity, and the houſes are built with ſtone, in an elegant taſte, with all the conveniences that render thoſe of England ſo delightful and commodious. The fronts of ſome are ſuperbly finiſhed, diſplaying at the ſame time the judgment of the builder, and the public ſpirit of the proprietor.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, which, agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a ſheet of water, bordered by a terras walk, and the aſcent towards the new town covered with pleaſure gardens, ſhrubberies, &c. But this elegant deſign fell to nothing, through the narrow ideas of the magiſtrates, who finding greater benefits by letting the ground to inferior tradeſmen upon building leaſes, this ſpot, formed by nature as an agreeable opening to a crowded city, became a nuiſance to thoſe gentlemen who were ſo liberal in ornamenting the buildings upon the ſummit. A deciſion of the houſe of lords (in which a certain great luminary of the law, equally diſtinguiſhed for his taſte and good ſenſe, heartily concurred) put a ſtop to theſe mean erections. At the weſt or upper end of this vale, the caſtle, a ſolid rock not leſs than twenty ſtories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eaſtern extremity is bounded by a ſtriking object of art, a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the deſcent on each ſide the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages. The ſituation is pleaſant, ſtanding on an eminence, with a gentle declivity on each ſide, in the heart of a rich country; the view ſouthward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic caſtle, and diſtant hills riſing to an amazing height; while the proſpect northward gives full ſcope to the eye, delights the imagination, and fills the mind with ſuch ideas as the works of nature alone can inſpire. One agreeable proſpect, however, is ſtill wanting, a handſome clean inn or tavern, with a genteel coffee-room, towards the ſide that overlooks the Forth; and which might eaſily be accompliſhed by ſubſcription, and, from the great reſort of travellers, could not fail to bring a profitable return.

Edinburgh may be conſidered, notwithſtanding its caſtle, and an open wall which incloſes it on the ſouth ſide, of a very modern fabric, but in the Roman

Roman manner, as an open town; ſo that in fact it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it againſt the rebels, who took poſſeſſion of it in 1745. Edinburgh contains a playhouſe, which has now the ſanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, aſſemblies, balls, muſic-meetings, and other polite amuſements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majeſty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provoſt, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treaſurer, annually choſen from the common-council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooſes its own deacon, and here are fourteen; namely, ſurgeons, goldſmiths, ſkinners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, maſons, tailors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provoſt is colonel of the town-guard, a military inſtitution to be found in no part of his majeſty's dominions but in Edinburgh; they ſerve for the city-watch, and patrol the ſtreets, are uſeful in ſuppreſſing ſmall commotions, and attend the execution of ſentences upon delinquents. They are divided into three companies, and wear a uniform; they are immediately commanded by three officers under the name of captains. Beſides this guard, Edinburgh raiſes ſixteen companies of trained bands, which ſerve as a militia. The revenues of the city conſiſt chiefly of that tax which is now common in moſt of the bodies corporate in Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two-thirds of a farthing, laid on every Scotch pint of ale (containing two Engliſh quarts) conſumed within the precincts of the city. This is a moſt judicious impoſt, as it renders the pooreſt people inſenſible of the burthen. Its product, however, has been ſufficient to defray the expence of ſupplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes from the diſtance of four miles; of erecting reſervoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works, of great expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles diſtant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the ſame juriſdiction. It contains nothing remarkable but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the ſame), which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under Mary of Guiſe, againſt the Engliſh, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble ſeats, which are daily increaſing: ſome of them inferior to few in England, particularly the earl of Abercorn's, a ſhort way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's houſe at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopetoun-houſe, ſo called from the earl its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roſlin, noted for a ſtately Gothic chapel, eſteemed one of the moſt curious pieces of workmanſhip in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glaſgow, in the ſhire of Lanerk, is ſituated about 30 miles from Edinburgh, on the deſcent of a gentle eminence, and the adjacent plain extending to the banks of the river Clyde, over which there is a bridge of ſeven arches. The chief part of this city is laid out upon a regular plan, the ſtreets croſſing each other at right angles. The houſes, which are lofty, are built of hewn ſtone, and, near the croſs, or market-place, ſupported upon arched pillars, which form a commodious piazza before the ſhops, and give an air of grandeur to the buildings. The ſtreets are ſtraight, ſpacious, well paved, and clean; and the whole city is adorned with a great number of public edifices, among which are the cathedral, and five or ſix other elegant churches, the Tolbooth, town-hall, and ſeveral hoſpitals.

The cathedral, which ſtands in the higheſt part of the city, is a vaſt pile of Gothic building, dedicated to St. Mungo, or Kentigern, who, in the ſixth century, was biſhop of Glaſgow, and lies buried in this church. This cathedral is ornamented with two ſpires, one of which, riſing from a ſquare tower in the middle of the croſs, is ſurpriſingly high and beautiful. In the other, there is a bell of vaſt dimenſions, which, when tolled, ſhakes the whole fabric. At preſent, this noble pile is divided into three ſeparate churches, where divine ſervice is performed every Sunday. The other churches are all ſtately buildings, and ſome of them erected on the beſt models of architecture.

The univerſity of Glaſgow forms one of it greateſt ornaments. Every branch of learning is taught by its own ſeparate regent, or profeſſor, who not only gives general lectures, but alſo attends aſſiduouſly to the buſineſs of his claſs, where he explains, impoſes taſks, and examines his pupils. Annually all the individuals of each claſs undergo a public examination, in preſence of all the regents; when, if found properly qualified, after a certain ſtanding they are admitted to the degree of maſter of arts. Great numbers of learned men have been educated in this univerſity, which may certainly be deemed the moſt flouriſhing in Scotland. The profeſſors, while in the exerciſe of their functions, wear black gowns with open ſleeves; and the ſtudents are all diſtinguiſhed by red or ſcarlet gowns, without which they are not allowed to appear in public. The rector of this univerſity, who is always a perſon of nobility, or diſtinguiſhed fortune, is elected annually. The edifice itſelf conſiſts of an outward and inner ſquare, with a lofty tower, and, towards the city, a front of hewn ſtone. It was built at the expence of William Turnbull, biſhop of Glaſgow. The inner quadrangle, beſides the divinity hall, the old library, and the common hall, which are large and ſpacious, contains a great number of commodious apartments for the ſtudents. The faculty have lately built an elegant library, which is tolerably well furniſhed with books, manuſcripts, and ſome ſtones with Roman inſcriptions, brought from the wall of Antoninus. Moſt of the regents reſide in an elegant row of houſes, a little detached from the college, behind which there is a pleaſant garden laid out in walks for the benefit of all the members of the univerſity. Adjoining to this is a botanical garden, well ſupplied with ſimples, claſſed alphabetically in their different tribes.

The town-houſe, which was built by the citizens of Glaſgow, is a very magnificent edifice: and, in the ſtreet oppoſite to it, ſtands an equeſtrian ſtatue of king William III. Adjoining to the town-houſe is the Tolbooth, or public jail, which is a venerable Gothic building.

The work-houſe and infirmary of Glaſgow, are built with elegant ſimplicity; and the inſtitution is founded upon ſo excellent a plan, conducted with ſo much prudence, and proves ſuch an effectual proviſion for the poor, that there is not a beggar to be ſeen within the precincts of the city. The number of inhabitants in Glaſgow have been computed at 50,000; and, beſides its churches, contains eight or ten meeting-houſes, for ſectaries of various denominations.

Aberdeen, the capital of Aberdeenſhire, is ſituated in the county of Mar, about eighty miles north of Edinburgh, and contains two towns Old and New Aberdeen. Old Aberdeen, which was formerly the ſeat of a biſhop, and now that of a preſbytery. There is a cathedral dedicated to St. Machas, the greater part of which was built by biſhop Elphinſtone, in the year 1500. The church is of hewn ſtone, with a lofty ſteeple, terminating in an imperial crown, with a round globe of ſtone and two gilt croſſes. Adjoining to the church a library is erected, furniſhed with a valuable collection of books: but Old Aberdeen is chiefly remarkable for a college, founded by James IV. New Aberdeen is the ſhire town, and though almoſt joined to the Old, by means of a long village, has

has no dependence on it. It is a neat, populous, and flouriſhing city, adorned with three churches; ſeveral eſpiſcopal meeting-houſes, hoſpitals, a fine wharf, a cuſtom-houſe, any many other ſtately edifices, built of hewn ſtone. The ſtreets are ſpacious and well paved; the private houſes lofty, well finiſhed, and provided with gardens and orchards, which, by being thus intermingled with the buildings, give it at a diſtance the appearance of a city built in a wood.

The principal public edifice in New Aberdeen is the college, which was originally a Franciſcan monaſtery, founded by George Keith, earl marſhal, in the year 1593, and from him called the Academia Mareſchallana. It conſiſts of a principal, four profeſſors of philoſophy, one for divinity, and one for mathematics. This, together with the old college, although entirely independent of each other, are termed the univerſity of Aberdeen. Beſides this college, there is a grammar ſchool, founded by Dr. Dune, conſiſting of a maſter and three uſhers. Here is likewiſe a ſchool for muſic, and a library, erected at the expence of the city, well ſupplied with books, and furniſhed with mathematical inſtruments. The other public buildings in this town are, a ſtone bridge of ſeven arches, built over the river Dee, at the expence of biſhop Gavin Dunbar; a bridge over the Don, conſiſting of one Gothic arch; the cathedral dedicated to St. Nicholas; an alms-houſe; and three hoſpitals.

Paiſley, a town in Scotland, in the county of Renfrew, on the river Cart, erected into a burgh in the year 1488 by James IV, and governed by three magiſtrates, and ſeventeen common-council. This town began to flouriſh by its manufactures, ſoon after the union; the principal articles, at firſt, were plaids and coarſe checks, and afterwards linen handerchiefs. Theſe were ſucceeded by fabrics of a lighter and more fanciful kind, conſiſting not only of plain lawns, but likewiſe thoſe that were ſtriped or checked with cotton, and others that were ornamented with a great variety of figures; ſome of which laſt articles ſtill continue to be manufactured there. The making of linen gauze was a conſiderable branch of trade in Paiſley, as likewiſe white ſewing-thread, known to the merchants by the name of ounce thread, as diſtinguiſhed from the different kinds of coloured and white thread which have been manufactured chiefly at Aberdeen and Dundee. About the year 1760, the making of ſilk gauze was firſt attempted at Paiſley, in imitation of that of Spittalfields, in London. The ſucceſs was beyond the moſt ſangine expectations of thoſe who engaged in it. Such nice and curious fabrics were deviſed, and ſuch a vaſt variety of elegant and richly ornamented gauze was iſſued from this place, as outdid every thing of the kind that had formerly appeared. Spittalfields was obliged to relinguiſh the manufacture. Companies came down from London, to carry it on at Paiſley, where it proſpered and encreaſed, it is believed, beyond any manufacture which any town of Scotland could boaſt of. Indeed, it not only became the great diſtinguiſhing manufacture of that town, but it filled the country round to the diſtance of twenty miles; and the gentlemen engaged in it, had not only warehouſes in London and Dublin, but they had correſpondents upon the continent, and ſhops for vending their commodities even in Paris itſelf. It appears from the beſt calculation that could be made, that in the year 1784, the manufactures of Paiſley, in ſilk, gauze, lawn and linen gauze, and white ſewing thread, amounted to the value of 579,185l. 16s. 6d. and that no fewer than 26,484 perſons were employed in carrying them on. It is difficult to give an exact account of the ſtate of its manufactures at preſent. The ſilk branch has evidently declined, but the muſlin has ſo far come in its room, and the thread manufacture has conſiderably increaſed. There are ſome others carried on there, of too much importance to be overlooked: for inſtance, conſiderable tan-works, four in number, two ſoap and candle-works, a manfacture of ribbons, and another of inkle or tape. Before the reformation, here was a rich monaſtery; and the town of Paiſley continued a part of the original or abby pariſh of Paiſley, till the year 1738, when the magiſtrates and council having purchaſed the right of patronage from the then earl of Dundonald, a new church was built, and the town was erected into a ſeparate pariſh. Since which time, two other churches have been erected; beſides which, there are two large diſſenting congregations in the town, thoſe of the Antiburgher perſuaſion, and the Relief. The number of inhabitants in the three pariſhes, is eſtimated at 24,600. The pariſh of Paiſley is in length, from eaſt to weſt, about nine miles, varying in breadth from half a mile to about three. There are five coal-mines, and free-ſtone quarries abound in the pariſh. In the various weaving branches there were employed at Whitſuntide 1791, in the ſuburbs of Paiſley 1108 looms, which, added to 2494 employed in the town, gives 3602 in all. But it is to be obſerved, that the extent to which the weaving branches are carried on, by the manufactures in Paiſley, is not to be judged of from the number of looms in the town and ſuburbs. Beſides about 150 in the country part of the pariſh, there are great numbers employed by them in the neighbouring villages, which are dependent on Paiſley: It is twenty-two miles N. Ayr, and ſeven W. Glaſgow.

St. Andrew's, in Fifeſhire, was formerly a moſt magnificent and flouriſhing city, and celebrated for being the burial place of St. Andrew, the tutelar ſaint of Scotland. But at preſent its only boaſt is the poſſeſſion of the oldeſt univerſity in that kingdom. It was founded, and endowed with many ample privileges, by biſhop Wardlaw. At preſent it conſiſts of three colleges, viz. St. Salvator, St. Leonard, and St. Mary. The firſt was built by biſhop Kennedy, grandſon to king Robert III. about the middle of the fifteenth century, and this prelate endowed his foundation with revenues ſufficient to maintain four profeſſors of philoſophy, a doctor, a bachelor and licentiate of divinty, together with eight poor ſcholars. There are three ſilver maces belonging to this college as ancient as the foundation; one of which, weighing ſeventeen pounds, is gilt and curiouſly chaſed. This building was repaired and augmented by Dr. Skene, one of the principals of the college, who likewiſe founded a library, which by liberal donations ſoon increaſed; and a fund was eſtabliſhed by the earl of Caſſils for the maintenance of a profeſſor of philoſophy.

St. Leonard's College was founded by James Hepburn, prior of St. Andrew's, before the Reformation, and afterwards endowed by the earl of Lenox. It conſiſts of a principal, four profeſſors of philoſophy, and eight poor ſcholars, who are maintained upon the foundation. Sir. James Scot afterwards eſtabliſhed a good ſalary for a profeſſor of philoſophy, and made conſiderable additions to the library, which in a ſhort time was augmented by a great collection of books bequeathed to it by Sir John Wedderburn, doctor of phyſic; and it now contains the manuſcript of Hordun's Scoti Chronicon. The ſtudents of this college, who are more numerous than in the other two colleges, ſhoot annually with bows for the prize of a ſilver arrow.

St. Mary's, or New College, was founded by the famous cardinal archbiſhop James Beaton, who was aſſaſſinated by Norman Leſly. It conſiſts of two profeſſors, doctors in divinty, and a profeſſor of mathematics. Here the ſtudents of the other colleges, having paſſed through a courſe of philoſophy, may be permitted to finiſh their education. An obſervatory is erected in the college garden by Mr. Gregory, the mathematical profeſſor, who, aſſiſted by a public

contribution, furniſhed it with proper inſtruments. According to the ſtatutes of this college, the rector, who is choſen annually, muſt be one of the three principals. The ſtudents of all the three colleges are diſtinguiſhed by wearing red gowns.

The principal fortifications in Scotland are the caſtles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton, beſides which are Fort William, Fort George, and Fort Auguſtus; but neither of theſe are capable of ſuſtaining a regular ſiege by an enemy furniſhed with a proper train of artillery. They ſerve as places of arms, and to bridle the inhabitants of the country, on any inſurrection; for which purpoſes they are kept in ſufficient repair, and each furniſhed with garriſons.

Stirling, with its caſtle, may be conſidered as a miniature of Edinburgh, being built on the ridge of a hill, or rock, riſing out of a plain, with the caſtle ſituated at the upper end. Within the walls of the fortreſs was the palace of ſeveral of the Scottiſh kings, a ſquare building, ornamented on three ſides with pillars reſting on groteſque figures projecting from the wall, and on the top of each pillar is a ſtatue, ſeemingly the work of fancy. Near it is the old parliament-houſe, a vaſt room, 120 feet long, very lofty, and had formerly a gallery running round it. A conſiderable battery of cannon commands the bridge, and in this, added to its advantageous ſituation, its principal ſtrength conſiſts.

Dumbarton-Caſtle is ſituated a little to the ſouthward of the town, on a double-pointed rock of a ſtupendous height, riſing in a ſtrange manner out of the ſands, and totally detached from all other objects. On one of the ſummits are the ruins of an old light-houſe, and on the other, a magazine of powder: in the hollow between them is a large well of excellent water, fourteen feet deep. The ſides of the rocks are immenſe precipices, and often overhang, except on the ſide where the governor's houſe ſtands, which is defended by ramparts mounted with a few cannon, and garriſoned by invalids.

In Scotland, the rivers are navigable to a very conſiderable diſtance, and moſt of the trading towns are ſituated on their banks, near enough to the ocean to enjoy the benefit of navigation; but there is no art uſed in any of the rivers in that kingdom; they flow on in their natural channels, and join their parent waters in the ocean. By the navigable canal cut between the Friths of Forth and Clyde, under the direction of the ingenious Mr. Smeaton, the goods imported by the ſea-port towns on one ſide of the kingdom are carried at a very ſmall expence to thoſe on the other.

In various parts of Scotland, roman antiquities are found in great numbers; but the moſt remarkable now remaining, is the pretenture, or wall, originally marked out by Agricola, and finiſhed by Antoninus Pius. Agricola erected a chain of forts, and Antoninus connected them with turf walls guarded by mounds and ditches, ſome parts of which are ſtill viſible. This wall extended from Carron upon the Frith of Forth, to Dunglas upon the Frith of Clyde, ſomething more than 37 Engliſh miles in length. The thickneſs of the wall, was about four yards. We learn from the inſcriptions on this wall, which are ſtill extant, that the whole of the legion called Secunda Auguſta, and the vexillations of the twentieth and the ſixth legions, were employed in completing this pretenture, which, according to the ſame inſcriptions, extended 39,726 paces. It was built while Antoninus Pius was the third time conſul. The country people call this work Graham's-Dyke, from a tradition that a Scottiſh warrior of that name was the firſt that broke over it.

Near the iron founderies, on an eminence above the river Carron, ſtood that celebrated antiquity, called Arthur's Oven, which is ſuppoſed to have been a ſmall chapel, a repoſitory for the Roman inſignia or ſtandards. Others think it was a Roman temple, and dedicated to the god Terminus. There is no reaſon to doubt of its being a Roman work; but by whom it was erected, is not certainly known, though it is generally imputed to Agricola. It was built in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or the dome of St. Paul's at London. It was twenty-two feet in height, and its external circumference at the baſe eighty-eight feet, and was, upon the whole, one of the moſt complete Roman antiquities in the world. In the year 1742, the owner, a Gothic knight cauſed it to be demoliſhed, in order to make a mill-dam with the materials.

The inſcriptions, coins, urns, utenſils, and other remains of the Romans in Scotland, are very numerous; many of them are found at a great diſtance to the northward of the wall. Roman camps are alſo found in various parts; but the moſt perfect piece of military antiquity is that called the camp of Agricola, at Ardoch in Perthſhire, near the foot of the Grampian hills. It is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola before he fought the bloody battle, ſo finely deſcribed by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was totally defeated. No leſs than five rows of ditches, and ſix ramparts, are ſtill viſible on the ſouth-ſide; and of the four gates which led into the area, three of them are ſtill to be ſeen.

Various kinds of monuments are found in ſeveral parts of this kingdom. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, are four or five ancient obliſks, called the Daniſh Stones of Aberlemno, having been erected in commemoration of the defeat of that people by the Scots. They are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horſeback, and many emblematic figures and hieroglyphics, now unintelligible. One of the moſt ſtately monuments of this kind is a ſtone near the town of Fortroſe in Murray. It riſes about twenty-three feet in height above the ground, and is ſaid to be no leſs than twelve or fifteen below the ſurface; ſo that the whole height is, at leaſt, thirty-five feet, and its breadth near five. It is one ſingle and entire ſtone, adorned with a great variety of figures in relievo, ſome of them ſtill diſtinct and viſible. This monument has by ſome antiquaries been attributed to the Danes, and by others to the Scots.

Among other natural curioſities, mention is made of a heap of white ſtones, moſt of them clear like cryſtal, together with great plenty of oyſter and other ſea-ſhells, that are found on the top of a mountain called Scorna Lappich, in Roſsſhire, twenty miles diſtant from the ſea. Slains, in Aberdeenſhire, is ſaid to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping Cave, where water, oozing through a ſpongy porous rock at the top, quickly conſolidates after it drops to the bottom. Some caverns are to be found in Fifeſhire, and are probably natural, are of extraordinary dimenſions, and have been the ſcenes of inhuman cruelties. Beſides the above, other natural curioſities belonging to Scotland, have their deſcriptions and hiſtories; but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vaniſh when they are ſkilfully examined.

The milirary roads, by rendering the highlands acceſſible, have greatly contributed to their preſent improvement, and were owing to the induſtry of the ſoldiery. They were begun in 1723, under the directions of general Wade, who forced his way through rocks, before ſuppoſed to have been unconquerable. Many of theſe rocks were too hard to yield to the pick-axe, and the miner was obliged to have recourſe to gunpowder; and often was ſuſpended from above by ropes, on the face of the horrible precipice. The bogs and moors had alſo their difficulties to overcome, but all were at length conſtrained to yield to the perſeverance of the Engliſh troops. In ſome parts the ſoldiers, in imitation of the Romans, left engraven on the rocks the name of the regiment to which each party belonged, who were employed in theſe works.

Nor

Nor were they leſs worthy of being immortalized than the vexillatio's of the Roman legions: for civilization was the conſequence of the labour of both.

The commerce and manufactures of Scotland have for ſome years paſt been in a very improving ſtate. Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the adminiſtration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the firſt miniſter who diſcovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more conſiderable object of governmental inquiry than ever. Mr. Pitt purſued Mr. Pelham's wiſe plan, and juſtly boaſted in parliament, that he availed himſelf of the courage, good ſenſe, and ſpirit of the Scots, in carrying on the moſt extenſive war that Great Britain ever was engaged in; and it may be ſaid, to the honour of the Britiſh government, that the Scots have been ſuffered to avail themſelves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or by acts of parliament ſince that period. This is manifeſt, from the extenſive trade they lately carried on with the Britiſh ſettlements in America and the Weſt-Indies, and with all the nations to which the Engliſh themſelves trade; ſo that the increaſe of their ſhipping within theſe thirty years paſt has been very conſiderable. The exports of thoſe ſhips are compoſed chiefly of Scots manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the ſoil, and the induſtry of the inhabitants. In exchange for theſe, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, ſugar, and rum, from the Britiſh plantations, and alſo the products of other countries, to the immenſe ſaving of their nation. The proſperity of Glaſgow and its neighbourhood, has been greatly owing to the connection and trade with Virginia and the Weſt-Indies.

There are ſeveral uſeful manufactures carrying on in Scotland, particularly their iron, linen, and woollen manufactures. Their thread manufacture is equal to any in the world, and the lace fabricated from it has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. Some years ago the exports from Scotland to England and the Britiſh plantations, in linens, cambrick, check, oſnabrugs, inkle, and the like, amounted annually to 400,000l. excluſive of their home conſumption. The woollen manufactures eſtabliſhed in Scotland are alſo in a very promiſing way; and their exports of caps, ſtockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to very conſiderable. Though the Scots cannot rival the Engliſh in their finer cloths, yet they make at preſent ſome broad cloth proper for the wear of people of faſhion in an undreſs, and in quality and fineneſs equal to that called Yorkſhire cloth. The Scots have alſo made vaſt progreſs in working the mines, and melting the ores of their country. They alſo reap a conſiderable profit from the coals they export to England, and have lately turned even their ſtones to account, by their contracts for paving the ſtreets of London.

Some of their manufactures, employ an incredible number of hands in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and ſtriped lawns, which are a reaſonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houſes, glaſs-works of every kind, delft-houſes, and paper-mills, are erected everywhere. The Scots carpeting makes neat and laſting furniture; and ſome eſſays have been lately made, with no inconſiderable degree of ſucceſs, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as is found in any part of Europe.

The moſt remarkable herring fiſhery in Scotland, is that of Loch Fyn, which is above ſixty-three miles in length, but in breadth ſcarce four; the depth is from ſixty to ſeventy fathoms. The higheſt ſeaſon of the fiſhery is from September to Chriſtmas, when near ſix hundred boats, with four men in each, are employed. A chain of nets is uſed (for ſeveral are united) of one hundred fathoms in length. As the herrings ſwim at very uncertain depths, ſo the net is ſunk to the depth the ſhoal is found to take. The ſucceſs therefore depends much on the judgment or good fortune of the fiſhermen in taking their proper depths; for it often happens that one boat will take multitudes, while the next does not catch a ſingle fiſh, which cauſes the boatmen to be perpetually inquiring of each other with regard to the depth of their nets.

The herrings are either ſalted and packed in barrels for exportation, or ſold freſh to the country people, two or three hundred horſes being brought every day to the water-ſide from very diſtant parts. A barrel holds 500 herrings, if they are of the beſt kind; at a medium 700; but if more, they are reckoned very poor.

The great rendezvous for the veſſels employed in the fiſheries of the weſtern iſlands, is at Cambel-Town, in Cantyre, where they clear out on the 12th of September, and ſometimes 300 buſſes are ſeen there at one time. They muſt return to their different ports by the 13th of January, where they are to receive the premium of 2l. 10s. for each ton of herrings.

The principal ſalmon fiſheries in Scotland are thoſe of the Tweed, the Tay, the Spey, Caſtle-Hill, and in the ſand bays below Slains. Thoſe of the Tweed are very conſiderable, and bring in vaſt ſums. They lie on each ſide of the river, and are all private property, except what belongs to the dean and chapter of Durham, which in rent, and tythe of fiſh, brings in 450l. per annum; all the other fiſheries are liable to tythes. The common rents of theſe fiſheries are fifty pounds a year, for which the tenants have as much ſhore as is ſufficient for ſhooting and landing their nets. One man goes off in a ſmall flat-bottomed boat, ſquare at one end, and, taking as large a circuit as his net will admit, draws it on ſhore at the extremity of his boundary, where others aſſiſt in landing it. The beſt fiſhery is on the ſouth ſide. Very fine ſalmon trout are often taken, which come up here to ſpawn from the ſea.

The fiſhery in the Tay is near Perth, where great abundance of fiſh is taken; 3000 have been caught in one morning, weighing one with another 18 pounds, the whole capture amounting to 48,000lb. The fiſhery begins on St. Andrew's Day, and ends on the 26th of Auguſt, old ſtile. The rents of the fiſheries amount to 3000l. per annum. The fiſhery in the Spey is very great; about 1700 barrels of ſalmon are caught in a ſeaſon, and the ſhore is rented for about 1200l. per. annum. Great quantities are caught at Caſtle-Hill, Dunet, Wick, and Thurſo. The miraculous draught once made, was no leſs than 2500 in one tide. A very ſucceſsful ſalmon fiſhery has, for ſome years, been carried on below Slains. It is remarked of theſe fiſh, that they ſwim againſt the wind, and are of much finer flavour than thoſe taken in the freſh waters.

There was, near the mouth of the Tay, a very valuable fiſhery for pearls, taken out of the freſh water muſcles. From the year 1761 to 1764, ten thouſand pounds worth were ſent to London, and ſold from 10s. to 30s. per ounce. It is ſaid that a pearl was found there weighing 33 grains. But this fiſhery is at preſent exhauſted.

The fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coaſts: they have a conſiderable ſhare in the whale-fiſhery carried on at Spitzbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allowed them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of ſhipping employed in that article. They alſo take great quantities of cod on the banks in the north ſeas, and export it to different parts of Europe.

There is but one order of knighthood peculiar to Scotland, which is ſtiled the order of the Thiſtle, inſtituted, according to ſome of the Scotch writers, by king Achaius, on his making an offenſive league with Charlemagne, king of France, in the eighth century. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and twelve companions.

They wear a green ribbon over their ſhoulder, and on their breaſt an embroidered ſtar, repreſenting St. Andrew, the tutelar ſaint of Scotland, irradiated, and this motto, *Nemo me impunè laceſſet*, "None ſhall provoke me with impunity." This order was dropped about the time of the Reformation, but was again reſtored to its former luſtre by queen Anne.

In the reign of Edward II. there was no difference between the value and denomination of the coins of England and Scotland. About the end of the reign of James II. a Scotch ſhilling was equal to no more than an Engliſh ſix-pence; and in the reign of Mary, queen of Scotland, was only worth a groat. Soon after the acceſſion of James I. to the crown of England, the Scotch ſhillings was equal to no more than an Engliſh penny; their crowns and marks, which are only imaginary money, fell in the ſame proportion. A Scotch penny is now rarely met with; and the bodle, by which its uſe was ſupplied, though of double the value, begins to be ſcarce. There are ſtill halfpennies, or babies, current in Scotland; but the Engliſh coin is now moſt common, and the currency in Scotland and England is the ſame.

The ancient form of government of Scotland, appeared excellently adapted to the preſervation of liberty; and it muſt be allowed, that the power of the king was thereby greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the conſtitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his aſſuming or exerciſing too much authority. The king's authority was ſufficiently reſtrained; but the nobles, chieftians, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyrannize over and oppreſs their tenants and the lower claſs of people. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public buſineſs of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was ſo bounded, that he was not even intruſted with the executive part of the government; and ſo late as the minority of James IV. who was cotemporary with, and ſon-in-law to Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the firſt ſervant of the people; as appears by the acts ſtill extant.

The laws of Scotland are now party deduced from the feudal ſyſtem of government, partly from the civil law, and partly from the laws of nature and nations. The higheſt court of judicature in this kingdom is called the college of juſtice, and conſiſts of fifteen judges, ſtiled lords of ſeſſion, who ſit twice a year to adminiſter juſtice according to equity, and determine cauſes appealed to them from inferior tribunals. The ſentence of this court is not however final, an appeal lying to the Houſe of Lords in England. This court was originally inſtituted by James V. All matters are determined by the civil law, unleſs they come within the cognizance of the municipal laws of the kingdom. The lords of council and ſeſſion act alſo as a court of equity.

In Scotland, the higheſt criminal tribunal is called the juſtice court, and conſiſts of a juſtice-general, juſtice-clerk, and five other judges, who are lords of ſeſſion. Theſe, aſſiſted by a jury, or pannel of fifteen, hold the aſſizes yearly, when all cauſes are tried, and decided by a majority of the pannel.

They have alſo, a third court, called the court of Exchequer; which enjoys the ſame power, authority, privilege, and juriſdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of Exchequer in England, and all matters and things competent to the court of Exchequer in one of theſe kingdoms, are likewiſe competent to the Exchequer of the other: but certain powers are veſted in the judges of the Exchequer in Scotland, which formerly belonged to the treaſury, and ſtill appertain to that board in England.

In the reign of Charles II. the court of admiralty in Scotland was, in all cauſes competent to its own juriſdiction, declared to be a ſupreme court. The lord high admiral is acknowledged the king's lieutenant and juſtice-general upon the ſeas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the ſame; and upon freſh waters, and navigable rivers, below the firſt bridge, or within low-water-mark, ſo that nothing competent to his juriſdiction can be interfered with, in the firſt inſtance, but by the lord high admiral, and the judges of his court. Sentences paſſed in all inferior courts of admiralty may be brought again before this court, but no appeal lies from it to the lords of ſeſſion, or any other court, unleſs in caſes not maritime. In this court cauſes are tried by the civil law, which in ſuch caſes is likewiſe the common law of Scotland. The office of lord admiral of Scotland is now little more than nominal. The judge of the admiralty is generally a perſon of diſtinction, to whom conſiderable perquiſites belong.

The college, or faculty of advocates, are within themſelves an orderly court, having under their ſubordination a body of inferior lawyers, or attorneys, who term themſelves writers to the ſignet, becauſe they alone can ſubſcribe the writs which paſs the ſignet. This college, in ſome degree, anſwers to the Engliſh inns of court, and no candidate can be admitted without a ſtrict examination.

In every county, a ſheriff's court is held, in which he, or his deputy, preſides, and adminiſters juſtice in all cauſes civil and criminal. Formerly the office of ſheriff was hereditary; but by a late act of parliament, all high ſheriffs, or ſtewards, are nominated and appointed annually by his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors. Alſo the ſheriff's deputies, and ſteward's deputies, in each county, or ſtewartry, muſt have been an advocate ſeven years. Theſe deputies are to be nominated by the king for the term of ſeven years, with ſuch further continuance as his majeſty ſhall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their offices for life.

The baron courts in civil matters, extend to cauſes not exceeding forty ſhillings ſterling; and in criminal cauſes, to petty actions of aſſault and battery. Theſe courts belong to every perſon who holds a barony of the king; and they had formerly the power of life and death; but at preſent they can only inflict a fine, not exceeding twenty ſhillings, or ſet the offender in the ſtocks for three hours in the day.

The commiſſaries courts are ſimilar to thoſe of the Engliſh dioceſan chancellors. The higheſt of theſe is kept at Edinburgh, wherein four judges preſide, who hear and determine all cauſes relative to wills and teſtaments, the right of patronage to eccleſiaſtical benefices, tithes, divorces, &c.

The juſtices of peace in Scotland poſſeſs much the ſame power as thoſe in England.

The royal burghs form a ſort of commercial parliament, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, and conſiſts of a repreſentative from each burgh, to conſult upon the common good of the whole. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is ſubject to their regulation; and they fix the ſtaple-port, which has been removed from Dort to Camphere. Their conſervator is nominated by the crown, but then they regulate his power, approve his deputies, and appoint his ſalary; ſo that in fact the whole ſtaple trade is ſubject to their management.

The conſtitution of Scotland has varied at different times, according as the power of the king, the nobles, or the commons happened to be moſt prevalent; but at laſt it ſettled in a limited monarchy. The Scots enjoyed their own parliament, conſiſting of king, lords, and commons, though differently modelled from that of England; but the two nations being incorporated by the act of Union, the Scottiſh parliament ceaſed of courſe, and that kingdom is now repreſented by ſixteen peers, and forty-five commoners, who ſit and vote in the Britiſh parliament. Theſe peers are elected every parliament from the whole

whole body of the Scotch nobility; and the commons are chofen by the fhires and certain boroughs claffed for that purpofe. The great officers of the crown are ftill maintained and beftowed upon the noblemen of North-Britain.

By an article of the treaty of Union, the land-tax of Scotland is fettled at a certain fum; but the cuftoms and other branches of the revenue, are on the fame footing there as in England.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

The writers of ancient Scotch hiftory, like thofe of moft other nations, are too much inclined to fables and uncertain traditions; yet it is eafy to collect from the Roman authors, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people, diftinguifhed by the names of Caledonians, Scots, and Picts. The Caledonians were the original inhabitants of the country; the Scots, moft probably, were a nation of adventurers from ancient Scythia; and the Picts were the original natives of Britain, and driven out by the Belgic Gauls. Chriftianity was planted in Scotland by Donald I. about the two-hundredth year of the Chriftian æra.

We have very little account of Scotland till the time when the famous Agricola commanded in Britain. That great general totally defeated the combined army of thefe northern people, led againft him by a powerful prince, called Galdus, or Galgacus.

In the year 448, when the Romans left Britain, the Picts and Scots invaded the northern parts of that country, and practifed fuch inhuman barbarities on the inhabitants, that they called in the Romans to their affiftance. Reinforced by thefe foreign auxiliaries, they attacked, routed their enemies, and drove them back to their own country.

The Picts, about the year 843, who had long fubfifted as a feparate nation, were totally fubdued by Kenneth Mac Alpin, king of Scotland, and obliged to incorporate themfelves with their conquerors, by taking their name, and adopting their laws.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, who mounted the Scottifh throne in the year 1057, married Margaret, fifter to Edgar Atheling, the heir to the Engliſh crown. Alarmed at this alliance, and the popularity of Edgar, William the Conqueror, who then fwayed the Engliſh fceptre, invaded Scotland at the head of a powerful army, and forced Malcolm to pay him homage. This peace introduced a total alteration of manners among the Scots, in which queen Margaret, at once the pattern of piety and politeneſs, laboured inceffantly. She began with her own court, which fhe new-modelled, by introducing into it the offices, furniture, and modes of life, which were ufual among the more polite nations of Europe. She difmiffed from her fervice all who were noted for impiety and immorality; and charged Turgot, her confeffor, under pain of her difpleafure, to give her his real fentiments upon the ftate of the kingdom, after the beft inquiry he could make. Turgot's report was by no means favourable to the reputation of the Scots. He informed Margaret, that faction raged among the nobles; rapine among the commons; and incontinence among all degrees of men. He complained, that the kingdom was deftitute of a learned clergy, capable of reforming the people by their doctrine and example. This report, however, did not difcourage the queen; fhe foon made her hufband fenfible how neceffary it was for his glory and fafety, to fecond her efforts for reforming his fubjects. She repreſented to him particularly the corruption of juſtice, and the inſolence of the ſoldiery; and found in him a ready diſpoſition for reforming all abuſes. He began the great work, by ſetting the example in his own perſon, and obliging his nobility to follow it. But ſuperſtition had too great a ſhare in theſe reformations: Malcolm waſted the riches of his kingdom in founding biſhoprics, building churches, monaſteries, and other eccleſiaſtical ſtructures, adorning them with veſſels of gold and ſilver, and endowing them with ample privileges and revenues.

Soon after Malcolm invaded England, and laid ſiege to the caſtle of Alnwick; but before he could reduce it, he was attacked by Robert de Mowbray, earl of Northumberland, at the head of an army, and killed in the conteſt; and queen Margaret, who was then ill at Edinburgh, ſurvived him only four days. Theſe events happened in the year 1093, in the thirty-ſixth year of Malcolm's reign.

Donald VII. the uncle of Malcolm, mounted the throne of Scotland, on the death of his nephew. He expelled all the foreigners out of the kingdom, and obliged them to ſeek refuge in England. But finding himſelf unable to defend his territories againſt the oppoſition formed in favour of Edgar, Alexander, and David, the ſons of Malcolm, he invited the Danes and Norwegians to his aſſiſtance; offering to cede to them the Orkney and Shetland iſlands, by way of indemnification. The offer was accepted; and Magnus, king of Norway, after taking poſſeſſion of the iſlands, marched an army to the aſſiſtance of Donald. Theſe people ſoon became ſo inſolent, that they were deteſted by the Scots, who complained that their country was in danger of becoming a province to Norway.

In the mean time, William Rufus, who then filled the throne of England, ſent Duncan, a natural ſon of the late Malcolm, at the head of an army, againſt Donald; and the Scots, imagining he was come to place Edgar on the throne, joined his ſtandard. The uſurper was obliged to fly to the iſlands for protection. But the Scots ſoon perceived their miſtake; Duncan, inſtead of inveſting Edgar with the inſignia of government, repaired to Scone, where he was ſolemnly crowned. He did not however long ſurvive his exaltation, being ſlain by Malpedir, earl of Mearns, who replaced Donald upon the throne.

Rufus now ſent Edgar into Scotland, at the head of an army, aſſiſted by his uncle Edgar Atheling, and ſoon obliged Donald to ſeek his ſafety in flight; but he was not fortunate enough to eſcape; he was overtaken and brought back to Edgar, who cauſed his eyes to be put out, and condemned him to perpetual impriſonment, where he died.

Soon after the acceſſion of Edgar to the Scottiſh throne, his ſiſter Matilda, who had been carried by her aunt Chriſtiana into the monaſtery of Wilton, was married to Henry I. by which the crowns of England and Scotland were ſtrongly cemented. Edgar, after a reign of nine years and three months, died at Dundee in 1107.

Alexander, his brother, aſcended the throne, and exerted himſelf in puniſhing the enormous crimes committed by his nobility in every part of the kingdom. He afterwards applied himſelf to works of piety, and after a reign of ſeventeen years, and twenty-one days, (he died in the year 1124.)

He was ſucceeded by his younger brother David, who, with his ſiſter queen Matilda, had been educated in England. He married Maud, the daughter of Waltheof, by Judith, the niece of William the Conqueror; and afterwards became poſſeſſed of the great earldoms of Huntingdon and Northumberland: ſo that he was, at the time of his acceſſion to the throne of Scotland, the moſt powerful ſubject in England. He cultivated his family friendſhip with Henry I. and having foreſeen the oppoſition which his niece, the empreſs Maud (heireſs to the crown of England by the death of her elder brother) would encounter, he took an oath to maintain her and her iſſue in that ſucceſſion.

Accordingly when Stephen, on the death of Henry, ſeized the crown, he not only gave all her friends an hoſpitable reception, but raiſed an army, at the head of which he marched into England, ſeized upon Carliſle and Newcaſtle, and obliged the nobility in the north of England to give hoſtages for their fidelity to the empreſs and her young ſon, afterwards Henry II. He was however ſoon after obliged to make a peace with Stephen, and his ſon did homage for his Engliſh eſtates.

About two years afterwards he again invaded England, where his army committed the moſt ſhocking barbarities, which neither David nor his ſon could reſtrain. This conduct ſo exaſperated the northern barons againſt the Scots, that they marched at the head of an army againſt David, and advanced towards Northallerton, where they erected their ſtandard. Its body was a kind of box placed upon wheels, in the centre of which the maſt of a ſhip was erected, ſurmounted by a ſilver croſs, and round it were hung the banners of St. Peter, St. John de Beverly, and St. Wilfred. The Engliſh placed the utmoſt confidence in the fortune of their ſtandard, and its ſupernatural efficacy. Both armies met on a plain called Catton-Moor, and after a dreadful conteſt the Scots were defeated, and David and his ſon ſaved themſelves in Carliſle. The Scottiſh monarch, however ſtill continued to be the principal ſupport of Maud, and, in conjunction with the earl of Glouceſter, would in all probability have placed the crown on her head, had not her own haughtineſs and imprudence fruſtrated every attempt made in her favour. After a reign of twenty-nine years, David died at Carliſle, and was buried with his anceſtors at Dumferling, in the year 1153.

He was ſucceeded in the throne by his grandſon Malcolm IV. This prince attended Henry II. in a campaign in the county of Thouloufe, where he gave ſufficient proofs of his valour; but ſoon after applied himſelf to the founding and endowing of religious houſes, and died in the year 1165, being the twelfth of his reign, and the twenty-fifth of his age.

He was ſucceeded by his brother William, who invaded England, and was taken priſoner, while he was beſieging the caſtle of Alnwick. Henry ſent him, with other ſtate priſoners, to the caſtle of Falaiſe in Normandy; but afterwards ſet him at liberty, on his doing homage for the crown of Scotland, and acknowledging that he held that kingdom as a fief of England. But this was afterwards abrogated by Richard I. He died in the year 1214, in the 49th year of his reign, and the 74th of his age.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Alexander II. who died in 1249, leaving the crown to his ſon Alexander III. a very good prince, who made the happineſs of his people his chief care. He firſt married Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander (who married the daughter of the earl of Flanders,) David, and Margaret. She married Hangowan, ſon to Magnus IV. king of Norway. That princeſs was delivered of a daughter, named Margaret, generally called the Maiden of Norway; by whoſe death, without iſſue, all the poſterity of William failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to David, earl of Huntingdon, brother to William and Malcolm IV.

Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, great grandſon to David, earl of Huntingdon, by his elder doughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce, grandſon to the ſame earl of Huntingdon, by his younger daughter Iſabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The deciſion was referred to Edward I. of England. After a long diſcuſſion, Edward awarded the crown to Baliol, who agreed to do homage for it to the king of England. Baliol was accordingly crowned at Scone, but ſoon after ſurrendered his crown to Edward, who detained him priſoner.

After this, Edward obliged the Scots to ſign inſtruments of their ſubjection to him, and carried off or deſtroyed all the hiſtorical records of their kingdom, taking with him the fatidical ſtone on which the kings of Scotland had long been crowned, and depoſited it in Weſtminſter-Abbey. Enraged at the loſs of every thing they valued, the Scots determined to periſh rather than wear the chains of the victor. Edward perceiving his miſtake, changed his meaſures; he treated them on the footing of ſubjects, and projected an union between the two kingdoms. Happy had it been for both had this treaty took place, but the Scots patriots treated it with diſdain. They united themſelves under Sir William Wallace, one of the greateſt heroes of that age; but he being only a private gentleman, his ſucceſs ſoon cauſed him to be envied by the Scotch nobility.

In the mean time Edward prepared another formidable army for the invaſion of Scotland. It conſiſted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horſe, and 4000 light armed troops, and was attended by a fleet to ſupply it with proviſions. This army, when joined by the troops already in Scotland, formed an irreſiſtible body. Edward divided it into two parts, one of which, conſiſting of 40,000 men, he commanded in perſon. Wallace was at the head of the Scotch army, encamped at Falkirk; but before the Engliſh appeared, the general was deſerted by Cummin, the moſt powerful nobleman in Scotland, at the head of the beſt diviſion of his countrymen. Betrayed by his friends, and abandoned by a large part of his army, was obliged to retreat, and found means to croſs the Carron, along whoſe banks he marched in ſafety.

Bruce (who was then but a youth, and had hitherto ſerved in the Engliſh army, where he had given proofs of his aſpiring genius) appeared on the oppoſite banks; and diſtinguiſhing the Scottiſh chieftain, as well by his majeſtic port as by the intrepid activity of his behaviour, called out to him, and deſired a ſhort conference. He repreſented to Wallace the fruitleſs and ruinous enterprize in which he was engaged, and endeavoured to perſuade him to ſubmit to ſuperior power. Wallace laboured to convince him of his error in joining with the enemy of Scotland; adding, that as the intereſts of his country, no more than thoſe of a brave man, could never be ſincerely cultivated by a ſacrifice of liberty, he was determined, as far as poſſible, to prolong his freedom, and was deſirous that his own life, as well as the exiſtence of the nation, might terminate, when they could no longer be preſerved but by receiving the chains of the victor. Fired with theſe ſentiments, Bruce determined to purſue the ſame path of glory, and either free his country from their ſtate of ſervitude, or periſh in the attempt. Wallace ſtill continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions againſt the invaders of his country; but being at laſt betrayed by one of his pretended friends, he was carried to London, and executed as a traitor. Bruce did not live to put his reſolutions in practice; he died ſoon after the battle of Falkirk, conjuring his ſon, with his laſt breath, to revenge the injuries of his bleeding country, and ſupport her independence.

He obeyed the dying injunctions of his father, and making his eſcape from the Engliſh court, where he was detained a priſoner at large, repaired to Scotland, and killed Cummin with his own hand, for his attachment to Edward. Bruce flew to different quarters, excited his partiſans to arms, attacked with ſucceſs the diſperſed bodies of the Engliſh, and drove them once more out of the kingdom. Exaſperated at this unexpected attack of the Scots, and the death of Cummin, Edward vowed revenge againſt the whole Scottiſh nation, and aſſembled a very powerful army, in order to make them the victims of his ſeverity. In the mean time he ſent Aymer de Valence with a conſiderable force to check the progreſs of the inſurgents; and that general, falling unexpectedly upon

upon Bruce, at Methven, in Perthſhire, threw his army into ſuch confuſion, that a total defeat was the conſequence. Bruce himſelf, attended with a few of his followers, had the good fortune to eſcape the dreadful carnage, and took ſhelter in the weſtern iſles. Edward ſoon after marched his powerful army to Carliſle, in order to enter the Scottiſh kingdom, and carry his threats into execution: but death put a period to his expedition and his life, after having deſtroyed, according to the beſt hiſtorians, 100,000 of the inhabitants. He died on the 7th of July, 1307.

Soon aftewards, Bruce quitted his retreat in the weſtern iſles, where he had ſuffered inexpreſſible hardſhips, and appeared again at the head of a ſmall army of his friends and followers. His firſt exploit was an important advantage which he obtained by ſurpriſe over Aymer de Valence, who commanded the Engliſh forces; ſo that the Scots began to entertain hopes of recovering their independence.

Edward II. perceiving at length the neceſſity of acting with vigour, accordingly aſſembled a powerful army, in order to finiſh this important enterprize by one dreadful blow. He entered Scotland at the head of a numerous body of forces, and advanced towards Bruce's army, encamped near Stirling. His chief officers were, the earls of Glouceſter, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton. Thoſe under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward; his nephew Randolf, earl of Murry; and the young lord Walter, high ſteward of Scotland. The Scottiſh general, knowing that he was unable to face the Engliſh in the open field, without ſome advantageous circumſtances in his favour, drew up his army near Bannockburn, having a hill on his right flank and a moraſs on his left. In the front of his army was a wide rivulet, on the banks of which he cauſed deep pits to be dug, and ſharp ſtakes to be planted in them, and the whole to be carefully covered with turf. Theſe precautions had the deſired effect; the Engliſh cavalry, eager to engage the enemy, fell into the pits, and were driven off the field of battle, before they had time to rally. This unfortunate accident ſtruck the army of Edward with a panic, and Bruce obtained a complete victory. The Scotch writers make the loſs of the Engliſh to amount to 50,000 men, and their own to 4000. The flower of the Engliſh nobility were either killed or taken priſoners; their camp, which was immenſely rich, fell into the hands of the Scots; and Edward himſelf, with a few followers, were purſued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he eſcaped in a fiſhing-boat. This great and deciſive battle happened in the year 1314.

By this fortunate acquiſition, Bruce was eſtabliſhed on the Scottiſh throne, and the remainder of his reign was a ſeries of the moſt glorious ſucceſſes. He ſent his brother Edward into Ireland, at the head of a conſiderable army, who obtained very great advantages over the natives, but was at laſt ſlain in battle. Robert, who knew that the events of war are always uncertain, made peace with England, and died in the year 1328, leaving his country in the greateſt proſperity.

David II. the ſon and ſucceſſor of Robert Bruce, was a virtuous prince; but his abilities as a king were greatly eclipſed by thoſe of Edward III. of England, whoſe ſiſter he married. The Engliſh monarch eſpouſed the cauſe of John Baliol, ſon to the original competitor for the Scottiſh throne, and defeated David's forces in ſeveral bloody battles. That prince himſelf was taken priſoner at the battle of Durham. After eleven years impriſonment in England, he obtained his liberty, on paying a ranſom of 100,000 marks, and died without iſſue, in the year 1371. By the death of David, the laſt of the Brucean line, the crown devolved upon the Stuart family, whoſe chief had married the niece of Robert Bruce.

The firſt monarch was Robert II. a wiſe and brave prince. He was an excellent judge of mankind, and always employed generals of the moſt diſtinguiſhed abilities. He was fifty-ſeven years of age when he mounted the throne, and ſeventy when the firſt war broke out againſt England.

He died in 1390, and was ſucceededby his ſon Robert III. a prince innocent and inoffenſive in his conduct. But Scotland was at that time very ill inclined to cheriſh, or even to endure, ſovereigns of that character. The duke of Albany, Robert's brother, a prince of more abilities, at leaſt of a more boiſterous and violent diſpoſition, aſſumed the government of the ſtate; and, not ſatisfied with his preſent authority, entertained the horrid purpoſe of extirpating his brother's children, and of fixing the crown in his own family. Accordingly he threw David, his eldeſt nephew, into priſon, and ſuffered him there to periſh with hunger. James, the younger brother of David, now only ſtood between him and the throne; and Robert, ſenſible of his ſon's danger, embarked him on board a ſhip, with a view of ſending him into France, and intruſting him to the protection of that power; but unfortunately the veſſel was taken by the Engliſh, and Prince James, a boy about nine years of age, was carried to London; and though there ſubſiſted a truce at that time between the two kingdoms, Henry refuſed to reſtore the young prince to his liberty. Robert, worn out with cares and infirmities, was unable to bear the ſhock of this laſt misfortune, and ſoon after paid the debt of nature, leaving the government in the hands of the duke of Albany.

James I. being ſet at liberty in the year 1424, on paying a ranſom, aſcended the throne of his anceſtors; and having received an excellent education in England, determined to abridge the power of his nobility. He was alſo deſirous of recovering the crown lands which had been unjuſtly wreſted from his family during his reſidence in England. But theſe attempts coſt him his life; ſome of the chief nobility formed a conſpiracy againſt him, and he was murdered in his bed, in 1437, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

The death of James I. was ſucceeded by a long minority, attended with all the diſtractions too common in thoſe events. When the young prince became old enough to hold the reins of government, theſe diſtractions ſubſided, and James gave many indications of his inheriting the ſpirit of his anceſtors. Soon after his acceſſion to the throne, the quarrel commenced between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, and became abſolutely incurable, but by the extinction of one party. This was too great an advantage not to be ſeized by James, who hoped now to recover thoſe places the Engliſh had formerly conquered. In the year 1460, he laid ſiege to Roxborough, and had provided himſelf with a ſmall train of artillery for the enterprize: but his cannon was ſo ill framed, that one of them burſt as he was firing it, which put an end to his life.

His ſon and ſucceſſor, James III. being alſo a minor, the uſual diſtractions enſued in the kingdom; the queen-dowager, Anne of Gueldres, aſpired to the government, and the family of Douglas oppoſed her pretenſions. Nor was the nation greatly relieved when James came of age to take the government into his own hands. Suſpicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to favourites, with many other errors of a feeble mind, too plainly mark the reign of this prince. His adminiſtration was cloſed by a rebellion of his ſubjects, and he was ſlain in battle, in the year 1488, in the thirty-ſixth year of his age.

James IV. who aſcended the throne on the death of his father, was one of the moſt accompliſhed princes of his age: he was naturally generous and brave; and encouraged the commerce of his ſubjects. In the year 1502, he married Margaret, eldeſt daughter of Henry VII. and it was hoped that this alliance would remove all ſource of diſcord between the

the two kingdoms. But this flattering idea was deceitful: he cheriſhed the fatal error of his family, a predilection for the French. He joined that nation againſt Henry VIII. led an army into England, and was ſlain, together with the flower of his nobility, in the battle of Flodden, which happened in the year 1513, and the fortieth of his age.

The minority of his ſon, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the firſt being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the houſe of Guiſe. He inſtituted the court of ſeſſion, enacted many ſalutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was ſo equally poiſed between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendſhip was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent preſents. But James took little ſhare in foreign affairs; he ſeemed rather to imitate his predeceſſors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the doctrine of the Reformation beginning to gain ground in Scotland, he liſtened to the inſtigations of his clergy, and gave way to a religious perſecution. Some time after, a war broke out with England, and the duke of Norfolk, at the head of a numerous army, entered the Scottiſh territories, and committed ſome diſorders; but hearing that James was at the head of a ſtrong body of forces, retreated into England. Inflamed with a deſire of military glory, and determined to revenge the affronts he had received, James gave the ſignal for purſuing them, and carrying the war into England. But his nobilty oppoſed this reſolution, and refuſed to attend him in his projected enterprize. Enraged at this defection, he reproached them with cowardice, and threatened them with the effects of his anger. He however determined to purſue his purpoſe, and entered England at the head of a few forces that adhered to him. He had not advanced far, before his troops were ſeized with a panic, on hearing that a ſmall detachment of the Engliſh was approaching, and fled in the utmoſt confuſion. This diſtaſter ſo deeply affected James, that he loſt all command of his temper. Rage againſt his nobility, who he believed had betrayed him; ſhame for a defeat of ſuch unequal numbers; regret for the paſt, and fear for the future, ſo wrought upon him, that he would admit of no conſolation, but abandoned himſelf wholly to deſpair, of which he died, in the year 1542.

His daughter and ſucceſſor Mary, was only a few hours old when her father died. She was ſent to France when an infant, and married, during her minority, to the dauphin, who died before ſhe aſcended the throne of Scotland. This princeſs, famous at once for her beauty and misfortunes, ſoon after ſhe obtained the crown of her anceſtors, married lord Darnly, whoſe untimely death produced a rebellion in her kingdom. Mary's forces were defeated, and ſhe herſelf obliged to take refuge in England, where ſhe was detained a priſoner eighteen years by queen Elizabeth, and afterwards beheaded by order of that princeſs, in the year 1587, and in the forty-ſixth of her age.

James VI. ſucceed his mother on the Scottiſh throne; and, after the death of queen Elizabeth, aſcended that of England, after ſhewing great abilities for governing in Scotland. By this means the two crowns became united.

James, after a ſplendid but troubleſome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his ſon, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his arbitrary principles and conduct, induced both his Scottiſh and Engliſh ſubjects to take up arms againſt him; and indeed, the ſword was firſt drawn againſt Charles in Scotland. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himſelf into the power of the Scottiſh army, who at firſt treated him with reſpect, but afterwards delivered him up to the Engliſh parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000l. to the Scots, which was ſaid to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made ſeveral bloody but unſucceſsful attempts to reſtore his ſon, Charles II. who was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worceſter, in 1651; after which, to the time of his reſtoration, the common-wealth of England, and the Protector, gave law to Scotland.

At the acceſſion of queen Anne to the crown of England, the Whigs again made application to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate Union as it now ſtands The majority of the Scots parliament for a conſiderable time rejected the propoſal; but were at length prevailed on to agree to it, partly from conviction, and partly by the diſtribution of money among the needy nobility; ſince which the hiſtories of England and Scotland become one and the ſame.

Sir John Sinclair computes the preſent population of Scotland (1793) at 1,700,000.

The armorial bearing of Scotland is ſol, a lion rampant, gules, with a double teſſure flowered and counter-flowered; the creſt, a lion crowned imperial.

CHAP. X.

ENGLAND.

Boundaries, Extent, Situation, Diviſions, Soil, Climate, Rivers, Produce, Fiſheries, Manufactories, Religion, Learning, Hiſtory, &c.

ENGLAND, including WALES, is bounded, on the north, by Scotland; on the eaſt, by the German Ocean; on the weſt, by St. George's Channel, and on the ſouth, by the Engliſh Channel, which ſeparates it from France. It is about 380 miles in length, and 300 in breadth; ſituated between 50 and 56 deg. north lat. and between 2 deg. eaſt, and 6 deg. 20 min. weſt longitude. It is of a triangular form; the Land's-End in Cornwall, Dover-Head in Kent, and Caithneſs on the borders of Scotland, forming three angular points.

England is waſhed by the ſea on all ſides, except where it joins to Scotland; which ſituation renders the country liable to great uncertainty of weather, ſo that the inhabitants on part of the ſea-coaſts are often viſited by agues and fevers; but the warm vapours which continually ariſe from the ſea, qualify the natural ſharpneſs of the air, and cauſe the earth to be clothed with a perpetual verdure. The ſpring begins in March, and in May the whole country is covered with bloſſoms. The cold, however, too often continues; ſo that while the trees diſplay all the pomp of vernal bloom, they, as well as the human nerves, are frequently chilled with the coldneſs of the atmoſphere. However, the ſituation of England near the ſea renders it friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, eſpecially thoſe who live on a dry ſoil.

In the time of the Romans, the whole iſland went by the name of Britannia. The word Brit, according to Mr. Camden, ſignifies painted or ſtained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies; though ſome antiquaries do not agree on this etymology. Some derive it from a Celtic word, ſignifying a level country; but we prefer the common etymology, of its being derived from Anglen, a province now ſubject to his Daniſh majeſty, which furniſhed a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this iſland.

When the Romans firſt landed in Britain, it was inhabited by ſeventeen tribes, viz. the Danmonii, Durotriges,

A New Map of ENGLAND & WALES

Explanation

Cities are distinguished by Roman Capitals as . . . . . CARLILE
County Towns in Italic Cap. as . . . . . IPSWICH
Boroughs Towns as . . . . . Windsor

Mark To. . . . . .
G. Po Rds.
C. Rds.

SCOTLAND
EDINBURGH
IRISH SEA
ISLE of MAN
ENGLISH CHANNEL
GERMAN OCEAN
FRANCE
Anglesey I.
I. of Wight
Guernsey I.
Alderney I.
Sark I.
Jersey
Ide Bas
Berwick
Holy I.
Farne I.
Sunderland Pt.
Tynemouth
Warkworth
Coquet
Morpeth
Newcastle
Tyne R.
Were R.
Hartlepool
Tees Mo.
Stockton
Guisboro
Whitby
Scarborough
Bridlington
Flamborough H.
Hornsey
Beverly
Hull
Heydon
Spurn H.
Selby
Pontefract
Wakefield
Leeds
Halifax
Bradford
Skipton
Ripon
Richmond
N. Allerton
Malton
Aldboro
York
Knaresboro
Wetherby
Tadcaster
Sheffield
Frodingham
Gainsboro
Lincoln
Boston
Grantham
Stamford
Peterborough
Wisbech
Lynn
Yarmouth
Norwich
Thetford
Ely
Cambridge
Newmarket
Bury
Sudbury
Colchester
Maldon
Blackwater
Thames R.
Margate
N. Foreland
Ramsgate
Sandwich
Deal
Dover
S. Foreland
Hythe
Rye
Winchelsea
Battle
Hastings
Lewes
Arundel
Chichester
Portsmouth
Southampton
Newport
Yarmouth
Cowes
Lymington
Christchurch
Poole
Weymouth
Portland
Lyme
Exeter
Topsham
Dawlish
Teignmouth
Torbay
Plymouth
Dartmouth
Kingsbridge
Dodbrook
Start Pt.
Falmouth
Helford
Penzance
Scilly Is.
Land's End
Padstow
Newquay
Truro
Redruth
Camborne
Hayle
St. Ives
Launceston
Bodmin
Liskeard
Looe
Fowey
Saltash
Tavistock
Okehampton
Crediton
Tiverton
Honiton
Axminster
Bridport
Dorchester
Blandford
Shaftesbury
Salisbury
Wilton
Amesbury
Andover
Basingstoke
Winchester
Alresford
Petersfield
Midhurst
Farnham
Guildford
Godalming
Ryegate
Reigate
Croydon
Kingston upon Thames
Windsor
Eton
Slough
Uxbridge
Brentford
Hounslow
Staines
Chertsey
Egham
Bagshot
Windsor Forest
Reading
Henley upon Thames
Wallingford
Abingdon
Oxford
Woodstock
Chipping Norton
Banbury
Daventry
Northampton
Towcester
Stony Stratford
Buckingham
Aylesbury
Wendover
Amersham
Chesham
Berkhamstead
Hemel Hempstead
St. Albans
Hertford
Ware
Hoddesdon
Waltham
Epping
Barking
Romford
Brentwood
Billericay
Chelmsford
Braintree
Halstead
Sudbury
Bury
Thetford
Swaffham
Lynn
Downham
Wisbech
Peterborough
Stamford
Oakham
Uppingham
Melton Mowbray
Loughborough
Leicester
Ashby de la Zouch
Burton upon Trent
Lichfield
Tamworth
Coventry
Warwick
Kenilworth
Stratford upon Avon
Evesham
Worcester
Droitwich
Bromsgrove
Kidderminster
Stourbridge
Dudley
Birmingham
Sutton Coldfield
Tamworth
Atherstone
Nuneaton
Hinckley
Bosworth
Market Harborough
Kettering
Wellingborough
Higham Ferrers
Rushden
Thrapston
Oundle
Huntingdon
St. Ives
St. Neots
Biggleswade
Baldock
Hitchin
Royston
Buntingford
Ware
Hertford
Hatfield
Barnet
Edgware
Harrow
Uxbridge
Watford
Rickmansworth
Amersham
Wycombe
Thame
Watlington
Henley upon Thames
Reading
Basingstoke
Alton
Farnham
Godalming
Guildford
Dorking
Epsom
Kingston upon Thames
Croydon
Bromley
Sevenoaks
Tonbridge
Tunbridge Wells
Cranbrook
Tenterden
Romney
Hythe
Folkestone
Dover
Canterbury
Faversham
Sittingbourne
Rochester
Gravesend
Dartford
Greenwich
Deptford
Lambeth
Westminster
London
Southwark
Kensington
Hammersmith
Chiswick
Richmond
Kew
Twickenham
Hampton Court
Esher
Cobham
Woking
Chertsey
Staines
Egham
Bagshot
Windsor Forest
Ascot
Maidenhead
Marlow
Great Marlow
High Wycombe
Aylesbury
Tring
Berkhamstead
Hemel Hempstead
St. Albans
Barnet
Enfield
Edmonton
Tottenham
Hackney
Islington
Clerkenwell
Holborn
St. Giles
Bloomsbury
Marylebone
Paddington
Chelsea
Fulham
Putney
Wandsworth
Battersea
Clapham
Streatham
Croydon
Lambeth
Southwark
Bermondsey
Rotherhithe
Limehouse
Poplar
Stepney
Shoreditch
Finsbury
Clerkenwell
Holborn
St. Giles
Bloomsbury
Marylebone
Paddington
Kensington
Hammersmith
Chiswick
Brentford
Hounslow
Uxbridge
Harrow
Edgware

Leeds

John and Mary Routh Married July 12th 1806

Mary Routh Daughter of John and Mary Routh Born April 25 day at 2 Minits past One a clock 1807

Mary Routh Died May 23rd at half past three a Clock Aged 2 years 3 mths And 5 Days 1809

Durotriges, Belgæ, Atrebatii, Regni, Cantium Trinobantes, Juni, Caticuchlani, Dobuni, Silures, Dimetæ, Ordovires, Cornavii, Coritain, Brigantes, Ottadini: but they afterwards becoming maſters of it, divided it into the four following provinces: 1. Britannia Prima, comprehending the ſouthern parts of England. 2. Britannia Secunda, comprehending the weſtern parts, and Wales. 3. Maxima Cæſarienſis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, and ſometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde. 4. Flavia Cæſarienſis, compriſing the middle counties. To each of theſe tribes a certain number of counties were allotted, with their chief cities.

When the Saxons invaded England, about the year 450, and when they were eſtabliſhed in the year 582, they divided the iſland into ſeven unequal parts, called kingdoms, generally ſtiled the Saxon heptarchy; each leader appropriating to himſelf the parts he had conquered, which are as follow:

1. Kent, founded by Hengiſt, in 457, and ended in 823. 2. South Saxons, founded by Elli, in 491, and ended in 600. 3. Eaſt Angles, founded by Uffa, in 575, and ended in 793. 4. Weſt Saxons, founded by Cerdic, in 512, and ended in 1060. 5. Northumberland, found by Ida, in 547, and ended in 792. 6. Eaſt Saxons, founded by Erchewin, in 527, and ended in 746. 7. Mercia, founded by Cridda, in 582, and ended in 874.

The great Alfred divided England into counties; and, ſince the Norman conqueſt, it has been divided into ſix circuits, each circuit containing a certain number of counties. Two judges are appointed for each circuit, which they viſit annually, in order to adminiſter juſtice to the inhabitants of each reſpective country, without the trouble and expence that muſt attend their coming to the capital. They are as follow:

1. The Home Circuit contains the Counties of Eſſex, Hertford, Kent, Surry, and Suſſex.

2. Norfolk Circuit contains Bucks, Bedford, Huntingdon, Cambridge, Suffolk, and Norfolk.

3. Oxford Circuit contains Oxon, Berks, Glouceſter, Worceſter, Monmouth, Hereford, Salop, and Stafford.

3. Midland Circuit contains Warwick, Leiceſter, Derby, Nottingham, Lincoln, Rutland, and Northampton.

5. Weſtern Circuit contains Hants, Wilts, Dorſet, Somerſet, Devon, and Cornwall.

6. Northern Circuit contains York, Durham, Northumberland, Lancaſter, Weſtmoreland, and Cumberland. In the Lent or Spring Aſſizes, the Northern Circuits extend only to York and Lancaſter; the aſſizes at Durham, Newcaſtle, Appleby, and Caliſle, being held only in the autumn, and diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the *long circuit*.

Middleſex and Cheſhire are not comprehended in the above circuits; the former being the ſeat of the ſupreme courts of juſtice, and the latter a county palatine. The ſame may be ſaid of Wales.

The chief governors of all theſe counties were formerly impowered by charter to adminiſter juſtice as abſolutely as the king himſelf. There is ſtill a court of chancery in Lancaſter and Durham, with a chancellor; and there is a court of exchequer at Cheſter, of a mixed kind, both for law and equity, of which the chamberlain of Cheſter is judge: there are alſo other juſtices in the counties palatine to determine civil actions and pleas of the crown.

Circuits of Wales.—1. North-Eaſt Circuit contains the Counties of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery.

1. North-Weſt Circuit contains Angleſey, Caernarvon, and Merioneth.

3. South-Eaſt Circuit contains Radnor, Brecon, and Glamorgan.

4. South-Weſt Circuit contains Pembroke, Cardigan, and Caermarthen.

IN ENGLND.

40	Counties, which ſend members to parliament	80 knights.
25	Cities (Ely none, London 4.)	50 citizens.
167	Boroughs, two each	334 burgeſſes.
5	Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham, Ferrars, & Monmouth) on each	5 burgeſſes.
2	Univerſities	4 repreſentat.
8	Cinque ports (Haſtings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelſea, & Seaford) two each	16 Barons.

WALES.

12	Counties	12 knights.
12	Boroughs (Pembroke 2, Merioneth none) one each	12 burgeſſes.

SCOTLAND.

33	Shires	30 knights.
67	Cities and boroughs	15 burgeſſes.
	Total of the Britiſh Houſe of Commons	558

Beſides the fifty-two counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, conſiſting of certain diſtricts, to which the liberties and juriſdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county diſtinct from Middleſex; the cities of York, Cheſter, Briſtol, Exeter, Norwich, Worceſter, and the towns of Kingſton-upon-Hull, and Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, are counties of themſelves, diſtinct from thoſe in which they lie. The ſame may be ſaid of Berwick-upon-Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and has within its juriſdiction a ſmall territory of two miles on the north ſide of the river.

The ſoil of England differs in almoſt every county; but the great perfection to which the art of agriculture is arrived, has meliorated the very worſt, and improved the beſt eſtates in England. Many of the large moors and marſhy tracts have been drained, and inſtead of weeds and traſh, produce excellent corn and graſs. Many vegetables, formerly cultivated only in gardens, are now introduced into the fields, and raiſed in amazing plenty by the Engliſh farmers. The quantity of wheat, barley, rye, oats, peas, beans, and vetches, produced every year in this country, is very great. Nor does any nation exceed this in the productions of the garden, which have come to ſuch perfection, that the rareſt of foreign fruits have been cultivated here with ſucceſs; as a proof of which it need only be mentioned, that London and its neighbourhood, though peopled by 1,000,000 inhabitants, is plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of fruits and vegetables from grounds within twelve miles diſtance. The ſoil of England ſeems to be particularly adapted for rearing oak and other kinds of timber; and the plantations of trees round the houſes of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peaſants, are delightful and aſtoniſhing.

It is chiefly owing to the variable quality of the air that the ſeaſons are extremely uncertain; but the greateſt irregularity, and moſt unfavourable appearances of them, are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very ſeldom with ſcarcity. A fortnight, or at moſt three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits

of the earth, in backward ſeaſons, and the inhabitants rarely ſuffer by a hot ſummer.

Several parts of England are ſupplied with excellent ſprings and fountains, though they frequently contain ſome mineral impregnation. In ſome very high lands, the inhabitants are diſtreſſed for water, and ſupply themſelves by trenches, or digging deep wells. England contains many mineral wells, as celebrated for their ſalubrity as perhaps any country in the world. The moſt diſtinguiſhed are the hot baths of Bath and Briſtol in Somerſetſhire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyſhire; the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epſom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough.

There are few mountains in England, though it abounds with delightful riſing grounds, and the moſt enchanting ſlopes covered with a ſmooth ſurf of the fineſt graſs; which, together with its level plains, meadows, corn-fields, woods and waters, flocks of ſheep, and herds of cattle, intermingled in the moſt agreeable manner, form landſcapes equal to the moſt luxuriant imagination. The moſt noted mountains in England are, the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Wolds and Black Mountains in Yorkſhire, the Endle and Wulf Cragg in Lancaſter, the Cheviot-Hill and Racy-Fall, on the borders of Scotland; Woodbery, and the Malvern-Hills in Worceſterſhire, the Brythen, Malagerin, and Wrekin in Shropſhire, Cotſwold in Glouceſter, Dover-Cliffs in Kent, Beachy-Head, and the South-Downs in Suſſex, White-Cliff, the Needles, and St. Catherine's, in the Iſle of Wight. The principal mountains in Wales are, Snowdon, Plinlimmon, Eltid, Penmallard, Manuchdeny, Dervaddo, Talſern, Carreg Wem, Brong, Trecaſtle, Moyddon, Keven-y-Gaer, and the Black Mountains.

The principal rivers in England are, the Thames, the Medway, the Severn, the Trent, the Ouſe, the Tyne, the Tees, the Tweed, the Lower Avon, the Derwent, the Ribble, the Merſy, and the Dee.

The Thames riſes on the confines of Glouceſterſhire, a little ſouth weſt of Cirenceſter; and, after receiving the many tributary ſtreams of other rivers, it paſſes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windſor. From thence to Kingſton, where formerly it met the tide, which, ſince the building of Weſtminſter-bridge, is ſaid to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Eſſex, it widens in its progreſs, till it falls into the ſea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ſhips to London-bridge. It was formerly a reproach to England among foreigners, that ſo capital a river ſhould have ſo few bridges; thoſe of London and Kingſton being the only two it had, from the Nore to the laſt-mentioned place, for many ages. This inconveniency was in ſome meaſure owing to the dearneſs of materials for building ſtone bridges, but perhaps more to the fondneſs which the Engliſh, in former days, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The great increaſe of riches, commerce, and inland trade, is now multiplying bridges; and the world cannot parallel, for commodiouſneſs, architecture, and workmanſhip, thoſe lately erected at Weſtminſter and Black Friars. Batterſea, Putney, Kew, Richmond, Walton, and Hampton court, have now bridges likewiſe over the Thames, and others are projecting by public-ſpirited proprietors of the grounds on both ſides.

The river Medway, which riſes near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerneſs, and is navigable for the largeſt ſhips as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the ſecond river for importance in England, and the firſt for rapidity, riſes at Plinlimmon-hill, in North Wales; becomes navigable at Welſhpool; runs eaſt to Shrewſbury; then turning ſouth, viſits Bridgnorth, Worceſter, and Tewkeſbury; where it receives the Upper Avon; after having paſſed Glouceſter, it takes a ſouth-weſt direction; is, near its mouth, increaſed by the Wye and Uſtre, and diſcharges itſelf into the Briſtol Channel, near King-road, where lie the great ſhips which cannot get up to Briſtol. The Trent riſes in the Moorlands of Staffordſhire, and running ſouth-eaſt by Newcaſtle-under-Line, divides that county into two parts; then turning north-eaſt on the confines of Derbyſhire, viſits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnſhire, and being joined by the Ouſe and ſeveral other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the ſea ſouth-eaſt of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England are, the Ouſe (a Gaëlic word ſignifying *water* in general), which falls into the Humber after receiving the waters of many other rivers. Another Ouſe riſes in Bucks, and falls into the ſea near Lynn, in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from weſt to eaſt through Northumberland, and falls into the German ſea at Tinmouth, below Newcaſtle. The Tees runs from weſt to eaſt, dividing Durham from Yorkſhire, and falls into the German ſea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from weſt to eaſt, on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German ſea at Berwick. The Eden runs from ſouth to north through Weſtmoreland and Cumberland, and paſſing by Carliſle, falls into Solway Frith, below that city. The Lower Avon runs weſt through Wiltſhire to Bath, and then dividing Somerſetſhire from Glouceſterſhire, runs to Briſtol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent runs from eaſt to weſt through Cumberland, and paſſing by Cockermouth, falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below. The Ribble runs from eaſt to weſt through Lancaſhire, and paſſing by Preſton, diſcharges itſelf into the Iriſh ſea. The Merſey runs from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt through Cheſhire, and then dividing Cheſhire from Lancaſhire, paſſes by Liverpool, and falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below that town. And the Dee riſes in Wales, and divides Flintſhire from Cheſhire, falling into the Iriſh channel below Cheſter.

There are but very few lakes in England; the principal are Soham-Mere, Wittleſea-Mere, and Ramſay-Mere, in the Iſle of Ely in Cambridgeſhire, and Winander-Mere in Weſtmoreland. Wittleſea-Mere, which is much the largeſt of thoſe in the Iſle of Ely, is about three miles in length, and one and a half in breadth; but when the fens are over-flowed in a rainy ſeaſon, the whole forms one vaſt lake, near 40 miles in circumference. Winander-Mere is ten miles in length from north to ſouth, and two miles in breadth from eaſt to weſt. There are ſeveral ſmall iſlands in it; the bottom is one continued rock.

England formerly contained no fewer than 39 foreſts; of which the principal now remaining are thoſe of Windſor, Epping, Dean, Sherwood, New Foreſt, Exmoor. There were in this country large woods, if not foreſts of cheſnut-trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purpoſe of building, as appears from many great houſes ſtill ſtanding, in which the cheſnut-beams and roofs remain ſtill freſh and undecayed, though ſome of them are above 600 years old. But the whole kingdom is ſo ſhaded by trees and plantations as give it almoſt the appearance of one continued foreſt.

The moſt conſiderable mineral produced in England is tin; and Cornwall has been famous for producinging it ever ſince the Phœnicians traded to Great-Britain. Since the Engliſh have found the method of manufacturing their tin into plates and white iron, their mines have become of immenſe benefit to the nation. An ore, called Mundic, is found in the beds of tin, which was little regarded, till Sir Gilbert Clark diſcovered the art of manufacturing it; and it is ſaid now to bring in 150,000l. a year, and to equal in goodneſs the beſt Spaniſh copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris,

laminaris, for making braſs. Thoſe tin works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the ſtannary laws, and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Corniſh miners are ſaid to amount to 100,000. Free-ſtone is plentiful in Derbyſhire, and marble in the neighbourhood of Plymouth. Immenſe quantities of coals are dug out of the pits in Northumberland, Cumberland, Weſtmoreland, and the biſhoprick of Durham. The exportation of coals to other countries is a valuable article, and this trade furniſhes a great number of ſeamen for government ſervice. Northumberland and Cheſhire produce a great deal of alum and ſalt; and the kingdom abounds with fullers earth, which being of the utmoſt importance to the cloth manufactory, its exportation is prohibited under ſevere penalties.

The vegetable and animal productions of England are very numerous, and excellent in their kind. Indeed, the improvements in agriculture have been ſo many, and made in ſo rapid a manner, that the value of lands, in ſeveral parts of England, has been trebled within a few years. Noblemen, and gentlemen of the greateſt property in the kingdom, have nobly lent their aſſiſtance to the improvement of this uſeful art. Several ſocieties are founded for the ſame laudable purpoſe; and the example, intereſt, and great weight of the nobility and gentry, have, in a great meaſure, prevailed with the farmers, to alter their method of cultivation. Hence agriculture is every day making large ſtrides towards perfection; and corn, and other uſeful vegetables, are raiſed on ſoils formerly thought incapable of cultivation.

The ſoil of England ſeems friendly to many ſpecies of timber: the aſh, the elm, the beech, and the fir, flouriſh equally with the oak; and beſides theſe, here are plenty of walnut-trees, poplars, maples, ſycamores, horn-beams, hazles, willows, birch-trees, and many other ſpecies. Prodigious plantations of hops are ſeen in Kent, Surry, and Hampſhire; and the fineſt ſaffron in the world is raiſed in Eſſex, Suffolk, and Cambridgeſhire. Hemp and flax are alſo cultivated in ſome counties, and madder and woad for dyeing, in others. The artificial graſſes, particularly lucern, ſaintfoin, trefoil, cinquefoil, and clover, are now ſown to great advantage. The orchards of England, particularly thoſe of Herefordſhire, Devonſhire, Worceſterſhire, and Kent, produce incredible quantities of apples, pears, and cherries; and the cyder and perry made from the apples and pears in ſome counties, are equal to the French white wines.

Gardening is alſo carried to very great perfection in England: there is hardly a plant in the known world but may be found in ſome of the gardens of the curious. Even the fruits of the torrid zone are here brought to perfection. The pine-apple, formerly ſo difficult to be met with, is now plentifully produced in almoſt every gentleman's garden in England. Apricots, peaches, nectarines, plums, gooſeberries, currants, and raſpberries, are ſo common, that the bare mentioning their names muſt be ſufficient: in ſhort, the Engliſh gardeners are ſuch maſters of horticulture, that they perform things almoſt incredible; roſes and other flowers, fully and finely blown at Chriſtmas, are not uncommon in ſome of their gardens; cherries and other fruits, fully ripe, are alſo produced in that dreary ſeaſon. The common gardens, even thoſe of the peaſants, abound with all ſorts of greens, roots, and ſalads in perfection, particularly, artichokes, aſparagus, cauli-flowers, cabbages, coleworts, broccoli, peas, beans, kidney-beans, ſpinach, lettuce, celery, endive, muſhrooms, turnips, carrots, potatoes, radiſhes, leeks, onions, ſhallots, &c.

With regard to the animal productions of England, the horſe ſtands foremoſt. That noble and generous animal is found in this country in great perfection: indeed, all the valuable qualities of the Arabian, the Turkiſh, the Spaniſh, and other foreign horſes, are united in that of England, owing to the incredible pains taken by all ranks of men, for improving the ſpecies. Vaſt numbers of horſes are bred in England, and ſo many ſold into foreign countries, that their exportation is now become a conſiderable branch of commerce. The ſtrength, courage, ſwiftneſs, and intrepidity of the Engliſh horſe is ſo well known on the continent of Europe, that every prince is deſirous of having them in his army. Thoſe which draw equipages in the ſtreets of London are often particularly beautiful.

The Engliſh oxen are large and fat, and their fleſh has a delicious flavour, though ſome prefer that of the ſmall breed of Wales and Scotland. The ſheep are of two kinds, one bred on the Downs, and upland paſtures, and the other in the low lands of Eſſex and Lincolnſhire: the fleſh of the former is preferred, and the fleeces of the latter. Wool is one of the moſt valuable articles of the produce of this country, and conſtitutes the original ſtaple commodity of England. The fleeces of the Lincolnſhire ſpecies of ſheep are remarkably large, and it has been computed, upon very rational principles, that above twelve millions of fleeces are annually manufactured in England.

The Engliſh maſtiffs and bull-dogs, are ſaid to be far ſuperior to thoſe of any other country, both with regard to ſtrength and courage. They will engage any animal, and generally come off victorious. Two of theſe dogs being, by order of king James I. turned looſe upon one of the moſt dreadful lions in the Tower, they laid him on his back; but a ſtill more ſurpriſing circumſtance attending theſe creatures, is, that this innate courage degenerates in foreign countries. Nor is this change peculiar to theſe dogs; the ſame is obſerved with regard to the Engliſh game-cocks, ſo famous here for their ferocity and courage. The reſt of the animals of England are nearly the ſame with thoſe of other countries, as aſſes, mules, deer, hares, rabbits, hogs, foxes, ſquirrels, cats, ferrets, weazles, newts, otters, badgers, hedge-hogs, pole-cats, rats, mice, moles, &c.

Poultry of all kinds are here in great plenty and perfection, as turkies, peacocks, geeſe, ſwans, common poultry, of various kinds, ducks, and tame pigeons. England alſo abounds in different ſorts of wild fowl, as buſtards, wild geeſe, brent geeſe, wild ducks, wigeon, teel, pheaſants, plovers, partridges, woodcocks, quails, ſnipes, landrails, wood-pigeons, hawks, buzzards, kites, owls, ravens, herens, crows, rooks, jackdaws, magpies, jays, thruſhes, blackbirds, nightingales, goldfinches, bullfinches, larks, linnets, and a prodigious variety of ſmall birds; among which is the wheat-ear, a bird peculiar to England, the fleſh of which is by many preferred to that of the ortolan, and is reckoned a great delicacy.

Few countries in the world can boaſt of greater variety of fiſh. The rivers and ponds abound in ſalmon, trout, eels, pike, carp, tench, barble, perch, gudgeons, ſmelts, roach, dace, plaice, flounders, and craw-fiſh. In ſome of the lakes or meers of Cumberland and Wales, is found a very delicate fiſh called a char; it is of the trout kind, and thought to be peculiar to England. The ſeas which ſurround the kingdom are full of cod, mackerel, mullets, baſe, guard-fiſh, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, ſkaite, turbot, ſoles, hallibuts, and, what are preferred to all others by the voluptuous, John Doris, and red mullets. Shell-fiſh are alſo found in plenty, as lobſters, crabs, prawns, ſhrimps, oyſters eſcallops, cockles, muſcles, wilks, periwinkles, &c. The coaſts are ſometimes viſited by whales, and by a vaſt number of porpoiſes; in ſome parts a few ſeals are ſeen upon the rocks, but not frequently. The principal reptiles of this country are adders, vipers, ſnakes, and worms; the inſects are, bees, humble-bees, hornets, waſps, beetles, ants, gnats, flies in great variety, and many other ſmall inſects common to other parts of Europe.

With

With reſpect to the population of England, political calculations muſt be very fallible; which is owing to the prodigious influx of foreigners hither, the emigrations of inhabitants to America and the iſlands, their return from thence, and the great number of hands employed in ſhipping. It will appear that England muſt be extremely populous, when we conſider, that the war with France and Spain, before the laſt, annually employed about 200,000 Engliſhmen, excluſive of Scots and Iriſh, by ſea and land, and its progreſs carried off, by various means, near that number. The decay of population was indeed ſenſibly felt, but not ſo much as it was during the wars in queen Ann's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the ſea and land ſervice. If, with ſome, we calculate the inhabitants from the number of houſes in England, which are reckoned at near a million, and allow only ſeven or eight perſons to each houſe, there will then appear to be ſeven millions, or perhaps more. Some, however, will ſuppoſe this to be too large a calculation.

Engliſhmen, in their perſons, are generally well-ſized, regularly featured, rather fair than otherwiſe, and florid in their complexions. It is, however, to be preſumed that the vaſt number of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives, have given a caſt to their perſons and complexions, different from thoſe of their anceſtors 150 years ago. The women, in their ſhape, features, and complexion, appear ſo graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But beſide the external graces ſo peculiar to the women in England, they are ſtill more to be valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanlineſs, and a tender affection for their huſbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domeſtic life.

Their nerves are ſo remarkably delicate, that they are ſuſceptible of the leaſt impreſſion, and are often very ſtrongly, too frequently mortally, affected by imagination only. They feel the whole weight of the evils they fear, and ſometimes ſink beneath the burden of mental ſuggeſtions. Yet, when real danger approaches, they meet it with aſtoniſhing intrepidity and conſtancy of mind. Fearleſs of death, becauſe they prefer it to ſlavery, they advance againſt the enemy in the field with a noble alacrity, and ſtand the moſt violent attacks with unſhaken firmneſs. The Engliſh ſeamen, are confeſſedly more active, ſkilful, and intrepid, than any other mariners in the world.

The humanity of the Engliſh is diſcovered in nothing more than in the large ſubſcriptions for public charities raiſed by all degrees of both ſexes. An Engliſhman feels all the pains which a fellow-creature ſuffers; and poor and miſerable objects are relieved in England with the greateſt liberality.

The honour and integrity of the Engliſh merchants in their dealings are known in every part of the commercial world. The word of an eminent merchant is conſidered as ſufficient for any ſum of money; and many thouſand pounds worth of goods are every day bought and ſold on the Royal Exchange, without any other ſecurity. But this ingenuous method of carrying on their commerce, too often lays them open to the arts of deſigning men.

The works of the Engliſh mechanics are ſuperior to thoſe of the ſame kind of any other handicrafts-men in Europe. They are not indeed famous for invention, but they never fail of improving upon thoſe of others. Nor is this want of invention general; many of the Engliſh artiſts excel in both, and ſome of the moſt capital diſcoveries of the laſt and preſent centuries owe their birth to the inhabitants of this country: among which may be reckoned the ſteam-engine, the horizontal watch, the quickſilver and gridiron pendulums, the artificial magnets, the ſpeculum top, the quadrant for taking the ſun's altitude at ſea by reflection, &c. &c. No people in the world think ſo cloſely as the Engliſh upon any ſubject. Bleſſed with a clear apprehenſion, and fearleſs of difficulties, they fix the attention on a ſingle point, and purſue it with aſtoniſhing perſeverance.

The diverſions and paſtimes of the Engliſh people may be divided into thoſe of the town and country; and again ſubdivided into the higher and lower claſes of people. The diverſions of the town are operas, ridottos, maſquerades, concerts of muſic, theatrical performances, and card aſſemblies, for perſons of faſhion. The paſtimes of the country, are horſe-races, ſtag, fox, and hare hunting. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diverſion, though without anſwering the ſelfiſh purpoſes of the rich: for the farmers and country people deſtroy the game in their neſts, which they dare not kill with their gun. A ſpirit of gaming prevails with ſuch violence at a horſe-race, that one would imagine all the ſpectators were actually poſſeſſed. Hunting is the ſport of country gentlemen; and thoſe whom the world diſtinguiſh by the appellation of fox-hunters ſeem to be infatuated with the diverſion. The common people have likewiſe their town and country paſtimes, which they enjoy with great eagerneſs. Among theſe we number cock-fighting (that diſgrace to humanity,) cudgeling, wreſtling, duck-hunting, bowls, ſkittles, or nine-pins, archery, priſon-bars, cricket, ſhuffle-board, quoits, divers games of chance, and ſpectacles of various kinds, ſuch as tumbling, balancing, vaulting, feats of legerdemain, bear and bull-baiting, aſs races, collections of wild beaſts, muſic, dancing, drolls, puppet-ſhews, and the Gothic diverſion of bell-ringing.

In the dreſs of both ſexes, before the preſent reign of George III. they followed the French: but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majeſty. The Engliſh, at preſent, bid fair to be the dictators of dreſs to the French themſelves, at leaſt with regard to elegance, neatneſs, and richneſs of attire. People of quality and fortune, of both ſexes, appear, ou high occaſions, in cloth of gold and ſilver, the richeſt brocades, ſatins, ſilks, and velvets, both flowered and plain: and it is to the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all theſe are diſcouraged. Some of theſe rich ſtuffs are ſaid to be brought to as great perfection in England as they are in France, or any other nation. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occaſions are incredible, eſpecially ſince the vaſt acquiſitions of the Engliſh in the Eaſt-Indies. The ſame nobility, and perſons of diſtinction, on ordinary occaſions, dreſs like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the fineſt cloth and the beſt of linen. The full dreſs of a clergyman conſiſts of his gown, caſſock, ſcarf, beaver-hat and roſe, all of black; his undreſs is a dark-grey frock, and plain linen. The phyſicians, the formality of whoſe dreſs, in large tie perukes, and ſwords, was formerly remarkable if not ridiculous, begin now to dreſs like other gentlemen and men of buſineſs. Few Engliſhmen, tradeſmen, merchants, and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without ſome paſſion for the ſports of the field; on which occaſions, they dreſs with remarkable propriety in a light frock, narrow-brimmed hat, &c. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; but ſince the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, the dreſſes at court, on particular occaſions, are ſuperb beyond deſcription. In ſhort, none but the moſt abandoned of both ſexes are meanly dreſſed.

Chriſtianity, according to Euſebius, was planted in England by the apoſtles and their diſciples, and this country and our anceſtors are ſuppoſed to have been viſited by the apoſtle St. Paul, whoſe diligence, zeal, and fortitude were abundant. After a long interval of ignorance and ſuperſtition, John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward

ward III. has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion, and boldly refuted thoſe erroneous doctrines which had prevailed ſo many ages; ſince his time, the eſtabliſhed religion in England approaches nearer to the primitive Chriſtianity, being equally removed from ſuperſtition and indelicacy in its worſhip, and as void of bigotry as of licentiouſneſs in its practice.

The conſtitution of the church is epiſcopal, and it is governed by biſhops, each of whom, as a temporal baron, has a ſeat and vote in the Houſe of Peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold; but in many places their tythes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The clergy of the church of England, are at preſent in a moſt flouriſhing ſituation, becauſe the value of their tythes increaſes with the improvements of lands, which of late have been great. The government of the church is veſted in two archbiſhops, and twenty-four biſhops, beſides the biſhop of Sodor and Man, who, not being poſſeſſed of an Engliſh barony, does not ſit in the houſe. The two archbiſhops are thoſe of Canterbury and York, who are both addreſſed by the appellation of "Your Grace." The former is the firſt peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the Engliſh church. He takes precedence, next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of ſtate. Beſides his own dioceſe, he has under him the biſhops of London, Winchеſter, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath and Wells, Saliſbury, Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouceſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol, and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Aſaph, and Bangor. The annual income of the twenty-ſix biſhops, is ſuppoſed to be 72,000 pounds. The biſhoprics of London, Durham, and Winchеſter, take precedency of all others, and the reſt according to the ſeniority of their conſecration.

There are moreover, 28 Cathedrals, 26 Deans, 60 Archdeacons, and 544 Prebends, Canons, &c. Beſides theſe there are in all about 300 in orders belonging to the different Cathedrals, and about 800 Lay-officers, ſuch as ſinging men, organiſts, &c. who are all paid from the Cathedral emoluments; ſo that there are about 1700 perſons attached to the ſeveral Cathedrals.

There is a dean and chapter in every cathedral church. The dean is inſtalled by virtue of the king's letters-patent; and the chapter conſiſts of a certain number of prebends.

Other miniſters of the church are deans, archdeacons, rectors, or vicars, deacons and curates.

There are about 18,100 clergymen in England and Wales, of the eſtabliſhed religion, and near 10,000 pariſhes. The Rectories are 5,098; the Vicarages 3,687; the livings of other deſcriptions 2,970; in all 11,755.

The convocation is the higheſt eccleſiaſtical court; the clergy formerly had the greateſt power in this court, which was always ſummoned at the meeting of parliament, and continued ſitting during the whole ſeſſion: but having filled the nation with diſorder by their violent debates, they were diſſolved by royal prerogative in the beginning of the reign of George I. and have not been allowed to ſit long enough to tranſact any buſineſs ſince that period. The convocation is divided into two houſes; the higher houſe, in the province of Canterbury, conſiſting of twenty-two prelates, the archbiſhop being preſident; the lower houſe is compoſed of all the deans, archdeacons, and proctors, amounting in all to 166. The archbiſhop of York may hold a convocation of his own province in the ſame manner, and, by means of a regular correſpondence with the other, debate and determine the ſame queſtions which are canvaſſed in the ſynod of Canterbury; though the tranſactions and determinations of one convocation is not determined by thoſe of the other.

The next is the court of arches, ſo called from the arched church and tower of St. Mary-le-Bow, in London, where it was formerly held; it is the moſt ancient conſiſtory of the province of Canterbury, and to this, all appeals from the judgment of inferior eccleſiaſtical courts are uſually made. The judge, who is diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of dean of the arches, ſits without any aſſeſſors, and determines cauſes without a jury. He takes cognizance of appeals, in eccleſiaſtical matters, within the province of Canterbury; and all proceſſes are returnable before him in the common hall of Doctors-Commons. The pleaders and ſolicitors of this court are called advocates and proctors; the former are doctors of the civil law, and, by the ſtatutes of the court, the pleadings and petitions ought to be both in Latin.

Other eccleſiaſtical courts are, the court of audience, which has nearly the ſame authority with the preceding, and to this the archbiſhop's chancery was formerly joined: the prerogative court, wherein wills are proved, and adminiſtrations granted: the court of peculiars, relating to certain pariſhes, which have a juriſdiction among themſelves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the biſhop's courts: and the court of delegates, which receives its name from conſiſting of commiſſioners delegated or appointed by the royal commiſſion; but it is no ſtanding court. Biſhops, archdeacons, and the dean and chapter of every cathedral, have each their reſpective courts; thoſe of the former are called conſiſtory courts.

The church of England is more tolerant than any other national church, with reſpect to its principles. Moderation being its governing character, no religious ſect here is prevented from worſhipping God in that manner which their conſciences approve. Hence, ſince the reformation, a number of ſects have ariſen under the ſeveral denominations of Puritans, or Preſbyterians, Independents, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, Quakers, &c.

The Puritans were originally Calviniſts, who made their firſt appearance in the reign of queen Elizabeth, when ſome biſhops, many of the laity of diſtinction, and numbers of the common people, having joined them, the church and ſtate both took the alarm, and endeavoured, in vain, to ſuppreſs them. Theſe Diſſenters had no diſtinct form either of diſcipline or worſhip, but every preacher was left to his own diſcretion. They affirmed, that their ſcheme of religion was more pure and unexceptionable than any other; and oppoſed the liturgy and authority of the biſhips with great force of argument, alledging, that theſe differed but little from the church of Rome, and they thought themſelves obliged to conform to the plan of Geneva. After ſome time, Cartwright, one of their divines, drew up a body of diſcipline for them, and this book was eſteemed the ſtandard of their public worſhip. This ſect is now better known by the different appellations of Independents and Preſbyterians; of whom the latter form the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland, where their tenets have been more particularly conſidered.

The Baptiſts, or Anabaptiſts, ſprung up in Germany about the year 1521, and were formerly accuſed of many inconſiſtencies and indecencies; but by their confeſſion of faith, publiſhed in 1689, they confuted all thoſe aſperſions, and plainly proved that they did not differ in any material article from other Proteſtant Diſſenters, except in the ſingle one of baptiſm, which they maintain infants are incapable of receiving; and when they adminiſter this ſacrament, which is only to adults, they plunge them entirely under the water.

The Methodiſts may properly be diſtinguiſhed into two claſſes, the followers of the late Mr. George Whitefield, and thoſe of Mr. Weſley. They received the appellation of Methodiſts, at the Univerſity of Oxford, about the year 1736, from a peculiar method

they had adopted there, of living in a very preciſe, abſtemious way, and being much addicted to praying together, reading and expounding the Scriptures, and faſting at particular times appointed by the church. Mr. George Whitefield and his colleagues profeſſed themſelves divines of the church of England; but their main plan was, to revive primitive Chriſtianity, and recommend it, both in faith and practice, to perſons of all denominations. Their preaching was attended with very good effects, in reforming the morals of many of the lower claſs of people. Mr. Whitefield uttered his diſcourſes with great fervour and devotion: he did not ſtrictly adhere to the form of eccleſiaſtical worſhip; and, as he thought that prayers, whether taken from a common-prayer-book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference, he accordingly made uſe of both theſe methods. But this ſect of Methodiſts is now divided, ſome of them acknowledging Mr. Whitefield, and others Mr. John Weſley for their leader. Mr. Weſley and his followers held the Arminian doctrines, in oppoſition to the Calviniſtic, particularly thoſe of election, predeſtination, final perſeverence, &c. Mr. Whitefield died in America, in 1770; but the places of worſhip erected by him are ſtill frequented by perſons of the ſame principles, and they profeſs a great reſpect for his memory. Mr. Weſley died in March 1791, and in the courſe of his miniſtry, which was upwards of 50 years, he occaſioned many places of worſhip to be erected in different parts of the kingdom. He profeſſed himſelf a member of the Church of England; and had in connexion with him, a conſiderable number of preachers, whoſe zeal and ſucceſs in propagating the goſpel is manifeſt by the multitudes that have united with them. They hold a Conference yearly, at which time preachers are examined and admitted; and all matters relating to the ſociety are determined. They have lately ſent miſſionaries to the Weſt-Indies, where many have been converted to chriſtianity. There is alſo another claſs, many years patronized by the late Counteſs of Huntingdon: theſe hold the ſame opinions with the followers of Mr. Whitefield. In their chapels the church of England ſervice, with ſome few omiſſions, is uſed.

The Quakers was founded by George Fox, in the year 1650, who taught that the light within is more ſufficient to guide men to heaven than the holy ſcriptures; but they are now greatly reformed, and pay a great regard to God's word, but ſtill deny the two ſacraments, and all manner of ceremonies. They refuſe to take any oath before a magiſtrate, and therefore are indulged to give their affirmation when called upon as witneſſes. Their worſhip is very abrupt, any perſon riſing up to pray or preach according as he is moved. They pray and then preach, or inſtruct their congregations in all moral duties, and ſpeak continually againſt the modes, vanities, and vices of the age. They are very plain and ſimple in their dreſs, and as for order and diſcipline in governing their different aſſemblies and congregations, and for unity, harmony, and brotherly love, they really exceed any Chriſtian ſect of people or church in the univerſe.

The Roman Catholic religion is ſtill profeſſed by many Roman Catholic families in England, and its exerciſe is under very mild and gentle reſtrictions. Some of the penal laws againſt them have been lately repealed; and they now ſeem to be convinced, that a change of government, inſtead of bettering, would hurt their ſituation, becauſe it would increaſe the jealouſy of the legiſlature; which muſt expoſe them daily to greater burdens and heavier penalties; this conſideration has of late made the Roman Catholics to appear as dutiful and zealous ſubjects as any in his majeſty's dominions.

With reſpect to free-thinkers, deiſts, or infidels, there is abundant reaſon to believe, that this claſs are more numerous in other countries than in England. The writings of the Deiſts againſt Chriſtianity, inſtead of injuring it, have, on the contrary, cauſed the arguments in its favour to be uſed with greater force and clearneſs, and have been the means of producing ſuch clear defences of it, as all the acuteneſs of modern infidels has not been able to overthrow or confute.

Arians, or the followers of Arius, who in the time of Conſtantine the Great, A. C. 315, taught that the Son of God is not equal or conſubſtantial with the Father, but only the firſt of all created beings. His opinion was condemned as heretical by the council of Nice, in A. C. 325; but notwithſtanding this, the Arians infected the Eaſtern churches with their principles, and though they are not a church or ſect of themſelves, yet are they very numerous to this day in ſeveral churches, but particularly in that church, whoſe articles teach them quite the contrary.

Antinomians, a ſect who reject not only the Moſaic law of ceremonies, but aſſert alſo that all manner of good works, ſuch as honeſty, charity, ſobriety, temperance, chaſtity, &c. are of no ſignification, becauſe good or evil works neither forward nor hinder a man in his ſalvation; that our righteouſneſs is already fully complete in the offering of Chriſt, and that whoever believes faithfully that the work of redemption is already finiſhed, it is ſufficient, whatever may be his life and converſation. There are ſeveral leaders of this ſect in London, and the two moſt noted teachers among them were Cudworth, of Oxford-market, and the famous J. Relly, of Coachmaker's-hall, London.

Socinians, are thoſe who follow the doctrine of one Fauſtus Socinus, who taught that Jeſus Chriſt was only mere man, and had no exiſtence before the Virgin Mary.

The Engliſh language is compounded of ſeveral others, and more particularly of Saxon, Celtic, French, and Latin, but the former predominate. It enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expreſſive, than either the French or Italian; more copious than the Spaniſh, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. The inhabitants of different countries vary in the pronouncing it; but this chiefly affects the loweſt claſs of the people. Perſons of fortune and education in England, alſo commonly either ſpeak or underſtand the French, and many of them the Italian and Spaniſh; but foreign nations find great difficulty to underſtand the few Engliſh, who ſpeak Latin, which may perhaps be owing to their not giving the vowels their proper tone, that of the Engliſh and French, &c. being very different in this reſpect.

England may be deemed the ſeat of the Muſes. Alfred the Great cultivated literature at a period when barbariſm and ignorance overſpread the reſt of Europe; nor has there, ſince his time, been wanting a ſucceſſion of learned men, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings or ſtudies. The induſtrious and very learned Leland was the firſt who publiſhed a ſhort collection of thoſe learned perſons who preceded the reign of Henry VIII. among whom he has inſerted ſeveral of the blood royal of both ſexes. Roger Bacon, who lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford about the year 1294, wrote ſeveral treatiſes upon grammar, mathematics, phyſics, the flux and reflux of the Britiſh ſea, optics, geography, aſtronomy, chronology, chemiſtry, logic, metaphyſics, ethics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of knowledge. The memory of ſome noble and royal Engliſh authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muſes, have been preſerved by the Hon. Mr. Walpole. Since the Reformation, England reſembles a galaxy of literature; and cardinal Wolſey greatly contributed to the revival of claſſical learning in England, and, by his example

ample and encouragement, laid the foundation of the polite arts. Edward VI. during his ſhort reign, did a great deal towards promoting learning in general, by encouraging learned foreigners to ſettle in England. During the reign of queen Mary, learning, as well as liberty, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe in England. Elizabeth, her ſiſter, who was herſelf a learned princeſs, advanced many perſons of conſummate abilities to high ranks both in church and ſtate. Though James I. was no great author, yet his example had a conſiderable effect upon his ſubjects; for in his reign flouriſhed thoſe great maſters of polemic divinity, whoſe works are almoſt inexhauſtible mines of knowledge. The ſecond Bacon was by him created viſcount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England; he was likewiſe the patron of Camden, and other hiſtorians, as well as antiquaries; and though he had a very pedantic taſte himſelf, yet Engliſh learning, it muſt be allowed, is under ſome obligation to this prince. Charles I. had a taſte for the polite arts, eſpecially ſculpture, painting, and architecture; he was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artiſts. Charles II. was a great promoter of natural knowledge, eſpecially by the inſtitution of the Royal Society. He loved painting and poetry; and England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in his reign. The incomparable Paradiſe Loſt, by Milton, was publiſhed in his reign, though not read or attended to in proportion to its merit. Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotſon, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway, flouriſhed in his reign. To theſe we may add that celebrated architect, philoſopher, and mechanic, Sir Chriſtopher Wren; alſo ſeveral excellent Engliſh painters. The reign of James II. is chiefly diſtinguiſhed, in the province of literature by ſeveral excellent compoſitions publiſhed by Engliſh divines. Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. Improvements in learning, and all the polite arts was greatly augmented in the reign of queen Ann. Addiſon, Prior, Pope, Swift, Bolingbroke, Shafteſbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in proſe and verſe, need but to be mentioned to be admired: natural and moral philoſophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political diſputes contributed to the advancement of learning. Erudition was patronized by the miniſters of George I. and the reign of his ſon, George II. yielded to none of the preceding in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. After the rebellion in 1745, in the adminiſtration of Mr. Pelham, men of genius began to taſte the royal bounty; ſince which period, a great progreſs has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been inſtituted, ſome very able artiſts have ariſen, and the annual public exhibitions of painting and ſculpture have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a ſpirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general.

In the learned profeſſions, the Engliſh alſo excel. Their courts of juſtice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than thoſe which any other country can boaſt of: a remarkable inſtance of which occurs in the appointments for the laſt 200 years of their lord chancellors, who hold the higheſt and the moſt uncontrollable judicial ſeat in the kingdom, and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that, during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections.

The Engliſh lawyers, though they deal little in Ciceronian eloquence, are well verſed in rhetoric and reaſoning. No nation in the world can produce ſo many examples of true eloquence as the Engliſh ſenate in its two houſes. The ſpeeches made by both parties in parliament of late years, are a ſufficient proo of the abilities of the Britiſh ſenators.

Medicine and ſurgery, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, and all the arts or ſtudies for preſerving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the Engliſh. The ſame may be ſaid of muſic, and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechaniſm are now reduced in England to ſciences, and that too without any public encouragement but ſuch as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who aſſociate themſelves for that purpoſe. The Engliſh hitherto ſtand unrivalled in ſhip-building, clock-work, and the various branches of cutlery.

The two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge are inſtitutions not to be matched in the world, and were reſpected even amidſt the barbarous rage of civil war. Theſe ſeminaries of learning can boaſt of more perſons eminent by their erudition, than any other in Europe; and a degree conferred by either is, in foreign countries, eſteemed more honourable than the ſame degree obtained by any univerſity in Chriſtendom. Their magnificent buildings rival, in ſplendor and architecture, the moſt ſuperb royal edifices; the rich endowments, the liberal eaſe and tranquility enjoyed by thoſe who inhabit them, ſurpaſs all the ideas which foreigners, who viſit them, conceive of literary ſocieties. Each univerſity ſends two members to the Britiſh parliament, and their chancellors and officers have a civil juriſdiction over their ſtudents, the better to ſecure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed thoſe of many other univerſities.

There are twenty colleges, and five halls, in Oxford, the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the ſtudents chiefly maintain themſelves. This univerſity is ſuppoſed to have been a conſiderable place even in the time of the Romans. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philoſophy, and a third for grammar. The number of officers, fellows, and ſcholars, maintained at preſent by the revenues of this univerſity, is about 1000; and the number of ſuch ſcholars as live at their own charge, is uſually about 2000; there are, beſides, a great number of inferior officers and ſervants belonging to the ſeveral colleges and halls. There are four terms every year for public exerciſes, lectures, and diſſertations, and ſet days and hours when the profeſſors of every faculty read their lectures; and in ſome of the colleges are public lectures, to which all perſons are admitted. The liberal foundations of the reſpective colleges have encouraged perſons of extraordinary merit to embrace the academical life.

There are libraries for the uſe of all the colleges; beſides which, there are two public libraries, the univerſity library, and the Radcliffe library. The univerſity library is uſually called the Bodleian library, from Sir Thomas Bodley, its principal founder. It is a large lofty ſtructure, in the form of a Roman H. and is ſaid to contain the greateſt number of books of any library in Europe, except perhaps the Vatican. The original library has been prodigiouſly increaſed by many large and valuable collections of Greek and oriental manuſcripts, as well as other choice and curious books. The Radcliffe library is a ſumptuous pile of building, and was built at the ſole expence of that eminent phyſician, who bequeathed 40,000l. for this purpoſe.

The univerſity of Cambridge conſiſts of ſixteen colleges, four of which are diſtinguiſhed by the name of halls, though the privileges of both are in every reſpect the ſame.

In this univerſity, there are 400 fellows, and 666 ſcholars, with about 236 officers and ſervants of various kinds, who are maintained upon the foundation. Theſe, however, are not all the ſtudents of the univerſity; there are alſo two ſorts of ſtudents called penſioners, the greater and the leſs; the greater

penſioners

penſioners are the ſons of the nobility, and of gentlemen of large fortunes, and are called fellow-commoners, becauſe, though they are ſcholars, they dine with the fellows: the leſſer penſioners dine with the ſcholars that are on the foundation, but live at their own expence. There are alſo a conſiderable number of poor ſcholars, called ſizars, who wait upon the fellows, ſcholars, and penſioners, by whom they are in a great degree maintained; but as the penſioners and ſizars are in a ſtate of perpetual fluctuation, their number cannot be aſcertained.

Trinity-College library at Cambridge is a very mangnificent ſtructure; and in Corpus Chriſti-College library is a valuable collection of ancient manuſcripts, which were preſerved at the diſſolution of monaſteries, and given to this college by archbiſhop Parker. The ſenate-houſe is alſo a moſt elegant edifice, executed entirely in the Corinthian order, and is ſaid to have coſt 16,000l.

"The late Mr. Norris left 9l. a year, for a medal and ſome books, as a premium for the beſt proſe Engliſh eſſay on ſubjects appointed agreeable to the directions contained in his will.

"The eſſays are to be ſent to one of the three ſtewards, who are, the maſter of Trinity-College, the provoſt of King's-College, and the maſter of Caius-College, on or before the 10th day preceding the Sunday in paſſion week 1787, with the names of the reſpective writers, ſealed up.

"Each candidate to be above 20 years of age, and under 30, muſt be, or have been, a ſtudent of the univerſity, and muſt produce a certificate, under the hand of the profeſſor, that he has attended twenty lectures in the courſe of ſome one year. That eſſay to which the prize ſhall be adjudged, muſt be publiſhed by the author within two months from the time of his receiving the medal and books."

In England, there are three royal academies, the firſt is at Woolwich, eſtabliſhed for the ſtudy of the military ſciences and the mathematics, eſpecially thoſe branches which relate to the attack and defence of fortified places. The ſecond royal academy is at Portſmouth, eſtabliſhed for the ſtudy of navigation, and the other ſciences relative to maritime affairs. The third is called the royal academy of painting and ſculpture, eſtabliſhed by his preſent majeſty, who has allotted apartments in Somerſet-Houſe for their reſidence. Beſides theſe, there is a royal obſervatory erected on the ſummit of a ſteep eminence in Greenwich-Park by Charles II. who furniſhed it with the moſt accurate inſtruments neceſſary in aſtronomical obſervations. This obſervatory has been ſucceſſively the reſidence of thoſe celebrated aſtronomers, Mr. Flamſtead, Dr. Halley, and Dr. Bradley. From the firſt, the obſervatory took the name of Flamſtead-Houſe, by which it is now commonly known.

At the head of the inſtitutions formed for the propagation of knowledge, is juſtly placed the royal ſociety, which conſiſts of a preſident, council, and fellows, incorporated by Charles II. and veſted with various privileges and immunities, for the purpoſe of cultivating and improving natural knowledge. They are governed by a body of ſtatutes, and hold weekly meetings for making experiments, diſcourſing on different ſubjects of natural philoſophy, reading papers, receiving letters, and anſwering correſpendents. This is the moſt famous inſtitution of the kind in the world, and can boaſt of many illuſtrious members, whoſe writings have caſt a glorious light on every branch of natural philoſophy.

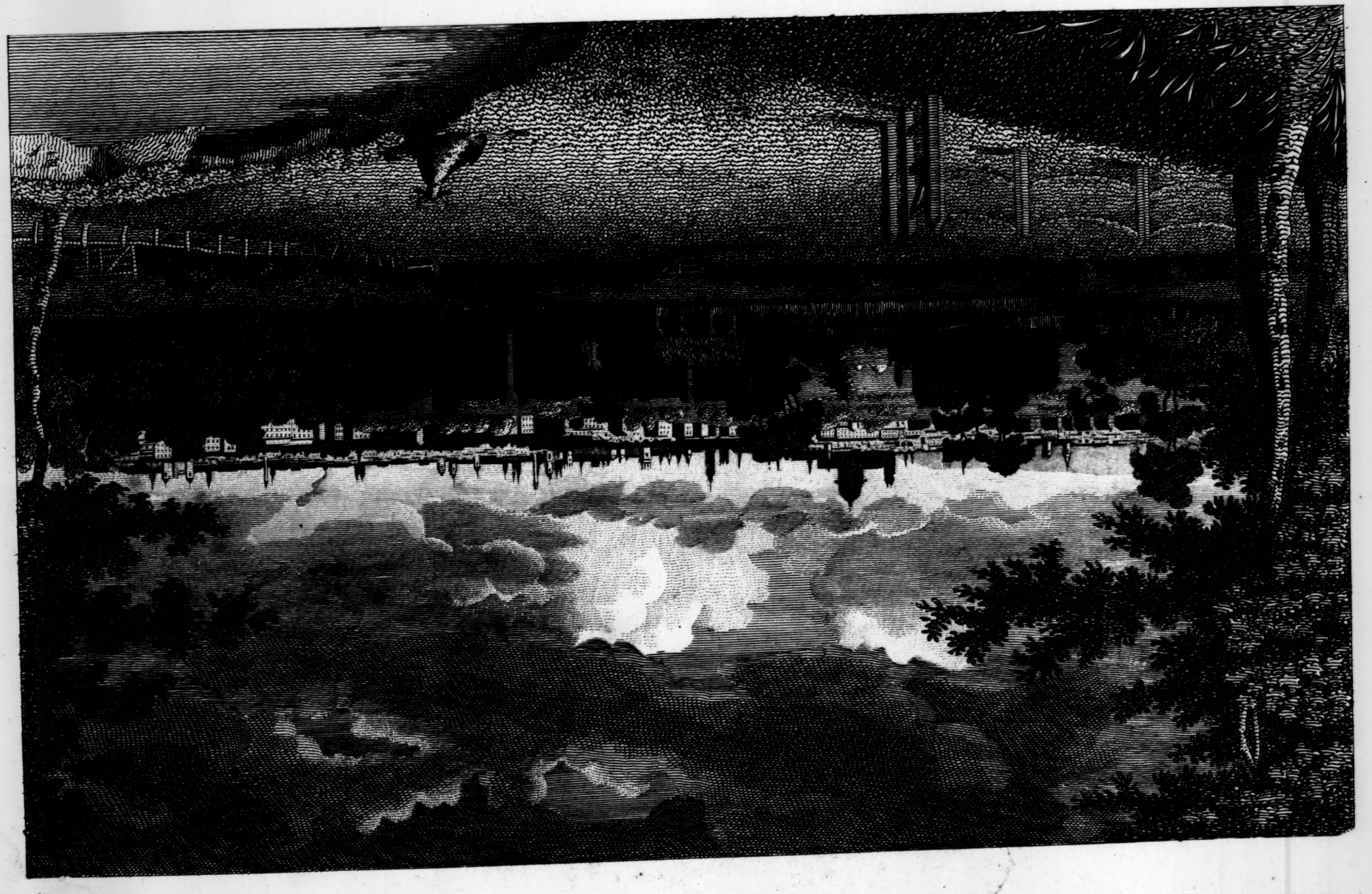
The moſt remarkable natural curioſities of England are thoſe found in Derbyſhire, and known by the appellation of the Wonders of the Peak. The following are the moſt extraordinary: Mam-Tor or Mother-Tower, the name of a mountain in the Peak, which, though it is perpetually mouldering away, and the earth and ſtones are falling from the precipice above in ſuch quantities, as to terrify the neighbouring inhabitants with their noiſe, yet of ſuch an enormous bulk, that the decreaſe is not to be perceived.

Eden-Hole, near Chapel in the Frith, is a vaſt chaſm in the ſide of a mountain, twenty-one feet wide, and more than forty feet long. In this chaſm, or cave, appears the mouth of a pit, the depth of which could never be fathomed. A plummet once drew eight hundred and eighty-four yards, which is ſomething more than half a mile, a line after it, of which the laſt eighty years were wet, but no bottom was found. Several attempts to fathom it have been ſince made, and the plummet has ſtopped at half that depth, owing probably to its reſting on ſome of the protuberances that ſtand out from the ſides. That ſuch protuberances there are, is proved by an experiment conſtantly made, to ſhew its great depth to thoſe that viſit the place, by the poor people attending them, who always throw ſome large ſtones down into it, which are heard to ſtrike againſt the irregularities of the ſides with a fainter and a fainter ſound, which is at length gradually loſt. The earl of Leiceſter, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, hired a poor man to venture down in a baſket, who, after he had deſcended two hundred ells, was drawn up again; but to the great diſappointment of the curious inquirer, he had loſt his ſenſes, and in a few days after died delirious. The cavern in which this pit is found, is contracted within the rock, and water is continually trickling from the top, where it alſo forms ſparry concretions.

Tideſwell is another curioſity of the Peak; it is ſituated near a market-town of the ſame name. The well is about three feet deep, and three feet wide, and the water, at different and uncertain periods of time, ſinks and riſes with a gurgling noiſe, two-thirds of the perpendicular depth of the well. Many conjectures have been formed to account for this phænomenon. Some have thought that in the aqueduct a ſtone ſtands in equilibrio, and produces the riſe and fall of the water, by vibrating backwards and forwards; but it is as difficult to conceive what ſhould produce this vibration at uncertian periods, as what ſhould produce the riſe and fall of the water. Others imagine that theſe irregular ebbings and flowings, as well as the gurgling noiſe, are occaſioned by air which agitates or preſſes the water from the ſubterraneous cavities; but theſe do not inform us what can be ſuppoſed firſt to move the air. Many have imagined the ſpring to be occaſionally ſupplied from the overflowings of ſome ſubterraneous body of water, lying upon a higher level; but whether either of theſe be the true cauſe of this phænomenon, cannot be determined. There are ſeveral ſprings of this kind in various parts of the kingdom.

Pool's-Hole is a large cave, which is ſaid to have taken its name from one Pool, a notorious robber, who ſecreted himſelf here from juſtice; this is another curious cavern in the Peak, and ſituated at the bottom of a lofty mountain, called Coitmoſs, near Buxton. The entrance is by a ſmall arch, ſo very low, that ſuch as venture into it are forced to creep upon their hands and knees, but gradually opens into a vault more than a quarter of a mile long, and, as ſome have pretended, a quarter of a mile high. It is undoubtedly very lofty, and in appearance not unlike the inſide of a Gothic cathedral. In a cavern to the right, called Pool's Chamber, there is a fine echo, and the ſound of a current of water, which runs along the middle of the great vault, being reverberated on each ſide, very much increaſes the aſtoniſhment of thoſe who viſit the place. There are great ridges of ſtones on the floor; and from the roof and ſides of this vault, water is perpetually diſtilling, the drops of which, before they fall, produce a moſt pleaſing effect, by reflecting numberleſs rays from the candles carried by the guides; they alſo, from their quality, form cryſtallizations of various forms, like the figures of fret-work; and in ſome places,

VIEW of LONDON



places, having been long accumulated one upon another, they have formed large maſſes, bearing a rude reſemblance to men, lions, dogs, and other animals. In this cavity is a column, as clear as alabaſter, called Mary Queen of Scot's pillar, becauſe it is believed ſhe entered no further. Beyond it there is a ſteep aſcent, for near a quarter of a mile, which terminates in a hollow in the roof, called the Needle's Eye, in which, when the guide places his candle, it appears like a ſtar. If a piſtol be fired near the queen's pillar, the report will be as loud as a cannon. There is another paſſage by which people uſually return. Not far from this place are two ſprings, one cold, and the other hot; but ſo near each other, that the thumb and finger of the ſame hand may be put into both ſtreams at the ſame time.

The laſt wonder of the Peak, is a cavern, unaccountably called the Devil's Arſe, and ſometimes the Peak's Arſe. It runs under a ſteep hill, about ſix miles north-weſt of Tideſwell, by an horizontal entrance, ſixty feet wide, and ſomething more than thirty feet high. The top of this entrance reſembles a regular arch chequered with ſtones of different colours, from which petrifying water is continually dropping. Here are ſeveral huts, which look like a little town, inhabited by a ſet of people who in a great meaſure ſubſiſt by guiding ſtrangers into a cavern, which opens at the extremity of this entrance. The outward part of this cave is very dark; it is alſo rendered extremely ſlippery, by a current of water which runs acroſs the entrance, and the rock hangs ſo low, that it is neceſſary to ſtoop in order to go under it; but having paſſed this place, and another current, which ſometimes cannot be waded, the arch opens again to a third current, near which are large banks of ſand: after theſe are paſſed, the rock cloſes. Another cavern of this kind, called Wokey-Hole, is found in Mendip-Hills, in Somerſetſhire, near a place of the ſame name, about a mile from the city of Wells. It has a very ſtrong echo.

Medicinal ſprings abound in England; theſe are juſtly conſidered as natural curioſities; but there are others of a different kind, which muſt not be paſſed over unnoticed. Among theſe the Dropping Well near Knareſborough, in Yorkſhire, is not the leaſt remarkable. The water, which is of a petrifying quality, riſes from a ſpring about two miles diſtance, and flows moſtly in a ſubterraneous paſſage to what is called the Well, or rather Baſon, into which the water falls from a rock about ſixteen feet high. The ſummit of this rock projects conſiderably over its baſe, ſo that the water does not run down the ſides, but drops very faſt from thirty or forty places of the top, into the well or baſon, hollowed in the ground. A great variety of petrifactions are found in the baſon.

There is a very remarkable fountain, near Richard's Caſtle, in Herefordſhire, called Bonewell, which is generally full of ſmall bones, reſembling thoſe of frogs, or fiſh, though often cleared out; and it is not eaſy to conjecture how they are collected here in ſuch quantities. The Burning-Well at Ancliff, near Wigan in Lancaſhire, has been long famous. The water is cold and without ſmell; but ſo ſtrong a vapour of ſulphur formerly iſſued out with it, that upon the application of a candle, &c. the whole ſurface was immediately covered with a blue flame reſembling that of burning ſpirits, and very hot. But a vein of coals which ran under the well having been lately taken away, this effect has, in a great meaſure ceaſed.

We ſhall now proceed to give ſome account of the chief cities and towns in England, with the moſt remarkable edifices.

London, the metropolis of the Britiſh empire, and the firſt city for trade in the known world, is ſituated on the banks of the Thames, about twenty miles from its mouth, in the latitude of 51 deg. 32 min. of north latitude, 400 miles ſouth of Edinburgh, and 270 ſouth-eaſt of Dublin; 180 weſt of Amſterdam, 210 north-weſt of Paris, 500 ſouth-weſt of Copenhagen, 600 north-weſt of Vienna, 790 ſouth-weſt of Stockholm, 800 north-eaſt of Madrid, 820 north-weſt of Rome, 850 north-eaſt of Liſbon, 1360 north-weſt of Conſtantinople, and 1414 ſouth-weſt of Moſcow.

London, in its extenſive ſenſe, comprehends the metropolis, properly ſo called, together with the city of Weſtminſter, the borough of Southwark, and part of Middleſex: but though all theſe are included under one general name, they have each a proper government, and diſtinct corporations; and each ſends members to parliament. The extent of London from Hyde-park Corner to Poplar, that is from eaſt to weſt, is upwards of ſeven miles. The breadth varies greatly. The circumference of the whole is about eighteen miles; and the number of its inhabitants are computed at one million; the number of houſes in 1784, amounted to 174,000. This city, when conſidered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the ſeat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts ſend their commodities, from whence they are again ſent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are conſtantly employed; and from hence ariſes the circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a proſperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head and the moſt diſtant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen; witneſs their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the ſhops of tradeſmen make ſuch a noble and elegant appearance, or are better ſtocked.

It is ſituated on the banks of the Thames, a river which, though not the largeſt, is the richeſt and moſt commodious for commerce of any in the world; it being continually filled with fleets ſailing to or from the moſt diſtant climates; and its banks extend from London-bridge to Blackwall, almoſt one continued great magazine of naval ſtores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ſhips for the uſe of the merchants, beſide the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards down the river, for the building of men of war. As this city is about ſixty miles diſtant from the ſea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being ſurpriſed by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moiſt vapours of the ſea. It riſes regularly from the water-ſide, and, extending itſelf on both ſides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from eaſt to weſt in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all ſides, in a ſucceſſion of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country-ſeats of gentlemen and tradeſmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of freſh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of buſineſs. The regard paid by the legiſlature to the property of the ſubject has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extenſion.

London is governed by a mayor, who has the title of lord, and is choſen annually; two ſheriffs; twenty-ſix aldermen; a recorder; two hundred and thirty-ſix common-councilmen; and other officers. Weſtminſter is governed by a high ſteward; a deputy ſteward; a high bailiff; ſixteen burgeſſes, with their aſſiſtants; and a high conſtable. Both theſe cities abound in magnificent ſtructures, whoſe deſcription would require a volume.

The Tower of London was formerly a royal palace, but now the chief fortreſs of the city. It is ſituated on the margin of the Thames, and is ſuppoſed to have

been erected by William the Conqueror, about the year 1076, when it conſiſted of that part only known by the appellation of the White Tower, which was rebuilt in the year 1637 and 1638. It is a large, ſquare, irregular ſtone building, ſituated near the centre, and conſiſts of three very lofty ſtories, under which are ſpacious and commodious vaults, chiefly filled with ſalt-petre. It is covered on the top with flat leads, from whence there is an extenſive and delightful proſpect. In the firſt ſtory are two noble rooms, one of which is a ſmall armoury for the ſea-ſervice, containing various ſorts of arms very curiouſly laid up, ſufficient for more than ten thouſand ſeamen: beſides ſeveral cloſets and preſſes filled with warlike engines and inſtruments of death. Over this are two other apartments, one principally filled with arms, and the other with ſpades, ſhovels, pick-axes, chevaux-de-frize, &c. In the attic ſtory are kept match, ſheep-ſkins, tanned hides, and various other articles. On the top of one of the Towers is a large ciſtern or reſervoir for ſupplying the whole garriſon with water. It is about ſeven feet deep, nine broad, and about ſixty in length. The water which ſupplies it is raiſed from the Thames by means of an engine. Near the ſouth-weſt angle of the White Tower is the Spaniſh armoury, in which is depoſited the ſpoils of the Spaniſh Invincible Armada, defeated in the reign of Elizabeth.

The Grand Store-Houſe, northward of the White Tower is a noble building, extending 245 feet in length, and ſixty in breadth. On the north ſide is a ſtately door-caſe, adorned with four columns, with their entablature and triangular pediment of the Doric order. On entering the room the ſpectator is agreeably ſurprized with the ſight of arms ſufficient for eighty thouſand men, diſpoſed in the moſt beautiful order imaginable, all bright and fit for ſervice. Upon the ground floor, under the ſmall armoury, is a large room of equal dimenſions with that, ſupported by twenty pillars, hung round with various implements of war.

The Horſe Armoury, to the eaſtward of the White Tower, is a plain brick building, rather convenient than elegant. Here the ſight is entertained with a repreſentation of ſeveral Engliſh kings and heroes; moſt of them on horſeback, and ſome in the ſame armour they wore when they performed thoſe glorious actions which give them a diſtinguiſhed place in the Britiſh annals.

On entering the Tower, on the left hand, is an office appropriated to the coining of money, and called the Mint, which is managed by ſeveral officers formed into a corporation, conſiſting of a warden, a maſter and worker, a comptroller, the king's aſſay-maſter, the chief engraver, the ſurveyor of the meltings, a clerk of the irons, a weigher and teller, a provoſt, melters, blanchers, moneyers, &c.

Eaſtward of the grand ſtore-houſe or new armoury, ſtands the jewel-office, a ſtrong room wherein the crown jewels are depoſited. This office is governed by a maſter, two yeomen, a groom, and a clerk.

St. Paul's cathedral is allowed to be one of the grandeſt ſtructures in the world, and is ſuppoſed to have been originally founded by Ethelbert, a Saxon king, in the year 610; but in the ſucceeding reigns ſuſtained numberleſs alterations and accidents. In 1666, it was totally deſtroyed by the fire of London. The firſt ſtone of the preſent church was laid in 1675, by that famous architect Sir Chriſtopher Wren, after whoſe plan the whole ſtructure was finiſhed in 1710. The length of this ſtructure from eaſt to weſt, between the walls, is 463 feet, and, including the weſt portico, 500: the breadth of the weſt front 180; and in the centre, where it is wideſt, including the north and ſouth porticoes, it is 311; the height from the ground to the top of the croſs is 344 feet; the external diameter of the cupola 145, and the internal 100; the outward diameter of the lantern 18; the height of the turrets 208; and that of the body of the church 120. It takes up an area of ſix acres, including the church yard, which is railed round with iron baluſters, each about five feet and a half high. It is built of fine Portland ſtone, in form of a croſs, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome. The expence of rebuilding this cathedral, after the fire of London, is computed at a million ſterling, and was defrayed by a duty on coals.

Weſtminſter abbey, or the collegiate church of Weſtminſter, is a venerable pile of building. This church is in form of a long croſs; its length being 489 feet, and the breadth of the weſt front 66 feet; the length of the croſs aile is 189, and the height of the roof 92. At the weſt end are two towers; and the nave and croſs ailes are ſupported by fifty pillars of Suſſex marble, about twelve feet and a half aſunder, beſides pilaſters. There are ninety-four windows, in the upper and lower ranges, all which, together with the arches, roofs and doors are in the ancient Gothic taſte. The inſide of this church is much better executed than the out; the perſpective, particularly that of the grand aile, is remarkably good; and the choir, from which there is an aſcent by ſeveral ſteps to a ſuperb altar-piece, is paved with black and white marble, and contains twenty-eight ſtalls on the north ſide, as many on the ſouth, and eight at the weſt end. This is the repoſitory of the deceaſed Britiſh kings and nobility; and here are alſo monuments erected to the memory of many great and illuſtrious perſonages, commanders by ſea and land, philoſophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4000l. a year, out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

Beſides the cathedral and abbey above deſcribed, in the cities of London and Weſtminſter, there are 102 pariſh churches, and an amazing number of chapels belonging to the eſtabliſhed religion; and likewiſe upwards of 300 places of public worſhip, for the uſe of Independents, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, &c.

That beautiful column, called the Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being deſtroyed by fire, is juſtly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order exceeds all the obliſks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a ſtair caſe in the middle to aſcend to the balcony, which is about 30 feet ſhort of the top, from whence there are other ſteps, made for perſons to look out at the top of all, which is faſhioned like an urn, with a flame iſſuing from it. On the baſe of the monument, next the ſtreet, the deſtruction of the city, and the relief given to the ſufferers by Charles II. and his brother, are emblematically repreſented in bas relief. The north and ſouth ſides of the baſe have each a Latin inſcription, the one deſcribing its dreadful deſolation, and the other its ſplendid reſurrection; and on the eaſt ſide is an inſcription, ſhewing when the pillar was begun and finiſhed. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by ſir Chriſtopher Wren in 1671, and finiſhed by him in 1677, amounted to upwards of 13,000l.

The Royal-Exchange is juſtly eſteemed a moſt noble and uſeful fabric. It was firſt erected at the ſole expence of Sir Thomas Greſham, but that ſtructure being deſtroyed by the fire of London, the preſent fabric was erected by parliament in 1669, and is ſaid to have coſt above 80,000l. The whole forms a parallelogram 203 feet in length, and 171 feet in breadth, encloſing an area 144 feet long and 117 broad.

The Britiſh Muſeum is a large and magnificent building, ſituated in Great Ruſſel-ſtreet, Bloomſbury, and formerly belonged to the Duke of Montague; but in the year 1753, the parliament having paſſed an act for purchaſing the Muſeum of the late Sir Hans Sloane, and the collection of manuſcripts of the late Lord Oxford, for the uſe of the public, twenty-ſix

truſtees

truſtees were appointed and incorporated, in order to provide a repoſitory for theſe and ſome other collections, under the title of the Britiſh Muſeum. Montague-houſe being fixed on for this purpoſe, the parliament purchaſed it for ten thouſand pounds; and expended fifteen thouſand more in repairs, alterations, and conveniences. They paid twenty thouſand pounds for the collection of Sir Hans Sloane, conſiſting of an amazing number of natural and artificial curioſities, valuable remains of antiquity, and a large library. Ten thouſand pounds were given for lord Oxford's manuſcripts; and thirty thouſand pounds veſted in the public funds, for ſupplying ſalaries for officers, and other neceſſary expences. This noble collection of curioſities, and excellent libraries, was opened in the year 1757, and greatly augmented by his preſent majeſty, being chiefly deſigned for the uſe of learned and ſtudious men, both natives and foreigners, in their reſearches into the ſeveral departments of knowledge.

St. James's palace is an old building, to which the court removed after the burning of Whitehall, in 1697; and ever ſince that period it has been the royal reſidence. It was built by Henry VIII. upon the ſite of an hoſpital formerly founded for fourteen leprous maids, and dedicated to St. James. This edifice contains ſome excellent and ſplendid apartments; but has a mean and irregular appearance when viewed from without.

The queen's palace, on the weſt ſide of St. James's park, was originally known by the name of Arlington-Houſe; but being purchaſed by the Buckingham family, it was rebuilt from the ground in 1703, and called Buckingham-Houſe, till the beginning of 1762, when it was purchaſed by his preſent majeſty, and preſented to the queen. Several alterations and additions have lately been made in the park and gardens. The palace itſelf has been conſiderably enlarged, and the apartments decorated with celebrated paintings, executed by the greateſt maſters.

Somerſet-Houſe was originally built by the duke of Somerſet, uncle to Edward VI. upon whoſe attainder it fell to the crown. It was the reſidence of queen Catharine, dowager of Charles II. and was ſettled on the late queen Caroline, in caſe ſhe had ſurvived her royal conſort. The apartments are now granted to ſeveral of the officers of the court, and its dependents; and lately a conſiderable part of it has been preſented to the royal academy of painting, to which a charter has been lately given by his preſent majeſty.

The other public buildings worthy of notice are the Manſion-Houſe, built at the expence of the city, for the reſidence of the lord-mayors during their mayoralties. The College of Phyſicians. The Bank of England. Moſt of the pariſh churches, eſpecially that of St. Stephen's in Walbrook. The Banquetting-Houſe at Whitehall, being part of a plan deſigned by Inigo Jones for a royal palace, but never executed. The Admiralty-Office. The Treaſury. The Horſe-Guards. Weſtminſter-Hall, ſuppoſed to be one of the largeſt rooms in England.—It is a Gothic ſtructure 220 feet long, and 70 broad. The coronation feaſts of our kings and queens are always held here; as are the courts of chancery, king's-bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The Adelphi and the Pantheon, are proofs of the preſent improved taſte for architecture; the latter was lately deſtroyed by fire. There is hardly a houſe belonging to our nobility, but claims particular attention; while the royal palace, which ſhould certainly be the moſt magnificent ſtructure in the kingdom, is exceeded in elegance and convenience by the public offices, and the private houſes of almoſt every rich individual.

For the convenience of the cities of London and Weſtminſter, there are three bridges.

London-bridge was firſt built of ſtone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which in the courſe of time gave riſe to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs: from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly ſince the year 1756, when the houſes were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The paſſage for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each ſide for foot paſſengers. It croſſes the Thames where it is 915 feet broad, and has at preſent 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each; but the centre one is conſiderably larger.

Weſtminſter-bridge is reckoned one of the moſt complete and elegant ſtructures of the kind known in the world. It is built entirely of ſtone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad: which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each ſide is a fine baluſtrade of ſtone, with places of ſhelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet; having on each ſide a fine footway for paſſengers. It conſiſts of 14 piers, and 13 large and two ſmall arches, all ſemicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the reſt decreaſing four feet each from the other; ſo that the two leaſt arches of the 13 great ones are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000l. in ſtone and other materials is always under water. This magnificient ſtructure was begun in 1738, and finiſhed 1750, at the expence of 389,000l. defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars-bridge is not inferior to that of Weſtminſter, either in magnificence or workmanſhip; but the ſituation of the ground on the two ſhores obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many perſons even prefer it to Weſtminſter-bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finiſhed in 1770, at the expence of 152,840l. to be diſcharged by a toll upon the paſſengers. It is ſituated almoſt at an equal diſtance between thoſe of Weſtminſter and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and diſcovers the majeſty of St. Paul's in a very ſtriking manner.

The Engliſh are remarkable for the encouragement they give to public charities. Beſides endowments of this kind in ſeveral parts of the nation, there are, in and near the metropolis, twenty hoſpitals and infirmaries; one hundred alms-houſes; eight free-ſchools; and a hundred and thirty-one charity-ſchools; where upwards of five thouſand poor children are taken care of till a proper age, and then put into a method of providing for themſelves.

Among ſome of the moſt excellent and beneficial charities for mental improvement may be reckoned the Sunday-Schools, which are of immenſe utility; to which we may add that inſtituted by the Philanthropic Society, for promoting a reform among the moſt profligate and abandoned of our indigent youth of both ſexes: they have now upwards of an hundred under their care, and it is deſervedly encouraged and ſupported by the benevolent.

There are fifteen fleſh-markets in London; one market for live cattle; two markets for vegetables; and twenty-three markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. Thirteen inns of court and chancery, viz. the Temple; Gray's-Inn; Lincoln's-Inn; Serjeant's-Inn; Symond's-Inn; Clifford's-Inn; Thavy's-Inn; Bernard's-Inn; Staple's-Inn; Furnival's-Inn; Clement's-Inn; New-Inn; and Lyon's-Inn. The four firſt of theſe are always called principal inns. Forty-nine halls for public companies. Three colleges, viz. Sion-College; Greſham-College, (the lectures are now read in a room over the Royal-Exchange;) and Queen's-College, or Weſtminſter-School. Sion-College adjoins to St. Alphage's-Church, London-Wall, and was founded by Dr. Thomas White, vicar of St. Dunſtan's in the weſt: a college for the uſe of the London clergy, with alms-houſes for ten poor men, and the ſame number of women; which ground was accordingly purchaſed

purchaſed, and the college begun in 1627. He likewiſe gave 160l. per ann. for ever, to the colleges and alms houſes 120l. per ann. for the ſupport of the almspeople; and 40l. per ann. for the expences of the foundation.

There are few cities ſo well ſupplied with water, as thoſe of London and Weſtminſter, at a very ſmall expence to the inhabitants, when put in competition with the benefit they receive from it, pipes being laid into their houſes. Theſe pipes are ſupplied from the Thames, the New River, or from ſome ponds at Hampſtead. Another advantage ariſing from this noble ſupply of water, is its utility in caſe of fires, which frequently happen in this vaſt metropolis; but to prevent the ſpreading of the flames as much as poſſible, plugs are every where diſperſed, the keys of which are depoſited with the pariſh officers, and as ſoon as the plugs are opened, there is, without ſome extraordinary accident happens, always a ſupply of water for the fire engines, which, on ſuch occaſions, are ſent by the ſeveral companies who inſure houſes and goods from fire. Theſe companies are an advantage peculiar to England. At a very ſmall premium they inſure the houſes and effects of any individual from fire, and, in caſe of loſs, the recovery of the inſurance is eaſy and certain.

The ſtreets in London are in general paved and lighted in a very convenient, regular and beautiful manner. Foreigners, who are deprived of ſuch advantages in their own countries, ſeem much more ſenſible of theſe improvements than the Engliſh themſelves. The roads alſo round the metropolis, for ſome miles, are alſo lighted and watched during the winter nights, which render them at once exceedingly ſafe and highly commodious to travellers.

There are alſo three other palaces near London, viz. Kenſington, Hampton-Court, and Windſor Caſtle. The laſt named is the only fabric that deſerves the appellation of a royal palace in England, and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding ſituation. It is ſituated about twenty miles from London, was originally built by William the Conqueror, and our kings reſided in that edifice till the reign of Edward III. who removed the old, and built the preſent ſtately caſtle, to which great additions have ſince been made by ſeveral of his ſucceſſors; and was entirely completed by William III. This caſtle, which ſtands upon a noble eminence, and enjoys an enchanting proſpect of the Thames and the adjacent country, is divided into two wards or courts, with a large round tower between them, called the middle ward; it being formerly ſeparated from the lower ward by a ſtrong wall and draw-bridge. The whole contains above twelve acres of land, and had formerly towers and batteries for its defence, but have been neglected many years. Hampton-Court was the favourite reſidence of king William. It is built in the Dutch taſte, and has ſome good apartments, and, like Windſor, lies near the Thames.

The number of private ſeats in the neighbourhood of London, and all over the kindom, diſplay the amazing opulence of the Engliſh nation. At the ſeat of the earl of Pembroke, more remains of antiquity are to be found, than are in the poſſeſſion of any other ſubject in the world. But thoſe capital houſes of the Engliſh nobility and gentry have an excellency diſtinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that all of them are complete without and within, all the apartments and members being ſuitable to each other, both in conſtruction and furniture, and all kept in the higheſt preſervation; and though the houſe is generally elegant and coſtly, yet the principal object of the ſeat more frequently conſiſts in its hortulane and rural decorations, Viſtas, open ladſcapes, temples, all of them the reſult of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.

The two hoſpitals of Chelſea and Greenwich, the former for decayed ſoldiers, and the latter for decayed ſeamen, are charities which reflect immortal honour on the nation to which they belong.

Chelſea-Hoſpital, ſometimes called the Royal Hoſpital, and at others Chelſea-College, was built by Sir Chriſtopher Wren, under the auſpices of James II. and William and Mary. The principal edifice conſiſts of a large quadrangle, open to the Thames. The number of penſioners in this hoſpital is between four and five hundred; but the extraordinary, or out-penſioners, are between eight and nine thouſand: the latter are allowed ſeven pounds twelve ſhillings and ſix-pence per annum; they wear red coats lined with blue, and perform duty as in garriſon; and thoſe in the hoſpital are provided with clothes, diet, lodging, waſhing, fire, and one day's pay per week, for pocket money. Formerly, every man admitted into this hoſpital, was obliged to bring proof of his having been diſabled in the ſervice of the crown, or having ſerved twenty years in the king's army. To defray the immenſe charges of this charity, the army pays poundage, and every officer and ſoldier gives one day's pay every year towards the ſupport of it; and when there is a deficiency, it is ſupplied by a grant from parliament. This hoſpital is governed by the preſident of the council, the firſt commiſſioner of the treaſury, the principal ſecretaries of ſtate, the pay-maſter general of the forces, the ſecretary at war, the comptrollers of the army, and by the governor and lieutenant-governor of the houſe.

Greenwich-Hoſpital is ſituated where a royal palace formerly ſtood, but being fallen to decay, Charles II. pulled it down, and began this edifice. It was carried on by his ſucceſſors till the reign of George II. when it was completed, and is, without exception, one of the fineſt buildings in the world. The ſuperb hall was finely painted by Sir James Thornhill. The chapel is one hundred feet long, fifty broad, and fifty high; and the ornaments are all white and gold. The number of diſabled ſeamen in this hoſpital is now increaſed to 2000 men and 100 boys. To every hundred penſioners are allowed five nurſes, who are the widows of ſeamen, and are each allowed ten pounds a year, except thoſe who attend in the infirmary, who have two ſhillings a week more. The penſioners are clothed in blue, with braſs buttons; are found, beſides their livery, in ſtockings, ſhoes, and linen; and, excluſive of their commons, are allowed one ſhilling a week as pocket-money: the common warrant officers have one ſhilling and ſix-pence. This hoſpital is governed by a governor, a lieutenant-governor, and other officers.

The endowments of this houſe are immenſe. William III. gave two thouſand pounds a year towards finiſhing the buildings. In the year 1732, the late earl of Derwentwater's forfeited eſtate, amounting to near ſix thouſand pounds per annum, was given to it by parliament; and, in 1737, a market was opened in the town of Greenwich, under the direction of the governors of this charity, to which the profits that ariſe from it are to be appropriated. Beſides theſe, the ſeveral benefactions to this hoſpital, which appear upon tables, hung up at the entrance of the hall, amount to fifty-eight thouſand two hundred and nine pounds.

Having deſcribed ſeveral of the moſt conſiderable buildings, &c. in the capital and its neighbourhood, ſome attention muſt be paid to the other principal towns of this kingdom, moſt of which are diſtinguiſhed either by manufactures, naval affairs, or a convenient ſituation for the trade carried on with the metropolis, and foreign countries. Among the moſt conſiderable of theſe, are the following:

Briſtol, a city and ſeaport of England, ſituated in the counties of Glouceſter and Somerſet, on the rivers Avon and Frome, which unite here, and form one ſtream under the name of the former, navigable for large and heavy ſhips, till it joins the Severn at

King Road, there known by the name of the Briſtol Channel. The merchants of this city trade with more independence on London than any other town in the kingdom. Their Weſt India ſhips ſail and arrive in fleets. They trade largely with Ireland, Holland, Hamburgh, Norway, Sweden, Ruſſia, and America. They ſend ſhips to Newfoundland and the Mediterranean. The quay is eſteemed one of the fineſt in Europe, and on the banks of the river are ſeveral dock-yards for building and repairing the ſhips. Buſineſs of almoſt all kinds is carried on here, and capital works eſtabliſhed, ſuch as large braſs works, forges for ſmelting copper; iron founderies, where cannon, &c. are caſt and bored; lead works, in which the lead is ſmelted from the ore, caſt into ſheets, milled, &c: manufactures of white and red lead, and lead ſhot; a great number of ſugar-houſes, turpentine, ſulphur, and vitriol works; a manufacture of china, beſides manufactures of woollen-ſtuffs, broad-cloth, ſail-cloth, lace, ſilk, and cotton. Among the public buildings, we may reckon the Exchange, in Corn-ſtreet; other public buildings are the Council-Houſe, Guild-Hall, Cuſtom-Houſe, ſeveral halls of companies, as of merchants, coopers, and merchant tailors, public library, infirmary, &c. Briſtol was erected into a biſhopric by Henry VIII. It contains ſeventeen pariſhes, and, beſides the cathedral, ſeventeen churches and five chapels within the city, and two churches and one chapel in the ſuburbs; in all, twenty-ſix of the eſtabliſhed religion, and fifteen places of worſhip for other perſuaſions. The hoſpitals and charitable foundations are more than twenty. The number of houſes in the city is 13,000, and of the inhabitants 72,000, and if to theſe we add the population of the ſuburbs, the whole muſt exceed 100,000. The government of this city is adminiſtered by a mayor, twelve aldermen, two ſheriffs, twenty-eight common-council, a recorder, town-clerk, &c. Briſtol being a county of itſelf, one of the judges comes every year to Briſtol and holds an aſſize; in the autumn, another aſſize is held by the mayor, recorder, and aldermen. Queen Elizabeth granted a charter, whereby every man that marries a daughter of a citizen of Briſtol, becomes free of the city.

York is ſituated on the river Ouſe, and its chief magiſtrate has the title of Lord Mayor. The cathedral is built in the Gothic taſte. The windows are adorned with glaſs exquiſitely painted with ſcripture hiſtory. The nave of this church is four feet and half wider, and 11 feet higher, than that of St. Paul's. The aſcent from it, through the choir to the altar, is by ſix ſteps. The entrance of the middle nave of the church, at the weſt door, is under the largeſt Gothic arch in Europe, which binds and ſupports the two towers. At the ſouth end of the croſs aiſle is a circular window, called the marigold window, from its glaſs being ſtained of that colour; and a large one at the north end, conſiſting of five lights, reaching almoſt from bottom to top. The painting repreſents embroidery.

The city belongs to neither of the ridings, but enjoys its own liberty, and a juriſdiction over 36 villages and hamlets in the neighbourhood, on the weſt ſide of the Ouſe. This liberty is called the Ainſtey, or county of the city of York.

York is pleaſantly ſituated, and divided into four wards, containing 28 pariſhes, and walled, but not fortified with artillery. The river Ouſe, from the north, paſſes through it, and divides it into two parts, joined together by a ſtone bridge of five arches, of which the middlemoſt is reckoned, for height, breadth, and architecture, to be equal to the Rialto at Venice, though not to that at Blenheim. The great council-chamber, the exchequer, the ſheriff's court, and the two city priſons, are kept upon this bridge. The river brings large veſſels to the quay, though at 60 miles diſtance from the ocean. It has four large well built gates, and five poſterns. The other moſt remarkable ſtructures are the guildhall; the ſtatue of king Edgar, who re-built the city, and St. Anthony's-hall. The market-houſe, in the ſtreet called the Pavement, is a curious piece of architecture, ſupported by 12 pillars of the Tuſcan order; and there is another ſtill larger in a ſquare, called Thurſday market. In this city are 17 churches.

Leeds, a town in the county of York, ſituated on the river Aire, and on the great canal, which is navigable from Liverpool. It is governed by a mayor, recorder, twelve aldermen, twenty-four common councilmen, &c. Leeds has been a long time famous for the woollen manufacture, and is one of the largeſt and moſt flouriſhing towns in the county, yet had but one church till the reign of Charles I. It now contains three, a Preſbyterian meeting-houſe, erected in 1691, called the New Chapel, which is the ſtatelieſt, if not the oldeſt, of that denomination in the north of England; and in the town and its ſuburbs ſeveral others. In 1786 the firſt ſtone of a general infirmary was laid at Leeds, and which is ſince finiſhed. It is noted for ſome medicinal ſprings. Here are two magnificent halls, both built about the year 1714, one uſed for an aſſembly room, the other is the guild, or moot-hall. Its increaſe of building, in the year 1786, was nearly 400 houſes. The antiquity of Leeds is very great, but it was not incorporated till the reign of Charles the Firſt. The manufacture and trade of Leeds are principally in cloth, the market for which is not, perhaps, to be equalled in the world. There are two ſpacious halls for the accommodation of the clothiers, and alſo a third hall, where worſted goods are expoſed to ſale. At about ſix o'clock in the ſummer, and about ſeven in the winter, the market bell rings; upon which, in a few minutes, without hurry, noiſe, or the leaſt diſorder, the whole market is filled, all the benches covered with cloth, as cloſe to one another as the pieces can lie longways, each proprietor ſtanding behind his own piece. As ſoon as the bell has ceaſed ringing, the factors and buyers of all ſorts enter the hall, and walk up and down between the rows, as their occaſions direct. When they have pitched upon their cloth, they lean over to the clothier, and in the feweſt words imaginable, the price is ſtated; one aſks, the other bids, and they agree or diſagree in a moment. In a little more than an hour all the buſineſs is done, ten or twenty thouſand pounds worth of cloth, and ſometimes much more, are bought and ſold in a ſhort time; the laws of the market here being more ſtrictly obſerved than at any place in England. On account of the trade, the rivers Aire and Calder were made navigable, at the expence of ſeveral private merchants, without calling in the aſſiſtance of the nobility and gentry. By this means a communication was opened from Leeds and Wakefield to York and Hull; ſo that all the woollen manufactures exported are carried by water to Hull.

Sheffield, a town in the county of York. This town has been noted ſeveral hundred years for cutlers' and ſmiths' manufactures, which were encouraged and advanced by the neighbouring mines of coal, particularly for files, and knives, or whittles; for the laſt of which, eſpecially, it has been a ſtaple for above 300 years; and it is reputed to excel Birmingham in theſe wares, as that does this town in locks, hinges, nails, and poliſhed ſteel. The firſt mills in England for turning grindſtones were alſo ſet up here. The houſes here look black, from the continual ſmoke of the forges. Here are about 600 maſter-cutlers, incorporated by the ſtile of the cutlers of Hallamſhire, of which this is reckoned the chief town, who employ not leſs than 40,000 perſons in the iron manufactures, and each of the maſters gives a particular ſtamp to his wares. Here is a large market on Tueſday, for many commodities, but eſpecially for corn, which is bought up here for the

whole weſt-riding. By means of the river Dun, which is navigable within two or three miles of the town, it receives iron from Hull, and conveys thither its manufactures for exportation to America and the Weſt-Indies, as well as various parts of Europe. Its neighbourhood, as well as all this part of the country, abounds with coals. There are alſo at Sheffield lead-works, and a ſilk-mill. The Sheffield manufactures extend ſeveral miles over the country; thirty-one miles S. Leeds, and 131 N. London.

Hull, or Kingſton-upon-Hull, a ſeaport town in the county of York, ſituated on the north ſide of the river Humber, at the mouth of the river Hull, from which it takes its name. It has two churches, one called Trinity, or High Church, the other St. Mary's, or Low Church. The former is a ſpacious beautiful building, the pillars of which are remarkably ſmall; and had, before the reformation, 12 chantries, in one of which is now a neat library. Here are ſeveral meeting-houſes, an exchange, a cuſtom-houſe, and an engine for making ſalt water freſh. Here is a free-ſchool, with an hall over it, belonging to the merchants, who have founded an hoſpital, called Trinity-houſe, in which are maintained many diſtreſſed ſeamen and their widows. The town carries on a great trade in ſail-making; is large, cloſe built, and populous. The commerce of Hull has for ſome time been conſtantly increaſing, ſo as to render it probably the fourth port for buſineſs in the kingdom. Its ſituation is extremely advantageous; for, beſides its communication with the Yorkſhire rivers and canals, it has alſo acceſs, by means of the Humber, to the Trent, and all its branches and communications: hence it has the import and export trade of many of the northern and midland counties. The foreign trade is chiefly to the Baltic; but it has alſo regular traffic with the ſouthern parts of Europe, and with America. More ſhips are ſent from hence to Greenland than any other port, that of London excepted. The coaſting trade for coals, corn, wool, manufactured goods, &c. is very extenſive. A new dock has lately been conſtructed, in which eighty ſhips may ride ſafely and conveniently.

Mancheſter, a town of Lancaſhire, ſituated near the conflux of the Irk and the Irwell, about three miles from the Merſey. It was accounted a large and populous town even 50 years ago; but ſince that time it is ſuppoſed to have increaſed in more than a triple proportion, both in reſpect to buildings and inhabitants. The houſes amount to a number not far ſhort of 12,000; and perhaps it may not be an over-rate to reckon ſeven perſons to each. It may be ranked as the moſt populous market-town in Great-Britain. The ſtreets are about 600, many of them ſpacious and airy, great part of the old buildings being removed, and the new ſtreets allowed a convenient breadth. The town is now well lighted every night by 2000 lamps, and guarded by nearly 200 watchmen.

The college here was founded in 1422 by Thomas Weſt, Lord Delaware, and conſiſted of a warden, eight fellows, four clerks, and ſix choriſters. The collegiate body now conſiſts of a warden, four fellows, two chaplains, two clerks (one of whom, by a very late regulation, is to be at leaſt bachelor of arts and in prieſt's orders,) four choriſters, and four ſinging men. This church is a fine ſtructure of what is termed the Gothic ſtile, and is more enriched with ſculpture than ſuch churches uſually are. The tabernacle work over the ſtalls in the choir is very curious, as are the large arches added upon vaulting the choir. The organ, which coſt not leſs than 1000l. is large and powerful.

Beſide the collegiate church, there are alſo the following. St. Ann's, a handſome church, begun in 1709 and finiſhed in 7723: it is in the gift of the Biſhop of Cheſter. St. Mary's, built by the clergy of the collegiate church, and conſecrated upwards of 30 years ago, is a neat and indeed an elegant edifice; as is St. John's, which was built by the late Edward Byrom, Eſq. St. Paul's church is a handſome ſpacious building, chiefly brick; St. James's Church, built by the Rev. C. Bayley, D. D. is a large well lighted building, of brick and ſtone, with a ſmall ſtone ſteeple. St. Michael's is alſo of brick and ſtone, with a ſquare tower. It was built by the late Rev. Humphrey Owen, (one of chaplains of the collegiate church, and rector of St. Mary's.) The new Jeruſalem church, Peter's-ſtreet, St. Clement's, in Stevenſon's-ſquare, and St. Thomas's, Ardwick-green; to theſe may be added, Trinity Church and St. Stephen's, Salford; for though the Irwell intervenes between Mancheſter and Salford, and each is governed by its reſpective conſtables; yet, being connected by three bridges, the two places are generally conſidered under the name of Mancheſter. In Salford, there is likewiſe a Methodiſt chapel. In Mancheſter, a new church is lately finiſhed, and called St. George's. St. Peter's church, at the end of Moſley-ſtreet; when finiſhed, will be a ſtrong and elegant ſtone ſtructure, with a high ſpire; at preſent the body only is completed, and lighted, in a manner not very common, by ſix ſemicircular windows. Beſide the 14 churches above enumerated, there are two Catholic Chapels, three large Methodiſt Chapels, a Chapel for the people called Quakers, and ſeven Chapels for Diſſenters of other denominations.

Cheetham's Hoſpital, commonly called the College, originally the place of reſidence of the warden and fellows, is deſerving of particular notice. Humphrey Cheetham, of Clayton, near Mancheſter, Eſq. having been remarkably ſucceſsful in trade in the middle of the laſt century, bought the college, and liberally endowed it for the maintenance and education of 40 poor boys, admiſſible between the age of 6 and 10 years. By an improvement of the funds of the charity, the number of boys was increaſed to 60; and continued ſuch till the Eaſter meeting of the feoffees in 1780, when another augmentation took place, and the number has ſince been conſtantly 80. The boys of this hoſpital are comfortably provided for till the age of 14, when they are further clothed, and with a premium placed apprentices to uſeful trades. The Library, which occupies an extenſive gallery of the ſame building, owes its foundation and increaſing importance to the ſame benevolent ſource. The annual value of the fund originally bequeathed for the purchaſe of books, and for a librarian's ſalary was 116l.; but, by recent improvements of the eſtate, the income is more than thrice that ſum The books at this time amount to upwards of 10,000 volumes. At ſtated hours, on all days, except Sundays and other holidays, the ſtudious may have free acceſs to read in the library. The Free-ſchool, almoſt joining to the college, is ſupported by the rents of various houſes and lands, and by the rents of three mills; one of which is for grinding malt, another for corn, and the third is employed as a ſnuff-mill. Theſe rents are now increaſed to 241l. per annum, from which ſalaries are paid to three maſters and two aſſiſtants; and eight exhibitioners choſen from ſtudents educated at this ſchool, are each allowed the annual ſum of 25l. for four years, during their reſidence at the Univerſities. Beſide theſe exhibitions, there are others alſo ariſing from lands in Mancheſter, bequeathed by Mr. Hulme. The deſerved reputation of this ſchool is a powerful recommendation of its ſcholars entering at the univerſities.

The Academy is a large and commodious building, raiſed by the ſubſcriptions of ſeveral reſpectable Diſſenters, and placed under the care of able tutors. Here youth above 14 years of age are admitted and inſtructed in the various branches of liberal knowledge, preparatory to trade or the profeſſions. The

Literary

Literary and Philoſophical Society of Mancheſter was inſtituted in the beginning of the year 1781, and is well known by its Memoirs, of which ſeveral volumes have been publiſhed. A ſociety was eſtabliſhed here in November 1789, under the name of the Lancaſhire Humane Society, for the encouragement of all who may attempt the recovery of perſons apparently drowned. The Infirmary, Diſpenſary, Lunatic Aſylum, and public Baths, are all ſituated on one large airy plot of land, in the moſt elevated and agreeable part of the town; a pleaſant graſs-plot and gravel walk extending the whole length of the buildings; a canal intervening between them and the public ſtreet, next to which it is guarded by iron paliſades. The Lying-in-hoſpital is ſituated in Salford, nearly adjoining the New Bayley. A new Work-houſe is completed; and for ſuch a purpoſe a happier ſpot could not be found in any town than that whereon it is erected, being on an equal eminence with the college on the oppoſite ſide of the Irk, and promiſing the greateſt poſſible comforts to ſuch as may be neceſſitated to become its inhabitants. For the poor of Salford a new building has alſo been lately erected. The Exchange was a ſtrong good building; but ſince the late act of parliament obtained for farther improvements of the town, it has been ſold and taken down, and its ſite formed into a convenient area, to the great advantage of the ſurrounding houſes. The Theatre is a neat building, wherein the boxes are placed in a ſemicircle oppoſite to the ſtage. The Gentlemen's Concert-room is an elegant building, capacious enough to accommodate 1200 perſons. The concerts are ſupported by annual ſubſcriptions: but ſtrangers and military gentlemen have free admiſſion to the private concerts, as alſo to the public concerts with a ſubſcriber's ticket. The new Aſſembly-rooms are large and commodious. The Circus is a capacious and handſome building, adapted either for equeſtrian or dramatical exhibitions. Here are two Market-places, the old and the new; which are well ſupplied with every thing in ſeaſon, though at high rates. There are ſeveral charity ſchools belonging to different churches and chapels, where children are furniſhed with clothes and taught to read. The Sunday-ſchools are numerous, and afford inſtruction to upwards of 6000 children.

Over the Irwell are three bridges, uniting the town with Salford; the old bridge is very high at the Mancheſter end, whence it ſlopes into Salford. The middle bridge, four feet wide, raiſed upon timber, and flagged, is only for accommodation of foot paſſengers. The lower bridge is a handſome ſtone building of two arches; this bridge affords a level road for two or three carriages abreaſt. It was undertaken and finiſhed by the private ſubſcription of a few gentlemen; and a ſmall toll is taken for all paſſing, which toll is now annually let by auction. The Irwell having at a great expence been rendered navigable for veſſels of 20 or 30 tons burthen, there is a conſtant communication between Liverpool, Mancheſter, and the intermediate places on the Irwell and Merſey, to the great advantage of the proprietors and the country at large.—This navigation, and more eſpecially the Duke of Bridgewater's canal, opening a paſſage from Mancheſter to the Merſey at 30 miles diſtance, have, together, greatly contributed to the preſent highly flouriſhing ſtate of the town. Advantages ſtill greater may reſult from the intended union of the Humber and the Merſey, by a junction of the Rochdale-canal, with that belonging to his Grace.

We muſt not omit to notice the new penitentiary-houſe, called the New Bayley, for ſeparate confinement of various criminals. Over the entrance is a large ſeſſion-room, with adjoining rooms for the magiſtrates, council, jurors, &c. Beyond this, in the centre of a large area, incloſed by very high walls, ſtands the priſon, an extenſive building, forming a croſs three ſtories high; and the four wards of each ſtory may in an inſtant be ſeen by any perſon in its centre. The priſon is kept ſurpriſingly neat and healthy; and ſuch as can work at any trade, and are not confined for crimes of the greateſt magnitude, are employed in a variety of branches: ſo that one may be ſeen beating and cleanſing cotton, another carding it, another roving, and a fourth ſpinning. In the next place may be obſerved a man or a woman buſy at the loom; and in another, one or more engaged in cutting and raiſing the velvet pile. Hence induſtry is not ſuffered to ſlumber in the ſolitary cell, nor to quit it under the acquired impreſſions of that torpor which formerly accompanied the emancipated priſoner from his dungeon; rendering him, perhaps, totally unfit for the duties of honeſt ſociety, though well qualified, in all probability, to hord with gamblers, and be then, if not before, initiated into their pernicious myſteries. The banks of the rivers and various brooks about the town, afford excellent ſituations for the numerous dye-houſes employed for a multitude of fabrics. Among other things, the manufacture and finiſhing of hats is carried on to an extent of great importance. The general market is here on Saturdays. Tueſday's market is chiefly for tranſacting buſineſs between the traders and manufacturers of the town and circumjacent country. The fairs are on Whitſun Monday, October 1ſt, and November the 17th.

Mancheſter is a manor with courts leet and baron. It ſends no members to parliament, but gives title to a Duke.

Liverpool, a ſeaport town in the county of Lancaſter, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Merſey, not far from its mouth, in the Iriſh Sea, and one of the moſt commercial and flouriſhing ports of the kingdom. The inhabitants trade to all parts of the world, except Turkey and the Eaſt-Indies. The harbour is artificial, but capable of receiving veſſels of any burden up to the town; there are ſeveral public docks for the reception of ſhips, where a thouſand may lie in the greateſt ſafety, all bound by quays, a mile and a half in length, with room for 20,000 ton of ſhipping. The entrance of the river is dangerous, though every means is uſed to render it more ſecure. In the middle of the 16th century, Liverpool was a ſmall place, with only one church, which was a chapel of eaſe to Walton. In the year 1699, an act paſſed to make the town a diſtinct pariſh, and erect a new church, ſince which time it has been gradually advancing in population and trade. It was, however, before that time a corporate town, and ſent members to parliament. In the year 1565, there were only 138 houſeholders and cottagers. At this time, the number of houſes is, probably, near 10,000, and of the inhabitants 60,000. The trade of Liverpool is general; but the principal branch is the African and Weſt India trade. The American, Baltic, and Portugal commerce is alſo very great, as well as to Ireland; ſeveral ſhips are ſent annually to Greenland, and many veſſels are employed in the country trade for corn, cheeſe, coals, &c. ſo that near 3000 veſſels are cleared out from this port in one year. Here are ſeveral manufactories for china-ware and pottery, ſome ſalt-works, glaſs-houſes, and upwards of fifty breweries, from ſome of which large quantities of malt-liquor are ſent abroad. By the late inland navigation, Liverpool has communication with the rivers Dee, Ribble, Ouſe, Trent, Derwent, Severn, Humber, Thames, Avon, &c. which navigation, including its windings, extends above 500 miles, in the counties of Lincoln, Nottingham, York, Weſtmoreland, Cheſter, Stafford, Warwick, Leiceſter, Oxford, Worceſter, &c. The Merſey, upon which this town is ſituated, abounds with ſalmon, cod, flounders, turbot, plaiſe, and ſmelts; and, at full ſea, it is above two miles over. The Merſey is properly an arm of the ſea, and ſubject to

the variations of the tide. Liverpool contains ten churches, beſides places of worſhip for the religious of other perſuaſions, an exchange, a cuſtom-houſe, a public infirmary, a priſon, built on the plan of the humane Mr. Howard, an obſervatory, a theatre, &c. The markets are on Wedneſday and Saturday, and every other Wedneſday for all ſorts of cattle.

Birmingham, a town in the county of Warwick; has of late years become one of the firſt manufacturing towns in Europe. In the year 1676 it was not even a market town, and is now not a corporation, nor has it any chartered privileges. Indeed this very circumſtance appears to be one of the firſt advantages enjoyed by the town. Formerly, tanning of leather was the principal buſineſs carried on by the people of Birmingham; no appearances of that now remain. Before the revolution, the manufactures of Birmingham were confined to coarſe iron ware; ſhortly after that period, ſome of the inhabitants obtained a contract for furniſhing a ſupply of fire-arms to government; ſoon after the button and buckle trade became extenſive: Birmingham was conveniently ſituated, labour, coals, and neceſſaries of life were cheap; manufactures were erected upon a general and extenſive ſcale. Whatever could be deſired, either uſeful or ornamental, in the various branches diſcovered by ingenuity or ſtudy, the endleſs variety of buttons, buckles, trinkets, and jewellery, ſilver and plated fire-arms, caſt-iron work, mill-work, &c. &c. are all abundantly ſupplied by Birmingham. Some of the moſt extenſive manufactures in the kingdom are eſtabliſhed here. Inland navigations have increaſed the trade, and will ſtill increaſe it much more by freſh communications. Even London will ſoon receive the manufactures of Birmingham by means of inland navigations. It is ſcarcely fifty years ſince there was not a ſingle mercantile houſe, which correſponded directly from hence with any foreign country, but furniſhed their products for the ſupply of thoſe markets through the medium of merchants in London: at this time the principal orders for foreign ſupply come directly to merchants or manufacturers reſident in the town. The air is naturally exceeding pure, and notwithſtanding the diſadvantages which muſt reſult from its cloſe population, the noxious effluvia of various metallic trades, and, above all, the continual ſmoke ariſing from the immenſe quantity of coals conſumed, it is remarked by the moſt accurate obſerver on the probability of human exiſtence (Dr. Price) to be one of the healthieſt towns in England. The foundation being a dry reddiſh ſand, the loweſt apartments are perfectly free from damp, and hence it follows, that agues, and the numerous tribe of diſtempers incidental to moiſt ſituations, are here unknown: the inſtances of longevity are ſtrikingly numerous, and every means for the preſervation of health has been adopted in this great town, particularly bathing; one of the moſt extenſive and complete ſet of baths in the kingdom being erected at Lady Well. Almoſt every artiſt occupying a ſeparate houſe, they are ſpread over a greater extent of ſurface, and conſequently free from the diſadvantages ſo remarkable in other great towns, where the habitations are larger, and every floor occupied by one or more families: the dwellings, however, of the merchants and principal manufacturers are equal to thoſe of the ſame rank in any other part of the kingdom; and Birmingham boaſts of ſome ſtreets which would even do honour to the capital. Birmingham has two pariſh churches, and four chapels of eaſe. Of the former, St. Philip's is juſtly admired for the beauty of its architecture and ſituation, being built in a light elegant ſtile, about ſixty years ago. In each ſteeple is a ſet of muſical chimes, which play every three hours, and a different every day in the week. The chapels are all modern handſome edifices, particularly St. Paul's. There were two Preſbyterian meetings; but they were both deſtroyed in the riots in July 1791: they are now rebuilding, and a third is in contemplation. There are alſo three meetings of Independents, one of Quakers, three of Anabaptiſts, a Romiſh chapel, with ſeveral Methodiſt meeting-houſes, and a Jewiſh ſynagogue. Amongſt the charitable endowments, muſt be ranked the general hoſpital. This is a large and convenient edifice, erected on the edge of the town, at above 7000l. expence, voluntarily ſubſcribed, as is its preſent ſupport, amounting to about 1000l. per annum, in which upwards of ſeventy patients are accommodated weekly upon an average, and a ſtill greater number are relieved externally. There is a weekly market on Thurſdays, which is plentifully ſupplied from the country with every kind of proviſion, and well ſtored with live cattle of all kinds. The following compariſon will place in a very ſtriking light the rapid increaſe of population in Birmingham within a century: in 1688, the ſum diſburſed for the poor was 308l. 17s. 9½d. From Eaſter 1786, to Eaſter 1787, 12,429l. 9s. 11¼d. and nearly the ſame for the preceding ſeven years. The number of inhabitants is ſaid to be ſixty thouſand.

Saliſbury is a large, neat, and well-built city, ſituated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the weſt and ſouth, and by the Bourne on the eaſt. The ſtreets are generally ſpacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finiſhed in 1358, at the expence of above 26,000 pounds, is, for a Gothic building, the moſt elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lantern, with a beautiful ſpire of freeſtone in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the talleſt in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. The church has a cloiſter, which is 150 feet ſquare, and of as fine workmanſhip as any in England. The chapter-houſe, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one ſmall pillar in the centre, ſo much too weak in appearance for the ſupport of ſuch a prodigious weight, that the conſtruction of this building is thought one of the greateſt curioſities in England. It is governed by a mayor, high-ſteward, recorder, deputy-recorder, twenty-four aldermen, &c. Beſides the manufactures of flannels, druggets, and the cloths called Saliſbury whites, for the Turkey trade here, it is noted for the manufacture of bone-lace, and of cutlery. It ſends two members to the Britiſh Parliament, and has two markets weekly, on Tueſday and Saturday.

Nottingham, the capital of the county to which it gives name, ſituated on an eminence, by the ſide of the river Trent. It is large, populous, and handſome, containing three pariſhes, and conſidered as one of the principal ſeats of the ſtocking manufacture. The goods made here are chiefly of the finer kinds, as thoſe of ſilk and cotton; and the trade is extended to the neighbourhood round, and ſome of the more diſtant towns. As the articles of the Nottinghamſhire manufactures are valuable in proportion to their bulk, they are chiefly conveyed to the different ports and places of conſumption by land. A conſiderable ſhare of them is exported to various parts of Europe, America, and the Weſt-Indies. The cotton for this manufacture is ſpun by machinery, worked by water. Nottingham has three churches, a grand town-houſe built on piazzias, a fine ſpacious market-place, with two croſſes in it, and a gaol for the town and county; a manufactory for glaſs and earthen-ware; and the malt buſineſs is likewiſe conſiderable. Nottingham is governed by a mayor, aldermen, recorder, council, &c. and ſends two members to the Britiſh parliament. Here are three markets weekly, on Wedneſday, Friday, and Saturday.

Bath, a city in the county of Somerſet, is ſituated in a deep narrow valley, bounded on the north, ſouth, and

3) 410
136 c 2

ſouth-weſt by lofty hills, forming a very pleaſant natural amphitheatre, and affording the city a double advantage, a barrier againſt the winds, and fountains of the pureſt waters. Theſe hills abound with white free-ſtone, of which the houſes are built. On the north-weſt ſide the valley widens, divided into rich meadows, watered by the river Avon. There are three principal ſprings, or baths, the King's-Bath, the Hot-Bath, and the Croſs-Bath. The Queen's-Bath is merely an expanſion of the waters of the King's Bath. The heat of the King's-Bath is 116 degrees on Fahrenheit's thermometer, of the Hot-Bath 117, and of the Croſs-Bath 111. The diſorders particularly benefited by the Bath waters are obſtructions of the viſcera, palſies, gout, rheumatiſm, hyſteric, colic, the colic of Poitiers, jaundice, white ſwellings, leproſy, hyſteric and hypochondriacal complaints, and ſpaſmodic diſeaſes, as the St. Vitus's dance, &c. The circumſtances which forbid the uſe of the Bath waters, are all caſes with fever, till the fever be removed, pain in the breaſt, with cough, a difficulty of breathing, all caſes in which internal ſuppuration or ſchirrhus has taken place; all caſes of hæmorrhages and plethora. This city, like that of Rome, from a very ſmall and mean beginning, is now become ſo large in bulk, and withal, ſo elegant in its buildings, and ſo reſpectable in its inhabitants and its viſitors, as to be the pride of England and the admiration of foreigners. The old city walls are now built over, and its priſtine ſtate almoſt wholly obliterated by modern improvements. The moſt ſuperb edifices, raiſed by the moſt ſkilful architects riſe in every quarter, and compoſe one of the moſt beautiful cities in the world. In the year 1715, a deſign was ſet on foot for a general hoſpital, but not carried into effect till the year 1738, when freſh contributions were made, a ſpacious and very commodious edifice erected, and an act of parliament procured for incorporating the directors of the charity by the name of the Preſident and Governors of the General Hoſpital or Infirmary at Bath. In 1742, the houſe was opened for the reception of the ſick poor from every part of Great-Britain and Ireland, thoſe of Bath only excepted, in regard they always have a readier and leſs expenſive acceſs to the benefits of the water. There are three pariſh churches in Bath, and ſeveral chapels of the eſtabliſhed form: beſide places of worſhip for Roman Catholics, Preſbyterians, Moravians, Unitarians, Methodiſts, and Quakers.

Exeter, a city and capital of Devonſhire, ſituated on the river Ex, about ten miles from the Engliſh Channel; the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of the archbiſhop of Canterbury, removed to this city from Crediton, by Edward the Confeſſor. The city is ancient, probably built at the time the Romans were in poſſeſſion of Britain; it was ſurrounded with walls, and had ſix gates, moſt of which is a magnificent pile of building, there are eighteen other churches, a few chapels, and five large meeting-houſes. The city is governed by a mayor, recorder, town-clerk, &c. and was incorporated by king John, and erected into a county by Henry VIII. All pleas and civil cauſes are tried by the mayor, alderman, recorder, and common-council; criminal cauſes, and private wrongs, are judged by eight aldermen, who are juſtices of the peace. In the north-weſt corner of the city ſtood the caſtle, called *Rougemont*, from the colour of the hill on which it was built, ſuppoſed to have been founded by the Weſt Saxon kings, and afterwards made the ſeat of the earls of Cornwall. Nothing but the outer walls remain. This caſtle was completely ruined in the civil wars, when the city held out againſt Fairfax, who blockaded it for two months. The principal public buildings are the guildhall, and public hoſpital. The guildhall is a ſpacious and convenient building, built in its preſent form in the year 1593, but repaired in 1720. The public hoſpital were erected by ſubſcription, in the year 1740, for the ſick and lame of the city and county of Devon. The trade of the city of Exeter conſiſts principally in the exportation of coarſe woollen goods, manufactured in the counties of Devon, Cornwall, and Somerſet; theſe goods the merchants of Exeter buy rough from the loom, mill, dye, and finiſh them for uſe, and afterwards export them; they chiefly conſiſt of druggets, duroys, kerſeys, and everlaſtings, which find a ready ſale in Italy, Spain, Germany, Holland, France, and Portugal, to the annual amount of more than half a million ſterling. Beſides this, the Eaſt-India company take off a quantity of long ells, amounting to the value of about 105,000l. of which about a fourth part are ſhipped at Exeter; the remainder at Dartmouth and Plymouth. For making theſe woollens, about 4000 bags of wool are imported at Exeter from Kent. The reſt of the wool made uſe of is the product of Devonſhire and the neighbouring counties. Exeter likewiſe imports dying drugs, wines, and fruit, from Spain and Italy; linens from Germany; and hemp, iron, timber, and tallow, from the Baltic. It ſends ſhips to the Newfoundland and Greenland fiſheries. It ſupplies the country round with coal, both from the northern collieries, and from Wales: and it has an exportation of corn, eſpecially oats, to London. Exeter was twice ravaged by the Danes. In the reign of Henry VII. it was beſieged by Perkin Warbeck, but made ſo brave a defence that he was compelled to raiſe the ſiege, and the king, in acknowledgment of the bravery of the citizens, preſented them with a ſword which he himſelf wore, to be carried before the mayor in all coporate proceſſions. Three markets are held here weekly, Wedneſdays, Fridays, and Saturdays, one of which is for ſerges, of which 80,000l. or 100,000l. worth have been ſold in a day. Exeter ſends two members to parliament.

Cheſter, a city and capital of Cheſhire, ſituated on the river Dee, about twenty miles from the Iriſh Sea. The city is ſquare, and ſurrounded by a wall, nearly two miles in circumference; it contains nine pariſh churches, a Roman Catholic chapel, and ſix places of worſhip for Diſſenters of different perſuaſions. It is ſaid to have been erected into a corporation in the year 1242, and is now governed by a mayor, recorder, aldermen, ſheriffs, common council-men, &c. The ſtreets are hollowed out of a rock to the depth of one ſtory beneath the level of the ground on each ſide; and the houſes have a ſort of covered portico running on from houſe to houſe, and ſtreet to ſtreet, level with the ground behind, but one ſtory above the ſtreet in front. They are called rows, and afford a ſheltered walk for foot paſſengers. Beneath them are ſhops and warehouſes, level with the ſtreet; and apartments above them. The walls are kept in repair by an officer, called a Murenger, and a rate called murage, on all imports by perſons not free of the city. The cuſtody of the gates of Cheſter was committed to very conſiderable noblemen: Eaſt-gate, to the earl of Oxford; Bridge-gate, to the earl of Shrewſbury; Water-gate, to the earl of Derby, and North-gate, to the mayor. The principal manufacture is gloves: and its fairs are reſorted to three times a year by a great concourſe of the Iriſh linen merchants. The caſtle is a noble ſtructure, having a tower aſcribed to Julius Cæſar, and bearing his name, which, as well as its workmanſhip, prove it to have been originally built by the Romans, though the preſent walls are evidently Norman. Cheſter is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of the archbiſhop of York, and ſends two members to parliament. The number of inhabitants, including the ſuburbs, is eſtimated at 15,000.

Windſor, 21 miles from London, a pleaſant and ancient town on the Thames, and has a fine caſtle, built by William the Conqueror. Edward III. who was born here, enlarged and beautified it; but the royal palace and chapel, together with St. George's

hall and its chapel, and inſtituted here the Order of the Garter. Queen Elizabeth added the noble terrace, faced with free ſtone ramparts, like thoſe of a fortified city, which is ſcarce to be equalled in Europe. King Charles II. laid out great ſums in repairing, new modelling, and furniſhing this palace; and there is a fine equeſtrian ſtatue of him, erected in 1680, over a great well in the inner court. St. George's hall is eſteemed one of the fineſt in Europe. The royal chapel is beautifully adorned with curious paintings. The round tower is built like an amphitheatre, very high, with elegant apartments. On the north ſide is St. George's, or the chapel of the garter, one of the moſt elegant Gothic ſtructures in the univerſe. In the choir are the ſtalls of the knights of the order, and their banners over them, with a throne for their ſovereign.

Here are two parks; the little park about three miles, and the great park 14 miles, in circumference, ſtocked with all kinds of game, and laviſhly embelliſhed by the hand of nature. In the foreſt, which is 30 miles round, are ſeveral ſeats; particularly Cranbourn Lodge, which ſtands on the top of a hill, and has a view not only of Windſor and its parks, but of London and the adjacent country.

Canterbury, a city and capital of the county of Kent, the ſee of an archbiſhop, primate of all England, ſituated in a valley, between gently riſing hills, on the river Stour; founded before the Chriſtian era. It is a county of itſelf, and the magiſtrates have authority to determine all law-ſuits between the citizens, and to try for capital crimes committed within the city. The magiſtracy conſiſts of a mayor, aldermen, recorder, &c. There are two markets weekly, on Wedneſday and Saturday. Canterbury was formerly celebrated for its ſilk manufacture, which has for ſome years been on the decline; the principal manufactures are thoſe of worſted and Canterbury muſlins, many of ſilk and cotton. There were formerly ſeventeen churches within the walls, and three in the ſuburbs, fifteen only of which remain. The Jews have a ſnagogue; Methodiſts, Baptiſts, Preſbyterians, and Quakers, have each a place of public worſhip. The country round about produces a great quantity of hops. It is likewiſe celebrated for its brawn. In the cathedral was once the famous ſhrine of Thomas-a-Becket, who was murdered at the altar in the year 1170, to which pilgrims from all parts of the world continually flocked, having been canonized by pope Alexander, two years after his death, and only put a ſtop to by the reformation under Henry VIII, who took to himſelf the riches of the ſhrine, and ordered his name to be eraſed from among the ſaints.

Northampton ſtands upon the Nen, over which it has two bridges. The buildings were handſome, and the town large (having ſeven pariſh churches within the walls, and two without) when it was reduced to aſhes by a dreadful fire in 1675. Liberal contributions from all parts of the kingdom reſtored it in a meaſure to its original ſize; and for neatneſs, beauty, and ſituation, few towns equal it. It has four churches, of which the great one, viz. Allhallows, is a handſome edifice, with a ſtately portico II. on the baluſtrade. It ſtands near the center of the town, and at the meeting of four ſpacious ſtreets. The ſeſſions and aſſize houſe is a very beautiful building of the Corinthian order. The market-place is one of the fineſt in Europe. The horſe-market is thought to exceed any other of the kind in England. Its moſt conſiderable manufacture is ſhoes, of which great numbers are exported; the next to that, ſtockings. A county hoſpital is built here after the manner of the infirmaries of London, Briſtol, Bath, &c. and the river Nen has lately been made navigable up to the town.

Buckingham, the county town, ſtands in a low ground, encompaſſed on all ſides, but the north, with the river Ouſe. The caſtle, now in ruins, was built in the middle of it, and divides it into two parts. In the north part ſtands the town-hall, a very handſome convenient ſtructure. The town was, for many years, a ſtaple for wool, and ſeveral of its wool halls are yet ſtanding; but that trade is now loſt. It is populous, and has three ſtone bridges over the Ouſe. Its church, which is in the weſt part of the town, is very large. The lace manufacture is the principal buſineſs here, as well as in other parts of the county. There is a road from this town leading to the Marquis of Buckingham's (late Earl Temple's) celebrated ſeat at Stowe. It runs in a ſtraight line, about two miles, up to the Corinthian arch; which, however, ſometimes diſappears, owing to the riſing and falling of the ground. The temple, pavilions, pyramids, obeliſks, monuments, ſtatues, buſts, &c. which adorn the elegant villa at Stowe, are all highly finiſhed; and the many inſcriptions are deſigned for the information and inſtruction of the beholder.

Worceſter, on the Severn, over which it has a fine ſtone bridge, is the capital. The remarkable battle in 1651, when Charles II. was defeated by Cromwell, was fought near the ſouth gate of the city, where bones of the ſlain are frequently dug up. The chief manufactures of the place are broad cloth, gloves, and porcelaine, which is a compoſition of a middle nature, between fine earth and glaſs. The public buildings make a grand appearance, eſpecially the guildhall and the workhouſe. It had formerly a caſtle and walls, with three gates, and five watch towers, all long ſince deſtroyed. The cathedral, which is exactly the model of that of Bruſſels, is a large edifice, but not very elegant, except the choir of the chapel, on the ſouth ſide, which is of curious workmanſhip. A handſome library belongs to the cathedral, ſupported by one ſingle pillar in the middle. Here the monuments of king John, prince Arthur, brother to Henry VIII. the counteſs of Saliſbury; and other illuſtrious perſons. Beſides the cathedral, there are nine pariſh churches. The ſtreets are broad and well paved; the Foregate-ſtreet is regular and beautiful. The hoſpitals deſerve notice, eſpecially that noble one erected by Robert Berkley, of Spetchley, who laid out 2000l. in the building, and 4000l. in endowing it for 12 poor men. Beſides this, there are ſix or ſeven others. The Severn, though generally rapid elſewhere, glides by Worceſter very gently. Here is a good water-houſe and quay.

Warwick, on the Avon, the county town, ſtands on a ſituation remarkably rocky. It is of great antiquity, and may be approached by four ways, anſwering to the points of the compaſs, and cut through rock. Theſe lead to four ſtreets, which meet in the center of the town. The walls and cellars are made in the rock. It is ſupplied with water by pipes from ſprings half a mile off, and has a noble ſtone bridge of 12 arches over the Avon. Here is a caſtle, the principal ornament of the place, ſtrong both by art and nature. The rock on which it ſtands is 40 feet from the river; but on the north ſide it is even with the town. From its terrace, which is above 50 feet perpendicular above the Avon, there is a proſpect of the river, and a beautiful country beyond it. The apartments of the caſtle are well contrived, and many of them adorned with original pictures by Van Dyke. It was built originally by William the Conqueror. Near the town is Guy's Cliff, a high perpendicular rock, where Guy, earl of Warwick, is ſaid to have lived a hermit, after his defeating the Daniſh giant Colbrand. His ſword and other accoutrements are ſtill ſhewn in the caſtle.

Norwich, a city and capital of the county of Norfolk, and the ſee of a biſhop, on the Yare. This city is one of the moſt populous in England, and long took the lead in point of conſequence among the inland towns. For this it was indebted to its great manufacture of crapes, bombazins, and ſtuffs,

of

of various kinds, which is ſtill conſiderable, though ſomewhat declined, on account of the rivalſhip of the cotton branches, and in conſequence of prohibition in foreign countries. The manufacture is confined to the city; but the operations of ſpinning and preparing the wool, employ the poor of moſt of the ſmall towns and villages in the county. The wool uſed is brought from the counties of Lincoln, Leiceſter, and Northampton. The goods are ſent to various parts of the world, particularly Holland, Germany, and the Mediterranean. Many of them are ſhipped at Yarmouth, and many are ſent to London, and other places, by land. Norwich contains many opulent inhabitants, and good buildings, but its ſtreets are narrow, and ill-diſpoſed. It had twenty-five churches, in the Conqueror's time forty-three, afterwards fifty, and now thirty-ſix, in uſe. The caſtle, now the gaol, is of great antiquity; the city invited, in 1563, a number of manufacturers from the Low Counties, who came over to the number of 300, and ſoon after amounted to as many as 1000. They ſet up the making of bayes, ſayes, arras, and mochades, caungeantries, tufted mochades, currelles, and all other works mingled with ſilk, ſaietrie, and linen-yarn; and they firſt made bombazeens in 1575. Theſe have been ſo much improved of late years, in making damaſks, camlets, black and white crapes, &c. that it is computed that ſtuffs to the amount of 700,000l. have ſometimes been manufactured here in a year. The art of printing was introduced here at this time by Anthony Solmpne, one of theſe ſtrangers. The cathedral, built by Herbert de Loſinga, 1096 (whoſe ſtatue is over the north tranſept door, and his tomb below the high altar, modernized in repairing) was damaged by fire, 1171, and repaired and completed 1180, by biſhop John of Oxford. Norwich is governed by a mayor, aldermen, council, recorder, &c. and ſends two members to parliament.

Lincoln, a city and capital of Lincolnſhire, ſituated on the river Witham: it is a very ancient city, and was formerly ſurrounded with walls, and defended with towers, and was one of the chief towns for buying and ſelling wool. We are told, that in Edward the Confeſſor's time, Lincoln contained 1070 houſes, and 900 burgeſſes. William the Conqueror built a caſtle to keep the citizens in awe. Lincoln formerly contained fifty-two pariſh churches, with many religious houſes, but in the ſecond year of Edward VI. the number of churches was reduced to fifteen. The length of the cathedral from eaſt to weſt (including the walls is 530 feet. The length of the great tranſept from north to ſouth is 227. From the pavement to the top of the lantern in the Rood tower is 124 feet. Before the reformation took place, this cathedral was undoubtedly the fineſt and richeſt in the whole kingdom, and the number and ſplendour of its tombs almoſt incredible. In the reign of king Henry the Eighth, in the year 1540, by the king's orders, there were carried from this church into his coffers, no leſs than 2621 ounces of pure gold, and 4285 ounces of ſilver; beſides an amazing quantity of diamonds, pearls, ſapphires, rubies, turquoiſes, carbuncles, and two ſhrines, one of pure gold, called St. Hugh's, the other of ſilver, called Biſhop St. John of D' Alderby. A ſecond plunder was committed on this church, in the year 1548, during the preſidence of biſhop Hobech, who being a zealous reformiſt, gave up all the remaining treaſure, which Henry had thought proper to leave behind. Lincoln, at this day, is a large, long, ſtraggling town, chiefly conſiſting of one ſtreet. There are ſeveral good buildings in it, both below and above the hill. It has a plentiful weekly market on Friday, well ſupplied with proviſions of all kinds, and its corn and wool trade is very great: large quantities of which are exported into Yorkſhire, the veſſels bringing coals back. Upon the plain, on the north ſide of Lincoln, was fought the famous battle between the friends of the empreſs Maud, and king Stephen, in which that prince was defeated and taken priſoner. Upon Lincoln-heath were like-wiſe fought ſeveral bloody battles, between the forces of Cromwell, and the royal army. Lincoln is ſo full of the ruins of monaſteries and religious houſes, that the very barns, ſtables, outhouſes, and even ſome of the hog-ſtyes, are built with arched windows and doors. The ruins of the caſtle, are venerable pieces of antiquity; and from its bold and noble ſituation upon a high hill, it muſt have been a place of prodigious ſtrength. The county-gaol is now ſituated in the caſtle-yard. It ſends two members to parliament.

Colcheſter, a town in the county of Eſſex, on the river Coln, which formerly contained fifteen churches, and now twelve, moſt of which are in good repair, with a caſtle in the centre of the town. The river Coln, which paſſes through the town, encompaſſes it on the north and eaſt; and ſerved, in time of war, for a complete defence on thoſe ſides. There are three bridges over it, and it is navigable, within three miles of the town, for ſhips of large burthen; a little lower it may even receive a royal navy; and up to that part called the Hythe, cloſe to the houſes, it is navigable for hoys and ſmall barks. The Hythe is a long ſtreet, paſſing from weſt to eaſt, on the ſouth ſide of the town, and is ſo populous towards the river, that it may be called the Wapping of Colcheſter. There is one church in that part of the town, a large quay by the river, and a good cuſtom-houſe. This town chiefly ſubſiſts by making baize, though, indeed, all the towns around carry on the ſame trade; as Kilverdon, Witham, Coggeſhall, Braintree, Bocking, &c. and the whole country, large as it may be ſaid to be, employed, and in part maintained, by the ſpinning of wool for the baize trade of Colcheſter and its adjacent villages. The town of Colcheſter has been ſuppoſed to contain about 40,000 people, including the out-villages within its liberty, of which there are many, the liberty of the town being of a large extent. The markets are on Wedneſdays and Saturdays. This place ſends two members to parliament; and is governed by a mayor, recorder, town-clerk, twelve aldermen, eighteen aſſiſtants, eighteen common-council, two coroners, four ſerjeants, and two claviers.

Leiceſter, the capital of the county to which it gives name, ſaid to have been built by king Lear. It is a place of great antiquity, and was a town before the Romans invaded Britain. It is ſituated on the Soar. It is large, well-built, and populous, containing five churches, a Roman Catholic chapel, and other places of worſhip. Before the caſtle was diſmantled, it was a prodigious building, it being the court of the great duke of Lancaſter, who added twenty-ſix acres to it, which he encloſed with a high wall, and called it his Novum Opus, now the Newark, where are ſtill the beſt houſes in all Leiceſter; and they continue extra-parochial, as being under caſtle-guard, by an old grant from the crown. Its hall and kitchen are ſtill entire, the former of which is lofty and ſpacious, and the courts of juſtice, which are held here at the aſſizes, are at ſuch a diſtance as not to diſturb each other. The market, which is on Saturday, abounds with every ſpecies of good living, and is, for an inland town, remarkably well ſupplied with fiſh. The fairs in Leiceſter are upon a large ſcale, particularly in the articles of cheeſe, ſheep, and cattle; Smithfield market, on its greateſt days, bears no ſort of proportion to the beaſts ſhewn in Leiceſter at two or three fairs in the year. In the Domſday-book, this town is ſtiled a city, and had the title of mayor given to its chief magiſtrate in the reign of Henry III. A parliament was held at Leiceſter in the reign of Henry V. wherein the firſt law was made for burning heretics. It is the largeſt, beſt-built, and

moſt

moſt populous town in the ſhire. Its corporation conſiſts of a mayor, recorder, ſteward, bailiff, twenty-four aldermen, forty-eight common-council, a town-clerk, &c. and had its charter from king John, and its freemen are toll-free in all the markets and fairs in England. This town derives great advantages from its manufactures, particularly of ſtockings. A navigable canal is lately made from Leiceſter to Loughborough. Leiceſter ſends two members to parliament.

Southampton, a ſeaport town in the county of Hants, or, as it is ſometimes called, the county of Southampton, ſituated at the union of two rivers, which run into a bay of the Engliſh Channel, called Southampton Water: near this ſpot was formerly a town, called Hanton, which was plundered by the Danes, in the year 980; and, in the reign of Edward III. it was burnt down by the French; after which it was rebuilt in the ſituation it now ſtands, which was ſurrounded with walls, ditches, battlements, and towers, and, for its further defence, a ſtrong caſtle was built by order of Richard II. on a mount, or artificial hill; and a fort was erected in the reign of Henry VIII. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade with Portugal for wine and fruit, as likewiſe with the iſlands of Guernſey and Jerſey, to which iſlands they ſend a certain quantity of wood, allowed by act of parliament: here are manufactures of ſilk and carpets. The town chiefly conſiſts of one broad well-built ſtreet, with ſome ſmaller branches, and contains five pariſh-churches, and an hoſpital. It ſends two members to parliament, and was made a county of itſelf, in the reign of king John. The corporation is compoſed of a mayor, aldermen, recorder, ſheriff, two bailiffs, common-council, &c. There are for the town eleven juſtices of the peace, viz. the biſhop of Wincheſter, the recorder, the mayor, the laſt mayor, five aldermen, and two burgeſſes; all who have paſſed the chair are aldermen. The mayor is admiral of the liberties. The reſort of company here, during the ſummer months, for the purpoſe of ſea bathing, has occaſioned conſiderable improvements in the town, and a regular maſter of ceremonies has been appointed to regulate the amuſements. The town is well ſupplied with good freſh water, from diſtant ſprings, by pipes; and adjacent to the town is a chalybeate ſpring. Packets ſail regularly, in time of peace, from Southampton to Cherburg: packet boats ſail every morning, except Monday, to the Iſle of Wight. In time of war, a cutter is ſtationed here, by government, which ſails every fortnight for Guernſey and Jerſey, which convey paſſengers, or parcels; and veſſels, of from twenty-five to forty tons, continually trade to thoſe iſlands; beſides which, there are about thirty veſſels employed in foreign commerce, and upwards of one hundred in the coaſting-trade: the river is deep enough for the largeſt ſhips. Southampton has three markets weekly, on Tueſday, Thurſday, and Saturday.

Whitehaven, a ſeaport town in the county of Cumberland, ſituated on a bay of the Iriſh Sea. This town in the year 1566, had only ſix houſes. It has a good artificial harbour, with a long pier. The coal-mines here are the moſt extraordinary in the world, being ſunk to the depth of 130 fathoms, and extended under the ſea. Here are copperas-works, which yield conſiderable profit. Its chief trade is furniſhing Ireland, and part of Scotland, with ſalt and coal, as it did the latter alſo, with ſalt and ſugars before the union. Here are ſeveral officers of the cuſtoms, it being the moſt conſiderable port in England, next to Newcaſtle, for the coal-trade, inſomuch, that in time of war, or after croſs winds, it is common to ſee 200 ſail of ſhips go off from hence at once for Dublin, laden with coals, beſides thoſe bound with goods to Cheſter, Briſtol, and other ports. The ſhipping and trade here, is ſo much increaſed lately by acts of parliament for improving its harbour, and repairing the roads to it, that it now contains 16,000 inhabitants, and employs near 300 ſhips. It has a market on Thurſday.

Woolwich, a town in the county of Kent, ſituated on the right bank of the Thames. It was formerly only a ſmall village, inhabited by a few fiſhermen; but, for upwards of two centuries, there has been a royal dock-yard at this place, in which are employed about the ſame number of workmen as at Deptford; and it is, like Deptford, under the immediate direction of the navy-board. This is ſaid to be the moſt ancient naval arſenal in England; or, as the learned Camden ſays, to have a right, by ſeniority, to have the title of Mother Dock to all the king's-yards. On the eaſtern, or lower part of the town, is the Gun Park, in which are great quantities of cannon and mortars, of every ſize and dimenſion; and ſo diſtinguiſhed is this arſenal, that there has been depoſited here, at one time, between 7000 and 8000 pieces of ordnance, beſides mortars and ſhells almoſt innumerable. The ordnance forms a conſiderable part of the buſineſs tranſacted for government at this place. Under the military branch is the Warren, where artillery, of all kinds and dimenſions are caſt, and frequently proved before the principal engineers and officers of the board of ordnance, at which many of the nobility and gentry often attend. The gunpowder, purchaſed by contract, is here proved, as to its ſtrength and goodneſs. Here is alſo a laboratory, where the mattroſſes are employed in the compoſition of fire-works and cartridges, and in charging bombs, carcaſes, grenadoes, &c. for public ſervice. A royal academy is here eſtabliſhed, under the board of ordnance, for the inſtruction and qualifying of young gentlemen, intended as candidates for the office of engineer in the military branch of that office: theſe are called cadets, and are appointed by that board. They are taught in it the principles and art of fortification, and every branch of military ſcience relating thereto, with the French and Latin languages, writing, fencing, and drawing. They are under the immediate direction of a governor, lieutenant-governor, and maſters in each reſpective branch of literature. A part of the pariſh of Woolwich lies on the Eſſex ſhore. The cauſe of this diviſion cannot be aſcertained; but that the river might be diverted out of its ancient channel after a flood, is no improbable ſuppoſition. At high-water, the Thames is about a mile broad at Woolwich, and the water brackiſh. As the channel lies direct eaſt and weſt for about three miles, the tide is ſtrong, and the river being free from ſhoals and ſands, and ſeven or eight fathoms deep, the largeſt ſhips may at all hours ride here with ſafety. Here is a market on Friday.

Berwick upon-Tweed, a town of England, ſituated on the north or Scotch ſide of the Tweed, and a county of itſelf, regularly fortified with walls, baſtions, and ditches: it formerly belonged to Scotland, and was the capital of the county of Berwick, and ſeveral times taken and retaken by the Engliſh, till the year 1482, when it was taken by the duke of Glouceſter, brother to Edward IV. and has ever ſince belonged to the Engliſh. The river is broad, with a bridge over it of ſixteen arches. The town is of much leſs extent then formerly, the old caſtle, now gone to decay, lies at ſome diſtance from the ramparts. The barracks are large, and capable of containing two regiments of foot with convenience. Abundance of wool is exported from this town: eggs in vaſt abundance, collected through all the country almoſt as far as Carliſle, they are packed up in boxes with the thick end downwards, and are ſent to London for the uſe of ſugar refiners. The ſalmon fiſheries here are very conſiderable, and likewiſe bring vaſt ſums: they lie on each ſide the river, and are all private property, except what belongs to the dean and chapter of Durham, which in rent and tythe of fiſh brings in 250l. per annum; for all the other

fiſheries

fiſheries are liable to tythe. The common rents are 50l. a year, for which tenants have as much ſhore as ſerves to launch out and draw their nets on; the limits of each are ſtaked; one man goes off in a ſmall flat bottomed boat, ſquare at one end, and taking as large a circuit as his net admits, brings it on ſhore at the extremity of his boundary, where others aſſiſt in landing it. The beſt fiſhery is on the ſouth ſide, very fine ſalmon trout are often taken here, which come up to ſpawn from the ſea, and return in the ſame manner as the ſalmon do. The chief import is timber from Norway and the Baltic. It is governed by a mayor, recorder, town-clerk, and four bailiffs; and ſends two members to parliament. It has a weekly market on Saturdays.

Deptford, a town ſituated on the Thames, partly in the county of Kent, and partly in Surry. It is now a large and populous town, though it has no market, and is divided into Upper and Lower Deptford. It contains about 2000 houſes, many of which are neat and well-built. The greateſt ſupport and conſequence of Deptford ariſes from its dock. It has a wet dock, of two acres, for ſhips; and another, of one acre and a half, well provided with timber and all ſorts of naval ſtores. Beſides the national docks, there are ſeveral others belonging to ſhipbuilders for merchants' veſſels. At Deptford is the ſociety of the Trinity-Houſe; founded, in the year 1515, by Sir Thoms Spert, knight, commander of the great ſhip Henry Grace de Dieu, and comptroller of the navy to Henry VIII. for the regulation of ſeamen, and the convenience of ſhips and mariners on the coaſt, and incorporated by the above-mentioned prince, who confirmed to them, not only the rights and privileges of the company of mariners of England, but their ſeveral poſſeſſions at Deptford; which, together with the grants of Queen Elizabeth and King Charles II. were alſo confirmed by letters patent of the firſt of James II. in the year 1685, by the name of "The Maſter, Wardens, and Aſſiſtants of the Guild or Fraternity of the moſt glorious and undivided Trinity, and of St. Clement, in the pariſh of Deptford Strond, in the county of Kent." This corporation is governed by a maſter, four wardens, eight aſſiſtants, and eighteen elder brothers; but the inferior members of the fraternity, named younger brethern, are of an unlimited number; for every maſter, or mate, expert in navigation, may be admitted as ſuch; and theſe ſerve as a continual nurſery to ſupply the vacancies among the elder brethren, when removed by death, or otherwiſe. The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and elder brethren, are by charter inveſted with the following powers: and of examining the mathematical children of Chriſt's Hoſpital; the examining of the maſters of his majeſty's ſhips; the appointing pilots to conduct ſhips in and out of the river Thames; and the amercing all ſuch as ſhall preſume to act as maſter of a ſhip of war, or pilot, without their approbation, in a pecuniary mulct of twenty ſhillings; ſettling the ſeveral rates of pilotage, and erecting light-houſes, and other ſea marks, upon the ſeveral coaſts of the kingdom, for the ſecurity of navigation, to which light-houſes all ſhips pay one halfpenny a tun; granting licences to poor ſeamen, not free of the city, to row on the river Thames for their ſupport, in the intervals of ſea ſervice, or when paſt going to ſea; the preventing of aliens from ſerving on board Engliſh ſhips, without their licence, upon the penalty of five pounds for each offence; puniſhing of ſeamen for deſertion, or mutiny, in the merchants' ſervice; and the hearing and determining the complaints of officers and ſeamen in the merchants' ſervice; but ſubject to an appeal to the lords of the Admiralty, or the judge of the court of Admiralty. To this company belongs the ballaſt-office, for clearing and deepening the river Thames, by taking from thence a ſufficient quantity of ballaſt, for the ſupply of all ſhips that ſail out of that river; in which ſervice ſixty barges, with two men each, are conſtantly employed, and all ſhips that take in ballaſt pay them one ſhilling a ton, for which it is brought to the ſhips' ſide. In conſideration of the increaſe of the poor of this fraternity, they are by their charter impowered to purchaſe in mortmain lands, tenements, &c. to the amount of 500l. per annum; and alſo to receive charitable benefactions of well diſpoſed perſons, to the amount of 500l. per annum, clear of reprizes. There are annually relieved by this company about 3000 poor ſeamen, their widows, and orphans, at the expence of 60000l.

Lancaſter, a town and capital of the county to which it gives name, ſituated on the river Loyne, or Lune, which forms a harbour of moderate ſize: the town carries on a conſiderable foreign trade, and many ſhips are conſtructed in the docks. Agricola is ſaid to have formed a ſtation here, which was afterwards improved into a caſtle; and ſurrounded by a ditch as early as the time of Adrian, who placed a garriſon there. After the Norman conqueſt, it was enlarged; and in ſucceeding times became more important. The preſent ſtructure is ſuppoſed to have been erected in the reign of Edward III. and is now made uſe of as a county priſon. Lancaſter was incorporated by king John, and the charter renewed and confirmed, with greater privileges, by Charles II. It is governed by a mayor, aldermen, recorder, bailiffs, &c. and ſends two members to parliament. By means of navigable canals, Lancaſter has a communication with the rivers Merſey, Dee, Ribble, Ouſe, Trent, Severn, Derwent, Thames, Avon, Humber, &c. through the counties of York, Lincoln, Weſtmoreland, Cheſter, Warwick, Nottingham, Stafford, Worceſter, Leiceſter, Oxford, Glouceſter, &c. The merchants trade chiefly to America, the Weſt-Indies, and the Baltic. The principal exports are hardware, woollen goods, cabinet work, candles, &c. Sail cloth is the chief manufacture of the town. The number of houſes is about 1160, which are ſuppoſed to contain 1600 families. There are two markets weekly, on Wedneſday and Saturday.

Portſmouth, a ſeaport town in the county of Hants, ſituated on the Iſland of Portſea. The town was anciently defended by a wall of timber, covered with earth; a baſtion to the north-eaſt, near the gate; and two forts of hewn-ſtone, at the mouth of the harbour, begun by Edward IV. and finiſhed by Henry VI. Queen Elizabeth, at great expence, fortified it with new works. King Charles II. after his reſtoration, directed great alterations, eſtabliſhed new docks and yards, raiſed ſeveral forts, and fortified them after the modern manner; which works were augmented in the reign of James II. Since that time it has received great additions from ſucceeding princes, ſo that it is, at preſent, the moſt regular fortreſs in Britain: and, as it cannot be effectually attacked by ſea, may juſtly be deemed impregnable. Within theſe few years, the government has bought ſtill more ground for additional works; and, no doubt, it may be made impregnable by land, as well as ſea, ſince a ſhallow water may be brought quite round it. All ſorts of military and naval ſtores are diſpoſed in the moſt exact order, ſo that the workmen can find what they want in the dark. The rope-houſe is near a quarter of a mile long. Some of the cables here require 100 men to work them; and their labour is ſo hard, that they can work at them but four hours a day. The leaſt number of men employed continually in the yard is ſaid to be 1000; the docks and yards, in ſhort, reſemble diſtinct towns, there being particular rows of dwellings, built at the public charge, for all the principal officers; and they are under a ſeparate government from the garriſon. Here is a fine quay for laying up the cannon; and the arſenal at Venice is not better diſpoſed. The town being low, and full of water and ditches, it is reckoned

aguiſh; the ſtreets are not very clean, the place being in want of freſh water; yet the continual reſort of ſeamen and ſoldiers to it, the men of war being often paid here, renders it always full of people: here is a deputy-governor and garriſon. The mouth of the harbour, which is not ſo broad as the Thames at Weſtminſter, is ſecured on Goſport ſide by four forts, beſides a platform of above twenty cannon, level with the water; and on the other ſide by South Sea caſtle. The harbour is one of the fineſt in the world, as there is water ſufficient for the largeſt ſhips, and is ſo very capacious, that the whole Engliſh navy may ride here in ſafety: the principal branch runs up to Fareham, about ſix miles to the northward of the harbour's mouth; a ſecond goes up to Portcheſter; and a third to Portſea-bridge; beſides theſe branches, there are ſeveral rithes, or channels, where the ſmall men of war ride at their moorings. It is defended from all winds by ſurrounding lands; and from the fury of the ſea by the Iſle of Wight, which lies before the mouth of the harbour, about ſix miles diſtant. A dreadful conflagration happened in the dock-yard on the 27th day of July 1770: it was firſt diſcovered by the centinels on duty, about five o'clock in the morning, when the drums beat to arms, and, in a few minutes after, the dock-yard was all in a flame. The houſe where the pitch and tar were lodged was ſoon reduced to a heap of rubbiſh, and, in a few minutes, it broke out in four different parts, and burnt with ſuch violence, that it threatened the whole place. The inhabitants were filled with the greateſt conſternation; but, by the wind ſhifting about, and the aſſiſtance of the marines and ſailors, its progreſs was ſtopped before ſeven in the evening. The rope-houſe was again deſtroyed, December 7, 1776, when the damage was eſtimated at 60,000l. For this act an incendiary, called John the Painter, was found guilty, and executed. At the latter end of Auguſt, 1782, a man of war, of 100 guns, called the Royal George, was unfortunately ſunk in this harbour. Portſmouth ſends two members to parliament. The civil government is by a mayor, aldermen, recorder, bailiffs, and common-council. The markets here are Tueſday, Thurſday, and Saturday. Several commodious bating machines are fitted up on South Sea beach.

Newcaſtle is an antient, large, populous, and rich town. It is ſituated at the end of the antient Picts Wall, on the river Tyne, over which it has a fine bridge. Hence it is called Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne. The commerce carried on in coals and ſalmon is amazing, and has rendered it, in a great meaſure, the emporium of the north. It may be ſaid to be ſituated both in Northumberland and the biſhopric of Durham; though that part of it which is in the latter is called Gateſide, and is like Southwark to London, the liberties coming no farther than the great iron gate upon the bridge, which has the arms of the biſhop of Durham carved on the ſouth, and thoſe of Newcaſtle on the north ſide. The ſituation of the town is very uneven and unpleaſant, eſpecially that part which is moſt conſiderable for buſineſs, and which lies upon the river; for it is built on the declivity of a ſteep hill, which makes the ſtreets difficult and uneaſy. It is alſo crowded with houſes, eſpecially in that part of the town beſt ſituated for trade. The caſtle, though old and ruinous, overlooks the whole town. The exchange is a noble and magnificent building, ſituated in the only broad place of that part of the town, contiguous both to the river and the cuſtom-houſe, but too much pent up for want of room. Between the town-wall and the river is a ſpacious place, firmly warfed up with a facing of free-ſtone, and makes a very fine quay. Beſides the commerce above-mentioned, here are ſome glaſs-houſes, iron manufactories, &c. Here is an hoſpital, built by ſubſcription, ſeveral churches and chapels, beſides St. Nicholas's church, which is a curious fabric, an exchange, manſion-houſe, public library, &c.

Shrewſbury has two bridges over the Severn, which ſurrounds it, except on the north ſide, in the form of a horſe-ſhoe, and renders it a peninſula. It has a free grammar-ſchool, founded and endowed by Edward VI. Queen Elizabeth rebuilt it, added a library, and endowed it more largely. Here are five churches, beſides meeting houſes: likewiſe 12 incorporated companies, who repair in their formalities, once a year, to Kingſland, on the oppoſite ſide of the Severn, where they entertain the mayor and corporation, in bowers erected for that purpoſe, and diſtinguiſhed by mottos or devices ſuitable to their reſpective arts and trades. The ſtreets are large, and the houſes well built, with hanging gardens down to the river. Charles II. would have erected this town into a city; but the townſmen choſe to remain a corporation; for which refuſal they were afterwards called the proud Salopians. The town has been famed throughout England for cakes. Its brawn is reckoned to exceed that of Canterbury. Here is plenty of proviſions, eſpecially ſalmon and other good fiſh. Here are many Welch families; and on market days the general language ſpoken is Welch. One great ornament in this town is that called the quarry, now converted into one of the fineſt walls in England, both for beauty and extent. It takes in at leaſt 20 acres of ground on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt ſides of the town, betwixt its walls and the Severn. It is ſhaded with rows of lime trees on each ſide, and adorned in the center with a fine double alcove, and ſeats on both ſides, one of them facing the town, and the other the river. It is reckoned not inferior to the mall in St. James's park. Upon the Welch bridge there is a noble gate, over the arch of which is placed the ſtatue of the great Llewellyn, the idol of the Welch, and the laſt Welch prince.

Oxfordſhire, ſituated on the weſt of Buckinghamſhire, is a pleaſant, healthful, and fertile country.

The city of Oxford ſtands on the conflux of the Charwell and Iſis. It enjoys a ſweet air, in a plentiful country, on a fine plain, and has every way a delightful proſpect. The private buildings are neat, the public ones ſumptuous; and the river navigable for barges. But that which gives it a conſequence above all other places in this kingdom, is the oldeſt and moſt noble univerſity in Europe. It is of ſo great antiquity as to have been an univerſity between eight or nine hundred years. The conſtituion is ſo regular, the endowments ſo plentiful, the manſions ſo convenient for ſtudy, and every thing ſo agreeable to the education of youth, and the accompliſhment of ſtudents, that it is no wonder ſuch numbers of learned men are daily ſent abroad for the ſervice of the church and ſtate. It contains 20 colleges; five halls; a ſtately pile, called the ſchools, wherein exerciſe for the ſeveral degrees are performed; the theatre, the moſt magnificent building of the kind in the world; the Clarendon printing-houſe, which likewiſe ſurpaſſes every thing of a ſimilar nature in the univerſe; the muſeum, containing a chemical elaboratory; a repoſitory of natural and artificial curioſities and antiquities; a library; a phyſic garden, &c. It is governed by a chancellor, vice-chancellor, &c.

Cambridge, ſituated on the river Cam, known in the time of the Romans by the name of Garanta. The town is divided into four wards, containing thirteen pariſhes, and was incorporated in the year 1101, by Henry I. with a mayor, aldermen, recorder, &c. Its principal celebrity is owing to the univerſity, founded, in all probability, by Sigebert, king of the Eaſt Angels, in the year 630. The univerſity is governed by a chancellor, who may be elected every three years, or remain in office by conſent of the ſenate, with a vice-chancellor, commiſſary and high ſteward.

ſteward. The chancellor's courts enjoy the ſole juriſdiction, in excluſion of the king's courts, over all civil actions and ſuits whatſoever, where a ſcholar, or privileged perſon, is one of the parties, except where the right of freehold is concerned. The vice-chancellor is annually choſen on the 4th of November, by the body of the univerſity, out of two perſons nominated by the heads of the colleges. Two proctors are alſo annually choſen, as alſo two taxers, who, with the proctors, have cognizance of the weights and meaſures, as clerks of the market. The univerſity has a cuſtos archivorum, or regiſter, three eſquire beadles, one yeoman beadle, and two library keepers. The proctors viſit the taverns, and other public houſes, and have power to puniſh offending ſcholars, and to fine the public houſes who entertain them. Cambridge univerſity was, at firſt, in all probability, little more than a grammar-ſchool, and lay neglected during the Daniſh invaſions, but began to revive, after the government was ſettled by William I. It now contains ſixteen colleges: in theſe colleges are 406 fellowſhips, and 666 ſcholarſhips. Beſides the colleges, and fourteen pariſh churches, other public buildings are the ſenate-houſe, the ſchools, and public library, Addenbrooke's hoſpital, and the ſhire-hall. Two members are returned by the univerſity to parliament, and two by the town.

Coventry is united with Litchfield in Staffordſhire, as a biſhopric. There are many traditional ſtories relating to this city, particularly that of lady Godina, who, to obtain and perpetuate ſome privileges, rode naked through the ſtreets, and an annual proceſſion is ſtill made through the town in commemoration of it. In the reign of Henry VIII. a ſtately croſs was erected here by Sir William Hoſtes, lord-mayor of London, in the middle of its ſpacious market-place, greatly admired for its workmanſhip. It was 66 feet high, adorned with the ſtatues of moſt of the Engliſh kings as big as the life; but the ſtone it was built with being ſandy and porous, it was ſo much decayed, that it was taken down ſome years ſince. The city is large and populous, but the buildings are old; and ſome of them, which are built with timber, project out ſo much, that in the narrowſt reets the tops of the oppoſite houſes almoſt touch. The chief churches are St. Michael's and Trinity. The Proteſtant Diſſenters are a conſiderable body here. The town-houſe is worth ſeeing, the windows being of painted glaſs, repreſenting ſome of the old kings, &c. who have been benefactors to the city. Its chief manufactures are tammys, and the weaving of ribbons.

Glouceſter is a well-built, clean, healthy city, contains four principal ſtreets, and ſeveral ſmaller ones, ſecured by the river on one ſide, a branch of which brings up veſſels of a conſiderable burthen to its walls. It has a beautiful cathedral, five churches, and a county infirmary. The cathedral is an ancient but magnificent fabric, and has a tower, which is one of the neateſt and moſt curious pieces of architecture in England, and a whiſpering place, as in the cupola of St. Paul's. It has beautiful cloiſters, and 12 chapels in it, with the arms and monuments of great perſons. Here is an elegant ſtone bridge over the river, with a key-wharf and cuſtom-houſe; abundance of croſſes and ſtatues of the kings of England are diſperſed in different parts of the city, and large remains of monaſteries. Its town-hall for the aſſize is called the booth-hall. Under the bridge is a curious machine, which raiſes water to ſerve the town. The principal manufacture is making pins. Beſides the churches for eſtabliſhed religion, there are places of worſhip for diſſenters and quakers, with ſeveral charity ſchools. Two markets are held weekly, on Wedneſday and Saturday. Glouceſter ſends two members to parliament. By the laſt charter, granted by king Charles II. the corporation conſiſts of a mayor, high ſteward, recorder, twelve aldermen, town-clerk, and two ſheriffs, &c.

†

The town of Plymouth is 216 miles from London, at the influx of the rivers Plym and Tamar into the channel, contains near as many inhabitants as Exeter, and is one of the chief magazines in the kingdom, owing to its port, which is one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in England. It conſiſts of two harbours, capable of containing 1000 ſail of ſhips; and is defended by ſeveral forts, particularly a ſtrong citadel, of large extent. It is the general rendezvous of ſhips outward bound; and is very convenient for homeward bound ſhips to provide themſelves with pilots up the channel.

About two miles up the mouth of the river Tamar, is an inlet of the ſea, diſtinguiſhed from Cat-Water by the name of Hamoaze, and commanded by the caſtle on St. Nicholas Iſland, is a royal dock for building and repairing ſhips. Here is a charity-ſchool, four hoſpitals, and a work-houſe. Off the entrance of the bay lies the Edyſtone rock, which is covered at high water, but bare at ebb; where, in 1696, the ingenious Mr. Winſtanley built a light-houſe, which, after ſtanding many violent ſtorms, was blown down by that dreadful one on the 27th of November 1703, when Mr. Winſtanley, and all that were with him in it, periſhed; but another was built in 1706, in its ſtead, by the corporation of Trinity-Houſe, by duties on all veſſels; but this was burnt down in 1755; and rebuilt by Mr. Smeaton, within four years afterwards; this alſo was burnt down in 1770, and rebuilt in 1774. The building, as it is now conſtructed, conſiſts of four rooms, one over the other, and at the top, a gallery and lanthern. The ſtone floors are flat above, but concave beneath, and are kept from preſſing againſt the ſides of the building by a chain let into the walls. Portland ſtone and granite are united together by a ſtrong cement, and let into horizontal ſteps by dove tails on the ſouth-weſt. The ingenious architect diſcovered that Portland ſtone was likely to be deſtroyed by a marine animal, and as the working of granite was very expenſive and laborious, the external part only was conſtructed with this, and the internal part with the other. To form a ſtrong and broad baſe, and a ſtrong bulk of matter to reſiſt the waves, the foundation is one entire ſolid maſs of ſtones to the height of thirty-five feet, engrafted into each other, and united by every means of additional ſtrength. It is about eighty feet in height.

Great Britain is, of all other countries, the moſt proper for trade; as well from its ſituation as an iſland, as from the freedom and excellency of its conſtitution, and from its natural products, and conſiderable manufactures. For exportation, our country produces many of the moſt ſubſtantial and neceſſary commodities. Our horſes are the moſt ſerviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardineſs, beauty, and ſtrength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry, biſcuit, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreign veſſels that come and go. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcaſes, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almoſt incredible is the value likewiſe of other goods from hence exported.

There is ſcarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England; and therefore it is perfectly unneceſſary to enumerate them all. The woollen manufacture is the moſt conſiderable, and exceeds in goodneſs and quantity that of any other nation. Hardware is another capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other arms, exceed any thing of the kind; houſehold utenſils of braſs, iron, and pewter, alſo are very great articles; and our clocks and watches are in great eſteem. There are but few manufactures in which we are defective.

The trade to the Eaſt-Indies is carried on by individuals, termed the Eaſt-India Company. Their exports to that part of the world conſiſt in broad cloths,

cloths, and other articles of the woollen manufacture, all ſorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quickſilver. Their imports conſiſt of gold, diamonds, raw ſilk, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelaine or china-ware, ſalt-petre for home conſumption, wrought ſilks, muſlins, callicos, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, many of which they export again to other countries, the conſumption of them being prohibited in England. The Eaſt-India-Company is one of the richeſt and moſt flouriſhing in Europe.

Having treated of the trade, commerce, and manufactures of England, it remains that we add ſomething with regard to the Stocks. Though the word ſtock originally ſignified no more than a particular ſum of money contributed to the eſtabliſhing a fund for enabling a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the perſon became a partner in that commerce, and received a ſhare of the profits, in proportion to the money advanced; yet the term has been further extended, though improperly, to ſignify any ſum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving an annual intereſt till the ſum is repaid, and conſequently makes a part of the national debt; becauſe moſt of the money advanced to the government was done by the trading companies.

When the national funds were at firſt eſtabliſhed the money borrowed was transferrable at any time, either in whole or in part, from one perſon to another. This neceſſary clauſe of transferring ſtock, has given riſe to that pernicious practice of ſtock-jobbing, which is one of the ſpecies of gaming ſo deſtructive to this country. The method is this: The perſons concerned in this practice, make contracts to buy or ſell for ſome ſettled price, at a certain diſtant time, a certain quantity of ſome particular ſtock. The contract being made, every art is made uſe of either to riſe or lower ſuch ſtock, by rumours and fictitious ſtories, that people may be induced to ſell out in a hurry, and conſequently cheap, if they are to deliver ſtock; or become unwilling to ſell, and thence raiſe the price, if they are to receive ſtock. For the value of ſtock, as well as that of all other merchandize, will be always proportional to the number of buyers and ſellers: if there are more of the former than the latter, a perſon who is indifferent about ſelling will not part with his property without a conſiderable profit to himſelf: on the countrary, if the ſellers exceed the buyers, the value of ſtock will naturally fall in proportion to the impatience of thoſe who are deſirous of ſelling.

Theſe contracts are generally made by perſons who were never poſſeſſed of any real ſtock; ſo that when the time of delivery arrives, they only pay ſuch a ſum of money as makes the difference between the price mentioned in the contract, and that of the price of ſtock when the contract is fulfilled. The buyer is called the Bull, and the ſeller the Bear, in the polite language of Exchange-Alley. It will not be ſurpriſing that even falſe rumours ſhould produce conſiderable effects in the price of ſtocks, when it is remembered, that every thing which affects the hopes, the fears, and paſſions of the proprietors, ſo far as they regard the ſituation of public concerns, muſt raiſe or lower their current value. Public credit depends in a great meaſure on the ſuppoſed ſtability of the eſtabliſhed government: every incident, therefore, that proves unfavourable to the government, will have more or leſs effect on the public credit, which is the foundation of the ſtocks, and the ſecurity of the proprietors: when any thing of that kind happens, timorous people will endeavour to make ſure of their own private fortunes, by turning their ſtock into ſpecie; and, rather than run the riſk of loſing the whole, they will ſell it at a lower price; for when the demand is ſmall, and the commodity abounds, the market falls of courſe. The very reverſe is the conſequence when any incident happens in favour of the government.

§

The word ſtock is not confined to the national debt, it alſo ſignifies the capital of a company, raiſed for ſome particular purpoſe, and limited by parliament to ſome certain ſum. When this fund is completed, no ſtock can be purchaſed from the company; but the ſhares already purchaſed may be transferred from one perſon to another. Hence we ſee the reaſon why the value of one ſtock is greater than that of another, becauſe the produce per cent. is greater in ſome than in the others. But it muſt be obſerved, that the ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company that produces any ſum, a thouſand pounds for inſtance, per annum, will not ſell for ſo much money as a government annuity producing the ſame ſum, becauſe the ſecurity of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government; and, at the ſame time, the continuance of their paying ſo much per annum is more precarious, as their dividends are, or ought to be, always proportional to the profits of their trade.

The firſt idea of the Eaſt-India-Company was formed in queen Elizabeth's time, but it has ſince undergone great alterations. Its ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, were originally only 50l. ſterling; and its capital only 369,891l. 5s. but the directors having a conſiderable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the ſhares were doubled, ſo that each became of 100l. value, and the capital 739,782l. 10s. to which capital, if 963,619l. 10s. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole ſtock will appear to be 1,703,402l. After the Revolution, a new company was erected, under the authority of parliament, and, after violent ſtruggles between that and the old, they were both united, in the year 1702, by an indenture tripartite.

In the year 1708, the yearly fund of eight per cent. for two millions was reduced to five per cent, by a loan of 1,200,000l. to the public, without any additional intereſt; for which conſideration, the company obtained a prolongation of its excluſive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt-Indies." A further ſum was lent by the company in 1730, by which, though the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the intereſt of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000l. was reduced to three per cent. and called the India three per cent. annuities: the proprietors of which, inſtead of a regular annuity, have a dividend of the profits ariſing from the company's trade: India bonds (erroneouſly denominated ſtock) are to be accepted, they being made payable at ſix months notice, either by the company or the poſſeſſor.

There are twenty-four directors of this company; their meetings are at leaſt once a week; and out of their body are choſen ſeveral committees, who have the peculiar inſpection of certain branches of the company's buſineſs: 2000l. is the qualification for a director. Formerly 500l, but now 1000l. entitles ſuch a proprietor of ſtock, whether man or woman, native or foreigner, to be a manager, and gives a vote in the general council.

The company's amazing territorial acquiſitions, and other cauſes, induced the legiſlature, to lay a reſtriction on their dividends for a certain time. From the report of the committee in 1773, appointed by parliament in India affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to 1756, for the ſpace of forty-ſeven years and an half, divided the ſum of 12,000,000l. or above 280,000l. per annum, which, on a capital of 3,190,000l. amounted to above eight and a half per cent. the capital ſtock had alſo been increaſed 180,000l. In 1773, an act paſſed, for "eſtabliſhing certain rules and orders, for the future management of the affairs of the Eaſt-India-Company, as well in India as in Europe," by which conſiderable alterations were made reſpecting qualifications for voting, the courts in India, the governors, judges

judges ſalaries, &c. This was deemed an extraordinary act, adding an immenſe power and influence to the crown, without benefiting the company.

In November 1783, Mr. Fox, then Secretary of State, introduced a bill, the intention of which was, to veſt the whole powers of the India-Company in ſeven Directors, by him named, who were to hold their offices four years, removeable, like the twelve judges, by an addreſs of either Houſe of Parliament, and not by any other power; and for managing the commercial affairs of the Company, nine gentlemen, moved for and adopted in the ſame manner, were to aſſiſt them, ſubject to their control, and removeable by them. The effect of this was, to veſt in theſe ſeven Directors the whole influence of the offices of every kind in India, and at home, belonging to the Company; and many other means of influence. This bill paſſed the Commons; but as the Lords conceived it placed too dangerous a power in the hands of any men, and operated againſt the neceſſary power of the crown, they therefore threw it out by a majority of nineteen.

The parliament and adminiſtration of 1784, ſeemed diſpoſed to be friendly to the company, whoſe intereſts had been greatly injured by their ſervants both at home and abroad. The nabobs, rajahs, and natives of India have been by turns haraſſed and deſpoiled under their management, and many parts of that fine country depopulated. The Company's governors abroad have guards of ſoldiers, and live in all the ſtate of ſovereign princes. Theſe irregularities paved the way for a new bill, which paſſed at the cloſe of the ſeſſions 1784, by which were intended three things: firſt, The eſtabliſhing a power of control in this kingdom, by which the executive government in India is to be connected with that over the reſt of the empire: ſecondly, The regulating the conduct of the Company's ſervants in India, in order to remedy the evils which have prevailed there: and, thirdly, The providing for the puniſhment of thoſe perſons who ſhall, nevertheleſs, continue in the practice of crimes which have brought diſgrace upon the country. This famous bill has a plauſible aſpect, and various opinions have been formed concerning it; ſome contend that the principal and plan thereof are fair, equitable, and honourable; but the following proteſt, ſigned, *Portland*, *Carliſle*, *Devonſhire*, *Cholmondeley*, *Northington*, was entered againſt it in the Houſe Lords: "Becauſe we think the principal of the bill falſe, unjuſt, and unconſtitutional: falſe, inaſmuch as it provides no effectual remedy for the evils it affects to cure; unjuſt, as it indiſcriminately compels all perſons returning from India to furniſh the means of accuſation and perſecution againſt themſelves; and unconſtitutional, becauſe it eſtabliſhes a new criminal court of judicature, in which the admiſſion of incompetent evidence is expreſsly directed, and the ſubject is unneceſſarily deprived of his moſt ineſtimable birthright, a trial by jury." This bill, like former ones, may be depoſited among the archives of the councils of the governments in the Eaſt-Indies, to lie in oblivion, or to be treated with contempt. Rapacity and violence, it is feared, will ſtill predominate; the moſt upright may be overpowered by violence, or be ſent home loaded with irons, to plead their cauſe for pretended crimes charged againſt them by the emiſſaries of powerful delinquents, whoſe peculations and rapacity they endeavoured in vain to repreſs.

Another great advantage to the commerce of England, is the Bank, which was inſtituted in the reign of king William III. under the ſanction of parliament. It is founded on a transferrable fund, and deals by paper circulations on the credit of a large capital. The notes of this company are of the ſame value as the current coin of the kingdom, into which they may be changed whenever the poſſeſſor thinks proper. Here individuals may depoſit their money in ſafety, receiving notes in exchange, which bear no intereſt it is true, but are much more convenient than having large ſums in ſpecie, being more portable, and capable of a much eaſier mode of conveyance. A bank note of very conſiderable value can be ſent to any part by the poſt; and to prevent the ill effects of robberies, they are uſually cut in two, part being ſent at one time, and part at another, which parts, when ſeparated are of no value, but on being joined again are as perfect as before. In order to put a more effectual ſtop to the deſigns of thoſe who rob the mails, or by any other illicit method become poſſeſſed of their notes, the Bank iſſues a number of bills, called Bank-Poſt-Bills, which are made payable to the order of the perſon who takes them out, at a certain number of days after ſight, which gives an opportunity to ſtop bills at the Bank if they ſhould be loſt, and prevents their being ſo eaſily negotiated by ſtrangers as a common Bank-Note. Another great benefit attending Bank-Notes is, that if they are deſtroyed by time, or any other accident, the Bank will, on oath made of ſuch accident, and ſecurity being given, pay the money to the perſon who was in poſſeſſion of them at the time ſuch accident happened.

Bank ſtock may not improperly be called a trading ſtock, ſince with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and ſilver, in diſcounting bills of exchange, &c. Beſides which, they are allowed by the government very conſiderable ſums annually, for the management of the annuities paid at their office. All which advantages render a ſhare in their ſtock very valuable; though it is not equal in value to the Eaſt-India ſtock. The company make dividends of the profits half yearly, of which notice is publicly given; when thoſe who have occaſion for their money, may readily receive it: but private perſons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their intereſt added to the principal.

In the beginning of the year 1797, a ſcarcity of ſpecie prevailing, and an alarm having been excited by the reports of an invaſion, the run became ſo great on ſeveral banks in the north, that they were unable to make their payments, and obliged to draw largely on the Bank, which having before advanced great ſums to government for foreign loans and public ſervices, found the drain of its ſpecie ſo great, as to be compelled to repreſent the preſſing neceſſity of the caſe to the miniſter. An order of the privy-council was in conſequence iſſued, prohibiting the Bank from paying in ſpecie, either notes or dividends; and a bill was brought into parliament to ſanction this order, and extend the prohibition to the 24th of June following; after which, it was ſtill further extended to one month after the next ſeſſion of parliament; and ſtill continues. To facilitate commercial intercourſe, bank-notes of one and two pounds were iſſued, and Spaniſh dollars, ſtamped by the Bank, were made current at 4s. 9d. But this being above their real value, and the price of ſilver ſoon after falling, ſuch numbers of counterfeit ſtamps appeared, that it was judged adviſable to call them all in; which was done, the Bank advertiſing, the beginning of October, 1797, that they would give caſh for them till the laſt day of that month, but no longer. After the firſt week, as it was apparent that a conſiderable loſs muſt be ſuſtained by the lower and middling claſſes, if all the counterfeit ſtamps were refuſed, the Bank, much to its honour, conſented to receive all that were not baſe ſilver.

On the occaſion of this prohibition of payment, a ſecret committee of the Houſe of Commons was appointed to examine the ſtate of the outſtanding demands on the Bank of England, and its funds for diſcharging the ſame. The ſtatement of theſe demands and funds, to the 25th of February, 1797, was as follows:

Outſtanding demands - - - - - - - - -	*L.*	13,770,390
Funds for diſcharging thoſe demands, not including the permanent debt due from government, of 11,686,000l. which bears an intereſt of three per cent.		17,597,280
Surplus of effects of the Bank, excluſive of the above-mentioned permanent debt of 11,686,800l.		3,826,890

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general-court, in the ſame manner as in the Eaſt India company. Thirteen, or more, compoſe a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

The officers and ſervants of this company are very numerous.

The SOUTH-SEA-COMPANY had its origin from the following circumſtances:—During the long war with France, in the reign of Queen Ann, the payment of the ſeamen in the royal navy being neglected, and they received tickets inſtead of money, were frequently obliged, by their neceſſities, to ſell theſe tickets to avaricious men at a diſcount of 40l. and 50l. per cent. By theſe and other means, the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, amounting to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of theſe uſurers. Whereupon Mr. Harley, afrerwards earl of Oxford, propoſed a ſcheme to allow the proprietors of theſe debts and deficiencies 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of "The Governor and Company of Merchants of Great-Britain trading to the South-Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fiſhery," &c. But the deſign of creating this company was never carried into execution, nor any trade ever undertaken by them, except the Aſſiento, in purſuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furniſhing the Spaniards with negroes; of which this company was deprived, upon receiving 100,000l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great-Britain and Spain in 1748, ſoon after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. Some other ſums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at ſix per cent; and in the third of George I. the intereſt of the whole was reduced to five per cent. and they advanced 2,000,000l. more to the government at the ſame intereſt. This company, by the ſtatute ſix George I. were impowered to redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in conſideration of which, the company had liberty to augment their capital, according to the ſums they ſhould diſcharge; beſides other powers they were by the ſame ſtatute inveſted with.

At firſt the company ſet out with good ſucceſs; and the value of their ſtock, for the firſt five years, had riſen faſter than that of any other company; and his majeſty, after purchaſing 10,000l. ſtock, had condeſcended to be their governor. Things were thus ſituated, when, taking advantage of the above ſtatute, the South-Sea bubble was projected: the pretended deſign of which was, to raiſe a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and purchaſing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: propoſals were then printed and diſtributed, ſhewing the advantages of the deſign, and inviting perſons into it. The ſum neceſſary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to ariſe from it, were divided into a certain number of ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by perſons diſpoſed to adventure therein; and the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared, that every 100l. original ſtock would yield 50l. per annum; which occaſioned ſo great a riſe of their ſtock, that a ſhare of 100l. was ſold for upwards of 800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150l. by which multitudes were ruined, and ſuch a ſcene of diſtreſs occaſioned, as is ſcarcely to be conceived. The conſequence of this infamous ſcheme are too well known; moſt of the directors were ſeverely fined, to the loſs of nearly all their property; and though ſome of them had no hand in the deception, nor gained a farthing by it, yet it was inſiſted they ought to have oppoſed, and endeavoured to prevent it, as far as lay in their power.

Several regulations reſpecting the capital ſtock and accompts of this company were made by a ſtatute ſix George II. when their ſtock amounted to 14,651,103l. 8s. 1d. Their annuities, &c. are now reduced to 3l. per cent. In every general court, each member having in his own name and right 500l. in trading ſtock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; if 3000l. three votes; and if 5000l. four votes. This company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no perſon is qualified to be governor, his majeſty excepted, unleſs ſuch governor has, in his own name and right, 5000l. in the trading ſtock: the ſub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the ſame ſtock.

This Company ſtill continue to divide four per cent. on their preſent capital ſtock: which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the ſums allowed to them for the management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the intereſt of annuities which are not claimed by the owners.

No expedient could have been thought of, which would have ſo far contributed to the extenſion of trade, as the practice of Inſurance, by which means every merchant can ſecure his cargo from the danger of ſeas and enemies. Inſurance is performed in the following manner: when a perſon is diſpoſed to inſure the whole or any part of his cargo, he employs a broker, who, in a printed policy of inſurance, ſpecifies the name of the ſhip in which the cargo is embarked, the voyage upon which ſhe is bound, the value of the merchandize, and the conditions of inſurance. This he preſents to different merchants who are willing to underwrite, and they ſubſcribe their names for different ſums, as they think proper, until the whole value is ſubſcribed, receiving in the mean time the premium, each in proportion to the ſum he has underwritten; after which, if the ſhip is caſt away, or taken by the enemy, ſo that the cargo is loſt, the proprietor has recourſe upon the inſurers, who are obliged to indemnify him, by paying the reſpective ſums they ſubſcribed.

Beſides ſeveral private offices for inſurance, where the above policies of private underwriters are duly entered and regiſtered, there are two corporations eſtabliſhed for this purpoſe by act of parliament, by the titles of the Royal-Exchange-Aſſurance, and the London Aſſurance. They have each an excluſive privilege againſt all other inſuring ſocieties for ſhipping and merchandizes, but this does not interfere with any man's private right of inſuring.

The CONSTITUTION of England may properly be ſaid to partake of monarchy ariſtocracy, and democracy; for the executive power of the laws being lodged in a ſingle perſon, they have all the advantages of ſtrength and diſpatch that are to be found in abſolute monarchy: ſecondly, the king, and the lords ſpiritual and temporal, was to form an ariſtocracy; and thirdly, the Houſe of Commons being freely choſen by the people from among themſelves, make a democracy. Theſe three bodies conſtitute the Britiſh parliament, which has the ſupreme diſpoſal of every thing; and there can be no inconvenience attempted by either of the three branches, but will be withſtood by one of the other two, each branch being armed with a negative power, ſufficient to repel any innovation which it may think inexpedient or dangerous. In no other

manner

manner whatever could theſe three forms of government have been ſo prudently and ſo happily united. Our excellent conſtitution is ſo admirably contrived, that nothing can endanger or hurt it, but the deſtroying the equilibrium of power between one branch of the legiſlature and the reſt.

The principal duty of the king is to govern his people according to law. And it is expreſsly declared, by the 12th and 13th ſtatutes of William III. that "the laws of England are the birth-right of the people thereof; and all the kings and queens who ſhall aſcend the throne of this realm, ought to adminiſter the government of the ſame, according to the ſaid laws; and all their officers and miniſters ought to ſerve them reſpectively according to the ſame: and therefore all the laws and ſtatutes of this realm, for ſecuring the eſtabliſhed religion, and the rights and liberties of the people thereof, and all other laws and ſtatutes of the ſame now in force, are by his majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, by authority of the ſame, ratified and confirmed accordingly."

The original contract between king and people, is now couched in the coronation oath, and adminiſtered to every king or queen who ſhall ſucceed to the imperial crown of the realm, by one of the archbiſhops or biſhops of the realm, in the preſence of all the people; who, on their parts, alſo reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. The king engages, by his oath, to govern his people and dominions according to the ſtatutes, laws, or cuſtoms agreed on in parliament.—To cauſe law and juſtice to be executed in all his judgments.—To maintain, to the utmoſt of his power, the laws of God, the true profeſſion of the goſpel, and the Proteſtant reformed religion; and to preſerve to the biſhops, clergy, and churches, all their rights and privileges.

One of the principal bulwarks of civil liberty, or of the Britiſh conſtitution, was the limitation of the king's prerogative, by bounds ſo certain and notorious, that it is impoſſible he ſhould ever exceed them, without the conſent of the people on one hand; or without a violation of that original contract which expreſsly ſubſiſts between the prince and the ſubject on the other

The king, by virtue of his prerogative, may reject bills, make treaties, coin money, create peers, and pardon offences, at his pleaſure; unleſs where the conſtitution hath expreſsly, or by evident conſequence, laid down ſome exception or boundary, declaring that the prerogative ſhall go no further than to ſuch an extent. But though the king may exerciſe theſe prerogatives, yet if the conſequences of that exertion evidently tend to the diſadvantage or diſhonour of the kingdom, the parliament will call his adviſers to a juſt and ſevere account. The king may, for inſtance, make a treaty with a foreign ſtate, which ſhall bind the nation; and yet, when ſuch treaties have been judged pernicious, impeachments have purſued thoſe miniſters by whoſe agency they were concluded. The king may alſo levy armies and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the ſuppreſſion of rebellions; grant commiſſions to his officers, both by ſea and land, or revoke them at pleaſure; diſpoſe of all magazines, caſtles, &c. ſummon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or diſſolve it; and may refuſe his aſſent to any bill, though it has paſſed both houſes. He poſſeſſes alſo the right of chooſing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of ſtate, of the houſehold, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived.

To endeavour at tracing the original inſtitution of parliaments, would be attempting an impoſſibility, as all accounts which have been tranſmitted to us on that head are equally vague and unſatisfactory. It is, however, univerſally agreed, that the foundation of parliament, as it now ſtands, was laid in the great charter granted by king John, in the year 1215, wherein he promiſes to ſummon all archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, earls, and greater barons, perſonally; and all other tenants in chief under the crown, by the ſheriffs and bailiffs; to meet at a certain place, after forty days notice, to aſſeſs aids and ſcrutages when neceſſary.

According to the preſent form of parliament, the king alone has the power of aſſembling it, which is done by his writ or letter iſſued out of chancery, by advice of the privy-council, at leaſt forty days before it begins to ſit; and this he is obliged to do every year, or oftener, if need be. The ſitting of parliament muſt not be intermitted above three years.

The parliament conſiſts of the king and the three eſtates of the realm, viz. the lords ſpiritual and temporal, who ſit, together with the king, in one houſe; and the commons, who ſit by themſelves, in another.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of the two archbiſhops of Canterbury and York, and twenty-four biſhops, who hold, or are ſuppoſed to hold, certain baronies under the king. In the eye of the law, and in moſt acts of parliament, the lords ſpiritual are conſidered as a diſtinct eſtate from the lords temporal; but in practice they are generally blended together, under the one name of the lords: they intermix in their votes, and the majority of ſuch intermixture binds both eſtates. The biſhops, however, are not conſidered as peers of the realm, but merely lords of parliament. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers of the realm by whatever title diſtinguiſhed; dukes, marquiſes, earls, viſcounts, or barons. Some of theſe ſit by deſcent, as do all ancient peers; ſome by creation, as do all new-made ones; others by election, which is the caſe of the ſixteen peers, who repreſent the body of the Scots nobility.

The commons conſiſt of ſuch men of conſiderable property in the kingdom, as have not ſeats in the houſe of lords; every one of whom has a voice in parliament, either perſonally, or by his repreſentatives. The counties are repreſented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands; and the cities and boroughs are repreſented by citizens and burgeſſes, choſen by the mercantile part, or ſuppoſed trading intereſt of the nation. The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513, and of Scots 54, in all 558; and every member, though choſen for one particular diſtrict, when elected and returned, ſerves for the whole realm; his buſineſs not being confined to the advantage of his conſtituents only, but to that of the commonwealth; and to adviſe his majeſty: therefore he is not bound to conſult with, or take the advice of his conſtituents upon any particular point, unleſs he thinks it proper or prudent ſo to do.

The king, and theſe three eſtates, when aſſembled, form the great corporation, or body politic of the nation; and when they firſt come together, the king meets them, either in perſon, or by his repreſentative, without which there can be no commencement of parliament. Each of theſe eſtates are equally neceſſary, the conſent of all three being required to make any new law which is to bind the ſubject; therefore whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two of the three, is no ſtatute, and no regard is due to it, unleſs in matters relating to their own privileges. But the parliament, conſidered as one body, has ſovereign and uncontroulable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, reſtraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all poſſible denominations, eccleſiaſtical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal. All miſchiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that tranſcend the ordinary courſe of the laws, are within the reach of this high tribunal. It can regulate or new-model the ſucceſſion to the crown; alter the eſtabliſhed religion of the land; change and create afreſh even the conſtitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themſelves;

ſelves; and, in ſhort, do every thing which is not naturally impoſſible to be done. But, as terrible conſequences might enſue from placing ſuch unbounded authority in perſons, who may prove incapable or improper to manage it, the law enacts that no one can ſit in either houſe of parliament unleſs he be twenty-one years of age: that no member ſhall vote or ſit in either houſe, till he hath in the preſence of that houſe taken the oaths of allegiance, ſupremacy, and abjuration; and ſubſcribed and repeated the declaration againſt tranſubſtantiation, invocation of ſaints, and the ſacrifice of the maſs: and that no alien born out of the dominions of the crown of Great Britain, even though he be naturalized, ſhall be capable of being a member of either houſe of parliament.

The high court of parliament, like every other court of juſtice, has its own peculiar law, which is founded on the following baſis, viz. "that whatever matter ariſes concerning either houſe of parliament, ought to be examined, diſcuſſed, and adjudged in that houſe to which it relates, and not elſewhere." The privileges of parliament are indefinite; but amongſt the moſt remarkable of them are, privilege of ſpeech, of perſons, of domeſtics, and of lands and goods. Both houſes of parliament have laws and cuſtoms peculiar to each; but thoſe of the upper houſe are by far the moſt extenſive, as are likewiſe its privileges. It is the higheſt court of judicature in the kingdom, and from its ſentence there is no appeal.

The members of parliament have a right, and are conſtantly attended by the judges of the courts of King's-bench, Common-pleas, and ſuch of the barons of the Exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made ſerjeants at law, as alſo by the maſters of the court of chancery, for their advice in point of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings. Formerly the ſecretaries of ſtate, the attorney and ſolicitor-general, and the reſt of the king's counſel, being ſerjeants, uſed to attend the houſe of peers, and to this day their regular writs of ſummons are iſſued out at the beginning of every parliament; but many of them having been of late years members of the houſe of commons, their attendance is diſpenſed with. Every peer may, by licence obtained from the king, make another lord of parliament his proxy, to vote for him in his abſence; and he has alſo a right, by leave of the houſe, when a vote paſſes contrary to his ſentiments, to enter his diſſent on the journals of the houſe, with the reaſons for ſuch diſſent, which is uſually ſtyled his proteſt. All bills likewiſe that may in their conſequences any way affect the rights of the peerage, are by the cuſtom of parliament to have their firſt riſe and beginning in the houſe of peers, and to ſuffer no changes or amendments in the houſe of commons.

The peculiar laws and cuſtoms of the houſe of commons conſiſt principally in the raiſing of taxes, and the election of members to ſerve in parliament. It always has been their indiſputable right and privilege, that all grants of ſubſidies, and parliamentary aids, ſhould begin in the lower houſe, and be firſt beſtowed by them; though their grants are not to all intents and purpoſes effectual, until they have received the aſſent of the other two branches of the legiſlature; and ſo jealous are they of this valuable privilege, that they will not ſuffer the other houſe to exert any other power herein, but that of rejecting; not allowing them to make the leaſt alteration or amendment to the mode of taxing the people by a money bill; which is the appellation given to all bills whereby money is to be raiſed upon the ſubject.

For the more ready diſpatch of buſineſs, each houſe has its ſpeaker: that of the houſe of lords, is the lord-chancellor, or ſome other nobleman appointed by the king's commiſſion; but that of the houſe of commons is choſen by its own members, and muſt be approved of by his majeſty.

With reſpect to a bill, if the relief ſought by it is of a private nature, a petition muſt be preſented before it is brought into the houſe; which petition uſually ſets forth the grievance deſired to be remedied, and is always preſented by a member. Sometimes upon the mere petition, leave is given to bring in the bill; but, if it is founded on facts which may be in their nature diſputed, it is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alledged, and, according to their report, it is admitted or rejected: if the former, the perſons directed to bring in the bill, in a competent time preſent it to the houſe, drawn out upon paper, with a number of blanks, where any thing occurs that is dubious, or neceſſary to be ſettled by the parliament itſelf. This is read a firſt time, and at a convenient diſtance a ſecond time; and after each reading the ſpeaker opens to the houſe the ſubſtance of the bill, and puts the queſtion whether it ſhall proceed any further. The introduction of the bill may be originally oppoſed, as the bill itſelf may at either of the readings; and, if the oppoſition ſucceeds, the bill muſt be dropped for that ſeſſion; as it muſt alſo, if oppoſed with ſucceſs, in any of the ſubſequent ſtages.

If the bill obtains a ſecond reading, it is committed, or referred to a committee, which, in matters of ſmall importance, is appointed by the houſe; but, upon a bill of conſequence, the houſe reſolves itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe: the ſpeaker then quits the chair, which is filled by another member, and ſits and debates as a private member. In theſe committees the bill is debated clauſe by clauſe, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and ſometimes the bill entirely new modelled. After it has paſſed the committee, the chairman reports it to the houſe, with ſuch amendments as the committee have made; and then the houſe reconſiders the whole bill again, and the queſtion is repeatedly put upon every clauſe and amendment. When the houſe have agreed or diſagreed to the amendments of the committee, and ſometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engroſſed, that is, written in a ſtrong groſs hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment ſewed together. When this is finiſhed, it is read a third time, and amendments are ſometimes then made to it; and if a new clauſe be added, it is done by tacking a ſeparate piece of parchment upon the bill, which is called a rider. The ſpeaker then again opens the contents; and, holding it up in his hands, puts the queſtion, whether the bill ſhall paſs? If this paſſes in the affirmative, the title to it is then ſettled, and one of the members is ordered to preſent it to the lords for their concurrence. Accordingly, being attended by ſeveral more members, he carries it to the bar of the houſe of peers, and there delivers it to their ſpeaker, who comes down from his woolſack to receive it. Here it paſſes through the ſame forms as in the lower houſe, except that of engroſſing; when, if it is rejected, no more notice is taken of it: but, if it is agreed to, the lords ſend a meſſage by two maſters in chancery, or by two of the judges, that they have agreed to the ſame; and the bill remains with the lords. But, if the upper houſe have made amendments in the bill, which ſometimes happens, both amendments and bill are returned to the houſe of commons to receive their concurrence. If the commons diſagree to the amendments, a conference between ſome members, deputed from each houſe, uſually follows, who generally adjuſt the difference; but if both houſes remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. On the other hand, if the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is ſent back to the lords by one of the members, with a meſſage to acquaint them therewith.

When a bill begins in the Houſe of Lords, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the ſtate of the facts alledged; to ſee that all neceſſary parties conſent, and to ſettle all points of technical propriety; after which

which the ſame forms are obſerved as in the Houſe of Commons. But when an act of grace or pardon is paſſed, it is firſt ſigned by the king, and then read once only in each of the houſes, without any new engroſſing or amendment.

When both houſes have done with a bill, it is always depoſited in the Houſe of Peers to wait the royal aſſent; except in the caſe of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is ſent back to the Houſe of Commons.

The royal aſſent to a bill may be given two ways: firſt in perſon; when the king comes to the Houſe of Peers, in his crown and royal robes, and ſending for the commons to the bar, the titles of all the bills that have paſſed both houſes are read, and his majeſty's anſwers are declared by the clerk of parliament in Norman French, to the following effect; if he conſents to a public bill, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it ſo to be;" if to a private bill, *ſoit fait comme il eſt deſiré*, "be it as it is deſired." If he refuſes his conſent, *le roy s'aviſera*, "the king will adviſe upon it." When he aſſents to a money-bill, *le roy remercie ſes royals ſujects, accepte leur benevolence, et auſſi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal ſubjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it ſo to be." When an act of grace is paſſed, the clerk of parliament pronounces the gratitude of the ſubjects in Norman French to the following purport. *Les prelats, ſeigneurs, et communs, en ce preſent parlement aſſemblés, au nom de touts vos autres ſubjects, remercient très humblement votre majeſté, et prient à Dieu vous donner en ſanté bonne vie et longue;* "The prelates, lords, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, in the name of all your other ſubjects, moſt humbly thank your majeſty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." The ſecond method whereby the king may give his aſſent, is by letters patent under his great ſeal, ſigned with his hand, and notified, in his abſence, to both houſes aſſembled together in the Houſe of Lords. When a bill has received the royal aſſent in either of theſe ways, it is then, and not before, a ſtatute, or act of parliament, and it cannot be altered, amended, diſpenſed with, ſuſpended, or repealed, but in the ſame forms, and by the ſame authority of parliament.

Parliaments are ſubject to adjouruments, prorogations, and diſſolutions. An adjournment is only the continuance of the ſeſſion from one day to another, and is done by the authority of each houſe, ſeparately, every day, and ſometimes for a fortnight or a month together: but the adjournment of one houſe is no adjournment to the other.

A prorogation is the continuance of parliament from one ſeſſion to another; and is done by the royal authority, expreſſed either by the lord-chancellor in his majeſty's preſence, or by commiſſion from the crown or frequently by proclamation.

A diſſolution is the civil death of the parliament, and may be effected three ways; firſt, by the king's will, expreſſed either in perſon, or by repreſentation; ſecondly, by the demiſe of the crown; and thirdly, by length of time. Under different monarchs this period has been extended and contracted; but as our conſtitution now ſtands, the parliament muſt expire at the end of every ſeventh year, if not ſooner diſſolved by the royal prerogative.

The laws of England have aſſigned the king a diverſity of councils, in order to aſſiſt him in the diſcharge of his duties, and the exertion of his prerogative. Among theſe the firſt is the high court of parliament, already conſidered. The ſecond are the peers of the realm, who are by their dignity hereditary counſellors, and may be called together to impart their advice, in all matters of importance to the realm, either in time of parliament, or, when there is no parliament in being. And beſides this general meeting, each individual peer of the realm has a right to demand an audience of the king, and to lay before him, with decency and reſpect, ſuch matters as he judges of importance to the public weal. A third council belonging to the king, are his judges of the courts of law, with regard to all matters concerning the laws of England.

The principal council belonging to the king is his privy-council, generally called, by way of eminence, "The Council." The king's will is the ſole conſtituent of a privy-counſellor, and this alſo regulates their number, which was formerly twelve. Afterwards it increaſed to ſo large a number, that it was found inconvenient for ſecrecy and diſpatch; and accordingly king Charles II. in the year 1679, limited the number to thirty; fifteen whereof were to be principal officers of ſtate, and the other fifteen compoſed of ten lords and five commoners, choſen by the king. At the ſame time the ancient office of lord preſident of the council was revived in the perſon of Anthony, earl of Shafteſbury. That office is ſtill continued; but the number of counſellors has ſince been greatly augmented, and now continues indefinite. Privy-counſellors are made by the king's nomination, without patent or grant, and ſubject to removal at his diſcretion. Every privy-counſellor, before he takes his ſeat at the council-board, muſt take the oath of office, in which are contained all the duties of his function, conſiſting of the ſeven following articles: 1. To adviſe the king according to the beſt of his cunning and diſcretion. 2. To adviſe for the king's honour and the good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, meed, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counſel ſecret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and ſtrengthen the execution of what ſhall be there reſolved. 6. To withſtand all perſons who would attempt the contrary. And 7. To obſerve, keep, and do all that a good and true counſellor ought to do for his ſovereign lord. The power of the privy-council conſiſts in inquiring into all offences againſt the government, and in committing offenders to ſafe cuſtody, in order to take their trial in ſome of the courts of law. But their juriſdiction does not extend to puniſhment, and the perſons committed by them are entituled to their Habeas Corpus, equally with thoſe committed by an ordinary juſtice of the peace. In this counſel the civil government is regulated, and every new meaſure of the adminiſtration propoſed and planned. Here alſo all the appeals from Ireland and the plantations are determined. The privy-counſellors ſit at the board bare-headed when the king preſides in perſon. In all debates the loweſt delivers his opinion firſt; and the ſovereign, at laſt, by declaring his ſentiments, determines the queſtion. A privy-counſellor, though a gentleman only, takes precedence of all knights and younger ſons of barons, and his perſon is held ſacred.

Upon any unforeſeen emergency, which the laws do not take cognizance of, the privy council can ſupply the deficiency. And it has more than once, in times of the moſt urgent neceſſity, ſuch as famine and the like, ventured to ſuperſede the operations of the law, when no parliament was ſitting. But in theſe caſes, it is always neceſſary, at the firſt meeting of the parliament, to procure an act for the pardon and indemnification of all concerned in ſuch illegal proceedings. It muſt alſo be remembered, that every privy-counſellor is reſponſible for his advice and conduct.

Beſides the privy-council, there is another, called the Cabinet-council, conſiſting of a ſelect number of noblemen and miniſters ſelected by the king; and in this council the capital affairs of government are determined. This council is unknown to the Engliſh conſtitution, notwithſtanding its decrees are powerful and extenſive.

The two ſecretaries of ſtate are more official than any others of the privy-counſellors. They are entruſted with the moſt important ſecrets of government,

ſome of which are improper to be communicated even to the privy-council. The number of ſecretaries of ſtate has not been always the ſame; ſometimes there have been three, and ſometimes only one; as, for inſtance, during the American war, there was a third appointed to manage the affairs of that department. The office of ſecretary of ſtate is ſeparated into two diviſions, called the northern and ſouthern departments, one of the ſecretaries executing the buſineſs of the former, and the other that of the latter. The northern department comprehends the ſtates of Germany, Pruſſia, Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the towns comprehended in the Hanſeatic league. The ſouthern contains France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiſs cantons, Conſtantinople, and all other ſtates in the ſouthern parts.

For the more regular and ſpeedy conducting the multiplicity of affairs of government, one of the members of the cabinet-council is generally conſidered as firſt miniſter, though that name is unknown to the conſtitution of England, and conſequently there is no office of that kind. A reſponſibility for all the tranſactions of government is however always annexed to the title, which renders it a poſt of great danger and difficulty.

The great officers of the crown take place next to the princes of the blood, and the two primates: they are nine in number, viz. the lord high ſteward, the lord chancellor, the lord treaſurer, the lord preſident of the council, the lord privy-ſeal, the lord chamberlain, the lord high conſtable, the earl marſhal, and the lord high admiral.

The lord high ſteward is the firſt officer of the crown. This is an office very ancient, and formerly was hereditary, or at leaſt for life; but now, and for centuries paſt, it is exerciſed only occaſionally; that is, at a coronation, or to ſit as judge on a peer or peereſs, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held for that day only, by ſome high nobleman. In caſes of trials, it is exerciſed generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper, whoſe commiſſion as high ſteward ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor preſides in the court of chancery, to moderate the ſeverities of the law, in all caſes where the property of the ſubject is concerned; and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reaſon. He is an officer of the greateſt weight and power of any now ſubſiſting in the kingdom, and is ſuperior in precedency to every temporal lord. He is a privy-counſellor by his office; and, according to ſome, prolocutor of the houſe of lords by preſcription. To him belongs the appointment of all juſtices of the peace; he is viſitor, in right of the king, of all hoſpitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of 20l. per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics, and hath the ſuperintendance of all charitable uſes in the kingdom, over and above the extenſive juriſdiction which he exerciſes in his judicial capacity in the court of chancery.

The lord high treaſurer is inveſted with his office by receiving a white ſtaff from the king; but, ſince the acceſſion of the preſent royal family, the office has been put into commiſſion, and the buſineſs of the revenue managed by five commiſſioners, called lords of the treaſury; but the preſiding commiſſioner is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the whole authority of the lord high treaſurer. The power of this officer is very great; for he has, in fact, the public finances in his hands, together with the letting leaſes of all the crown lands, and the gift of an amazing number of lucrative places.

The lord preſident of the council is created by letters patent under the great ſeal. He propoſes all the buſineſs tranſacted at the council-board, and, when the king is abſent, reports to him all the debates and proceedings. This is a place of great dignity, as well as difficulty.

The lord privy-ſeal is an officer of great truſt; all charters, pardons, and grants, ſigned by the king, paſs through his hands before they receive the confirmation of the great ſeal. He alſo ſeals warrants for penſions, and the payment of money in other affairs, which do not require the confirmation of the great ſeal. He is reſponſible if he gives the ſanction of the privy-ſeal to any thing contrary to the laws of the land.

The office of lord chamberlain of England is hereditary in the duke of Ancaſter's family. This officer has great power, and enjoys a conſiderable number of perquiſites. He takes care to provide every neceſſary in the houſe of lords during the time of parliament; and the government of the whole palace, at Weſtminſter, belongs to him. He iſſues warrants for preparing and furniſhing Weſtminſter-Hall for coronations and trials of peers; and the gentleman-uſher of the black rod, with his deputies, are under his command. Upon ſolemn occaſions, the keys of Weſtminſter-hall, the court of wards, and court of requeſts, are delivered to him. He is entitled to livery and lodgings in the king's court, to certain fees from the biſhops when they do homage or fealty to the king, and alſo from all peers at their creation. At the ceremony of a coronation he receives forty ells of crimſon velvet for his own robes. His majeſty's night apparel alſo, together with the bed and furniture of the king's chamber, are his fees. At that ceremony he walks with a white ſtaff in his hand.

The lord high conſtable was formerly an officer of the higheſt truſt; he was commander of all the king's poſts and garriſons, and took place of all other military officers in the field. This poſt has not been uſed ſince the attainder and execution of Stafford, duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521, except at coronations, when a lord high conſtable is created to aſſiſt at that ſplendid ceremony.

The poſt of earl marſhal of England has long been hereditary in the duke of Norfolk's family. This office was formerly of great importance. The earl marſhal, in time of war, was judge of all martial cauſes, which he decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cauſe could not be decided by that method, it was left to a perſonal combat, which was attended with a vaſt variety of ceremonies, the regulation of which fell within the marſhal's province. He ſtill regulates all points of precedency according to the archives kept in the herald's office. He marſhals the ceremony at the proclamation and coronation of kings, their marriages, interviews, feſtivals, and funerals.

The office of lord high admiral of England is now put into commiſſion; the laſt who filled that poſt being George prince of Denmark, and huſband to queen Anne. The admiralty of England is a board of direction, as well as execution, and independent even of the crown itſelf in its proceedings. The board of admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and either names all its officers, or confirms them when named; ſo that its power is very extenſive. All proceedings in the court of admiralty are determined according to the maxims of the civil law; except trials for piracy, murder, and other capital offences, when the criminals are tried according to the laws of England, by witneſſes and a jury; by a ſpecial commiſſion of the king to the lord high admiral, ſome of the judges being always commiſſioners.

Courts of law and equity come next under conſideration. The principal of theſe, and next in dignity to the parliament, is the court of chancery, inſtituted as a court of equity to mitigate, in many caſes, the ſeverity of the common law, and to relieve the ſubject from frauds, breaches of truſt, and various other oppreſſions. The ſole judge of this court is the lord high chancellor, or, in his abſence, the maſter of

of the rolls. The proceedings of this court are carried on by bills, anſwers, and decrees, regulated on the principles of conſcience and equity. The lord chancellor is provided with twelve aſſiſtants, called maſters in chancery; the principal of which is ſtyled maſter of the rolls, becauſe all the records of this court are committed to his care. The clerk of the crown likewiſe belongs to this court, he or his deputy being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he ſits for the diſpatch of buſineſs.

The court of chancery is always open; and the lord chancellor has the power of granting an Habeas Corpus for a perſon ſent to priſon, provided ſufficient reaſons are alledged. This court alſo iſſues writs of ſummons for parliaments, charters, protections, ſafe-conducts, and patents for ſheriffs; and in this court are ſealed and enrolled all letters patent, treaties with foreign princes; all deeds touching the purchaſe of lands or eſtates, extents upon ſtatutes, recognizances for payment of money, and ſecuring contracts, commiſſions of appeal, and of oyer and terminer.

The higheſt court of common law in England, is the King's Bench, and is ſo called, becauſe formerly the kings of England preſided here in perſon. But this has for many years been laid aſide, and the royal power veſted in the lord chief juſtice of the king's bench, ſtyled, by way of eminence, the lord chief juſtice of England. He is created by a writ from the ſovereign, and aſſiſted by three inferior judges, conſtituted by letters patent; theſe are ſtyled juſtices, or judges of the king's bench. This court takes cognizance of every thing that concerns the loſs of life or member of any ſubject, of treaſons, felonies, breaches of the peace, oppreſſion, miſ-government, and, in a word, all matters determinable by common law, between the king and his ſubjects. It is alſo a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and juſtices of the peace; has a power to rectify errors and miſtakes in the ſentences of inferior courts, except thoſe of the exchequer, its juriſdiction extending all over the kingdom; for the law preſumes that the ſovereign is always perſonally preſent. It has alſo a power to grant prohibitions in any cauſe depending either in the ſpiritual or temporal courts; and the houſe of peers often directs to the lord chief juſtice to iſſue out his warrant for apprehending perſons under ſuſpicion of high crimes.

The court of Common Pleas is held by another lord chief juſtice, ſtyled lord chief juſtice of the common pleas, aſſiſted by three other juſtices of this court, created by letters patent. All civil cauſes, real, perſonal, and mixed, litigated between ſubject and ſubject, are determined here. None but ſerjeants at law are ſuffered to plead in this court, which has alſo the power of iſſuing prohibitions, like that of the king's bench.

The Exchequer is an ancient court of record, in which all cauſes touching the revenue and the rights of the crown, are heard and determined. The judges of this court are the lord chief baron, and three other barons; ſo called, becauſe formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Beſides theſe, there is alſo a curſitor baron, who adminiſters the oath to all high ſheriffs, bailiffs, auditors, receivers, collectors, comptrollers, ſurveyors, and ſearchers of all the cuſtom-houſes in England. The exchequer includes two courts, one of law, another of equity. All judicial proceedings at law are litigated before the barons; but the court of equity is held in the exchequer chamber, before the treaſurer, chancellor, and barons. Beſides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the exchequer, the king's remembrancer, who takes and ſtates all accounts of the revenue, cuſtoms, exciſe, parliamentary aids, ſubſidies, &c. and the lord treaſurer's remembrancer, whoſe buſineſs it is to make out proceſſes againſt ſheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

The duchy chamber of Lancaſter conſiſts of the chancellor of the duchy as chief judge, aſſiſted by the attorney of the duchy, and other officers. This court takes cognizance of all cauſes relative to the revenue of that duchy.

All theſe courts are held in Weſtminſter-hall, and opened at the four terms of Eaſter, Trinity, Michaelmas, and Hilary.

But though the principal courts are held in the capital, yet the country is not left without the means of obtaining juſtice without the expence of journies, &c. to Weſtminſter-hall. In order to this, England is divided into ſix circuits, and two judges allotted for each. Wales alſo is divided into two circuits, and the ſame number of judges aſſigned them. Theſe judges ſit at the principal or ſome other convenient town in every county twice a year, to hear and determine cauſes, both civil and criminal.

There are alſo courts of conſcience ſettled in many parts of England, for the relief of the poor, in the recovery or payment of ſmall debts, not exceeding 40s.

In a well regulated ſtate, it is not enough that proper judges and courts of law are eſtabliſhed in the capital, and the counties viſited twice a year by the judges; magiſtrates muſt alſo be appointed to reſide in every diſtrict, in order to keep the peace and preſerve good order and harmony in all parts of the kingdom. The principal of theſe officers are ſheriffs, coroners, juſtices of the peace, conſtables, ſurveyors of the highways, and overſeers of the poor.

The ſheriff, or high-ſheriff, is an officer of very great antiquity in this kingdom, as we may find obſerved in ſome accounts of the diviſions of England. His power and duties are very extenſive; both with regard to a judge, a keeper of the king's peace, a miniſterial officer of the ſuperior courts of juſtice, and the king's bailiff. In his judicial capacity he is to hear and determine all cauſes of forty ſhillings value and under, in his county court. He is to decide the elections of knights of the ſhire (ſubject to the controul of the houſe of commons) of coroners, and of verdurers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return, ſuch as he ſhall determine to be duly elected. As keeper of the king's peace, he is the firſt man in the county, during his office; and in order to this he may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *poſſe comitatus*, or power of the county. In his miniſterial capacity he is bound to execute all proceſſes iſſuing out of the king's courts of juſtice; and carry all ſentences into execution. As the king's bailiff, he muſt preſerve the rights of the king within his bailiwick. He muſt ſeize to the king's uſe all lands devolved to the crown, by attainder or eſcheat; and levy all fines and forfeitures.

In each county, there are two coroners. This officer, in his miniſterial character, is the ſheriff's ſubſtitute. He is to enquire, by a jury of neighbours, how or by whom any perſon came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of his office is, to enquire concerning ſhipwrecks, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in poſſeſſion of the goods. The coroner is choſen for life; but may be removed on promotion, or for neglect, miſbehaviour, &c.

The next ſpecies of magiſtrates, ſubordinate to the ſheriffs, are juſtices of the peace; the principal of whom is the *cuſtos rotulorum*, or keeper of the records of the county. As peace is the very end and foundation of civil ſociety, the common law hath ever had a ſpecial care and regard for the conſervation of it. Accordingly, a ſufficient number of proper perſons, in every county, are appointed by the king's ſpecial commiſſion to keep the peace. Their power is very extenſive; but the buſineſs of the office is ſo great and of ſuch variety, that very few gentlemen of independent fortune care to engage in this troubleſome ſervice.

The power, office, and duty of a juſtice of peace, depend on his commiſſion, and on the ſeveral ſtatutes which

which have created objects of his jurisdiction. His commission, first, empowers him singly to conserve the peace in suppressing riots and affrays, in taking securities for the peace, and in apprehending and committing felons and other inferior criminals. It also empowers any two or more of them to hear and determine all felonies and other offences, which are the grounds of their jurisdiction at the sessions; these are held every quarter at the county town, where a jury of twelve men, called the grand inquest of the county, are summoned to appear. The duty of this inquest is to inquire into the cases of all delinquents, and to pronounce them guilty or not guilty of their indictments; the justices then commit the former to prison, in order to take their trial at the next assizes, if the crime be great, if otherwise, they order the allotted punishment; and discharge the latter. This short sketch of the duty will sufficiently indicate the great difficulty of performing the office; so that society is greatly obliged to such worthy gentlemen, who, without any sinister views of their own, will engage in this troublesome service. And therefore if any well-meaning justice makes any undesigned slip in his practice, great lenity and indulgence are always shewn him in the courts of law; and there are many statutes made to protect him in the upright discharge of his office: which, among other privileges, prohibit such justices from being sued for any oversights, without notice before-hand; and stop all suits begun, on tender being made of sufficient amends. On the other hand, any malicious or tyrannical abuse of their office is sure of being severely punished; and all persons who recover verdict against a justice, for any wilful or malicious injury, are entitled to double costs.

Constables are the next officers appointed for keeping the peace. They are of two kinds, high-constables, and petty-constables. Of the former, there is one at least in every hundred: the latter are inferior officers in every town and parish, subordinate to the high-constable of the hundred: they generally execute two offices, that of headborough, and that of assisting the high-constable. The principal duty both of high and petty constables is that of keeping the king's peace, and for this they are furnished with ample powers from the government. They can imprison offenders till they are brought before a justice of peace; and it is their duty to execute, in their respective districts, every warrant directed to them from any magistrate or a bench of justices.

The constitution of England greatly excels all others for the solid basis on which the rights of the people are founded, and which cannot be annihilated but by the destruction of the constitution itself. These rights may be reduced to three principal articles, the right of personal security, the right of personal liberty, and the right of private property; because if these are kept inviolate, our civil rights, taken in their most extensive sense, must be preserved.

1. The right of personal security consists in a person's legal and uninterrupted enjoyment of his life, his limbs, his body, his health, and his reputation; because if either of these are destroyed, or injured, personal security is invaded.

2. The right of personal liberty consists in the power of changing our situation or removing to any place we please, without any restraint or imprisonment whatever, unless by due course of law. This, like the former, is a right strictly natural; a right which the laws of England have never abridged without sufficient cause; and which can never be abridged by the mere discretion of the magistrate, without the permission of the laws. The great charter declares that no freemen shall be taken or imprisoned but by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land. And lest any person should be detained by the sentence of an illegal court, or by command of the king's majesty in person, or by warrant of the council-board, or by any of the privy-council, the Habeas Corpus act was passed. So that while this statute remains unimpeached, no subject of England can be long detained in prison, except in those cases where the law requires, and justifies such detainer; and, to prevent this act being evaded by demanding unreasonable bail, it is declared by a subsequent act of parliament, that unreasonable bail shall not be required.

3. The third absolute right inherent in every Englishman, is that of property; which consists in the free use, enjoyment, and disposal, of all his acquisitions, without any control or diminution, except only by the laws of the land. The great charter declares, that no freeman shall be disseized, or divested by his freehold, or his liberties, or free customs, but by the judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land. And by a variety of statutes it is enacted, that no man's lands or goods shall be seized into the king's hands, against the great charter and the laws of England. Nor can any subject of England be constrained to pay any aids or taxes, even for the defence of the realm or the support of government, but such as are imposed by his own consent, or that of his representatives in parliament.

The law is so very careful in this particular, that a man charged with a capital offence, is not suffered to undergo even the ignominy of a public trial, till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alleged to have been committed, and not without twelve of them agreed to a bill of indictment against him. If this be done, he is to stand a second trial before twelve other men, whose opinion is definitive. In some cases, the prisoner (who is always supposed to be innocent till there appears sufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to assist him in making his defence. He is also furnished with a pannel, or list of the jury, who are to be his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and discover whether they want abilities, or whether they, or any of them, are prejudiced against him. In case he has the least suspicion of either he may object peremptorily in open court to twenty of their number; and to as many more as he can give sufficient reasons why they ought not to be admitted as his judges.

When twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the person accused, or living near the place where the supposed fact was committed, are approved of, they all take the following oath: "You shall well and truly try, and true deliverance make, between the king and the prisoner at the bar, according to the evidence." These are now the only judges, from whose sentence the prisoner is to expect life or death; and upon their integrity and understanding, the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend, and from whose judgment there lies no appeal. They are to be all of one mind, and, after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the prisoner; and should one of them happen to die before they have delivered their verdict, the prisoner is acquitted. Every juryman is invested with a solemn and awful trust: if he, without being convinced by the evidence, submits his opinion to that of any other juryman, or yields in compliance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the greatest care; if he questions the veracity of the witnesses, who may be of an infamous character; or, after the most impartial hearing, has the least doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the person accused; he will wound his own conscience, and bring upon himself the complicated guilt of perjury and murder.

When the jury have agreed in their verdict, and delivered it to the judge, he pronounces such sentence upon the offender as the law has prescribed.

Every sensible and patriotic person must be convinced,

vinced, that trial by jury is a capital privilege, and at the ſame time ſo great a ſecurity to the liberty of the ſubject, that it is much to be regretted that perſons of education, honour, and property, are often too ready to evade ſerving the office. By this means, juries frequently conſiſt of ignorant and illiterate perſons, who neither have knowledge enough to underſtand their right and the privileges of Engliſhmen, nor ſpirit enough to maintain them. No man ſhould evade ſerving ſo important an office, when regularly called upon: and thoſe who, from indolence or pride, decline diſcharging this duty to their country, ſeem hardly to deſerve that ſecurity and liberty which the inhabitants of Britain derive from this invaluable inſtitution.

Juries have always been conſidered as giving the moſt effectual check to tyranny; for in a nation like England, where a king can do nothing againſt law, they are a ſecurity that he ſhall never make the laws, by a bad adminiſtration, the inſtruments of cruelty and oppreſſion. Were it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleaſed, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings.

By our happy conſtitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meaneſt, as well as the greateſt: the priſoner, when brought to trial, is freed from all bonds; not only the judges are ſuppoſed to be his counſel, but other counſel are allowed him; he may alſo try the validity and legality of the indictment, and ſet it aſide if contrary to law. The racks and tortures that are cruelly and prepoſterouſly made uſe of in ſome part of Europe, to make a man accuſe himſelf, are here unknown, and none puniſhed without conviction, but he who refuſes to plead in his own defence. Nothing, in ſhort, is wanting, in this country, to clear up the cauſe of innocence, and to prevent the ſufferer from ſinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppreſſion of the great.

In England, the ſovereign has it not in his power to take away the liberty of the leaſt individual, unleſs, by ſome illegal act, of which he is accuſed or ſuſpected upon oath, he has forfeited his right to liberty: or except when the ſtate is in danger, and the repreſentatives of the people think the public ſafety makes it neceſſary that he ſhould have the power of confining perſons on ſuch a ſuſpicion of guilt; ſuch as the caſe of a rebellion within the kingdom, when the legiſlature has thought proper to paſs a temporary ſuſpenſion of the Hebeas Corpus act: but this ſeldom has been done but with great difficulty and caution, and when the national ſafety has abſolutely required it. The rights of individuals are ſo attentively conſidered, that the ſubject may, without the leaſt danger, ſue his ſovereign, or thoſe who act in his name, and under his authority: he may do this in open court, when the king may be caſt, and be obliged to pay damages to his ſubject.

The laws of England are more merciful to criminals than thoſe of any other country. The proceedings formerly, indeed, with regard to offenders who refuſed to plead to their indictments, were very cruel; but theſe are now abrogated by a late act of parliament, whereby all perſons indicted for any crime, who ſhall refuſe to plead, that is, to ſubmit themſelves to a lawful trial, are declared guilty of the offence of which they are accuſed, and ſentence is accordingly to be pronounced againſt them.

All capital offences are, by the laws of England, included under high-treaſon, petty-treaſon, and felony. High-treaſon conſiſts in plotting, conſpiring, or taking up arms, againſt the ſovereign, or in counterfeiting the current coin. Whoever is found guilty of this crime is ſtyled a traitor, and puniſhed by being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, where, after the body has hung upon the gallows for ſome minutes, it is cut down alive, the heart taken out and expoſed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is generally expoſed on ſome public edifice: the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loſes her dowry, and his children both their eſtates and nobility. The ſentence is the ſame to all traitors; but with regard to perſons of quality it is generally changed into beheading, which is executed on a ſcaffold erected for that purpoſe.

Though the law has declared the counterfeiting the current coin to be high treaſon, yet the criminal is only drawn upon a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged in the ſame manner as all other offenders guilty of felony.

If a child kills his father, a wife her huſband, a clergyman his biſhop, or a ſervant his maſter or miſtreſs, the crime is petty treaſon, and the criminal is drawn upon a ſledge to the gallows, and there hanged till dead. Women guilty of either petty or high treaſon, were ſentenced to be burnt alive; but the rigour of the law is mitigated, by ſtrangling them only.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forgery, houſebreaking, &c. Theſe are all puniſhed by hanging only, except murderers, who are hanged in twenty-four hours after ſentence is paſt, and their bodies delivered to the ſurgeons in order to be diſſected publicly. It is, however, common, in order to allow the criminal as much reſpite as poſſible, to bring on the trial on a Saturday, by which means he is not executed till Monday, Sunday not being conſidered as a day for public buſineſs.

The other puniſhments known in England are burning in the hand, tranſportation, impriſonment, whipping, fines, and ſtanding on the pillory; and are inflicted for the crimes of manſlaughter, chance-medley, ſhop-lifting, perjury, petty larceny, and libelling.

If a perſon ſtrikes another in the king's court, ſo as to draw blood, the law condemns him to loſe his right hand. If the blow be given in Weſtminſter-Hall while the courts are ſitting, the puniſhment is impriſonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's eſtate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and looſe, idle, diſorderly perſons, are puniſhed by being ſet in the ſtocks, paying a fine, or commitment to the houſe of correction.

With reſpect to marriages, the holineſs of the matrimonial ſtate is left entirely to the eccleſiaſtical law; the puniſhing or annulling inceſtuous or other unſcriptural marriages, is conſequently the province of ſpiritual courts. The firſt legal diſability is a prior marriage, or having another huſband or wife living; in which caſe, beſides the penalties conſequent upon it as a felony, the ſecond marriage is to all intents and purpoſes void, polygamy being condemned both by the law of the New Teſtament, and the policy of all prudent ſtates, eſpecially in theſe northern climates. The ſecond diſability is want of age, which circumſtance annuls the contract, on account of the imbecility of judgment in the parties: the marriage of a boy under fourteen, or a girl under twelve years of age, is deemed imperfect: but the common law pronounces the marriage good, if the parties are *habiles ad matrimonium*. Another incapacity ariſes from want of conſent of guardians. It has been lately thought proper to enact, that all marriages celebrated by licence (for banns ſuppoſe notice) where either of the parties is under twenty-one, not being a widow or widower, who are ſuppoſed free, without the conſent of the father, or, if he be not living, of the mother or guardians, ſhall be abſolutely void. Much has been, and may be ſaid, both for and againſt this innovation upon our ancient laws and conſtitution. On the one hand, it prevents the clandeſtine marriages of minors, which are often a terrible inconvenience to thoſe private families where they happen; and,

on the other, reſtraints upon marriages, eſpecially among the lower claſs, are evidently detrimental to the public, as well as prejudicial to religion and morality. The fourth legal diſability is want of reaſon; without a competent ſhare of which, neither the matrimonial nor any other contract can be valid. Upon the whole, we may collect, that, as the law now ſtands, no marriage is void by the temporal law, which is celebrated by a perſon in orders; in a pariſh church or public chapel (or elſewhere, by diſpenſation;) in purſuance of banns, or a licence; between ſingle perſons; conſenting; of ſound mind; and of the age of twenty-one years; or of the age of fourteen in males, and twelve in females, with conſent of parents or guardians, or without it, in caſe of widowhood.

Divorces are either total or partial. The total muſt be on account of conſanguinity, affinity, or corporeal imbecility; the iſſue of ſuch marriages are baſtards. The other kind of divorce is, when the marriage is juſt and lawful, but for ſome ſupervenient cauſe it becomes improper or impoſſible for the parties to live together; and in the caſe of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either party. In this caſe, the law allows alimony to the wife (except when for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has frequently happened of late years) which is an allowance made to the woman for her ſupport, out of her huſband's eſtate, and ſettled at the diſcretion of the eccleſiaſtical judge.

A woman in England, as ſoon as married, is, with all her moveables, at the will and diſpoſal of her huſband; nor can ſhe alienate any thing without his conſent; her neceſſary apparel is not her own property; nay, at the death of her huſband, all the perſonal chattles ſhe poſſeſſed at marriage, deſcend to his executor or adminiſtrator. She can make no contract without her huſband's conſent, no reply without him, in matters of law. On the other hand, he muſt pay the debts which ſhe has contracted; and if ſhe ſhould injure any perſon by her tongue or treſpaſs, he will be obliged to make ſatisfaction. Though our law in general conſiders man and wife as one perſon, yet there are ſome inſtances in which ſhe is ſeparately conſidered as inferior to him, and acting by his compulſion, ſuch as in felonies, and other inferior crimes, committed by her, but not as to treaſon or murder. In the civil law, the huſband and wife are conſidered as two diſtinct perſons, and may have ſeparate eſtates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and therefore a woman may ſue, and be ſued, without her huſband, in the eccleſiaſtical courts.

The authority of fathers is ſo abolute in England, that they may give away their unentailed eſtates from their own children, or bequeath their fortunes to any one child, in preferenee to all the reſt. A youth of fourteen may chooſe his guardian, and conſent to marriage; at twenty-one he is at age to make any contract, deed, or will, and to ſit in parliament. The eldeſt ſon commonly inherits the landed eſtate, and the younger children are portioned from the goods and chattels; but in Kent, and ſome other places, the lands are, by the cuſtom of gravel-kind, equally divided among all the ſons.

The revenues of the Britiſh government, or, as they are commonly called, the royal revenues, are either ordinary or extraordinary. The king's ordinary revenue is ſuch, as has either ſubſiſted from remote time in the crown, or has been granted by parliament, in exchange for ſuch of the king's inherent hereditary revenues, as were found inconvenient to the ſubject.

The king's eccleſiaſtical revenues conſiſt in, 1. The cuſtody of the temporalities of vacant biſhoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. A corody or penſion out of every biſhopric; that is, to ſend one of his chaplains to be maintained by the biſhop, or to have a penſion allowed him, till the prelate promotes him to a benefice. This is now fallen into diſuſe. 3. Extraparochial tythes. 4. The firſt-fruits and tenths of all ſpiritual livings in the kingdom. Little or no profit ariſes to the revenue from theſe four branches, through the bounty of the crown to the church.

The ordinary temporal revenue of the king conſiſts in, 1. The rents and profits of the demeſne lands of the crown, which at preſent are reduced to little or nothing. 2. The hereditary exciſe, which formerly aroſe from the profits of the king's military tenures, and from the profitable prerogative of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual ſum of 7000l. iſſuing out of the ſtamp-duties impoſed on wine licences. 4. His foreſts, now wholly laid aſide. 5. The profits ariſing from the king's ordinary courts of juſtice, &c.

Theſe extraordinary grants are called by the ſynonimous names of aids, ſubſides, and ſupplies, and are granted by the commons of Great-Britain aſſembled in parliament, who, when they have voted a ſupply to his majeſty, and ſettled the quantum of that ſupply, uſually reſolve themſelves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to conſider of the methods neceſſary to be taken for raiſing the ſupply ſo voted. The reſolutions of this committee, when approved of by a vote of the houſe, are generally conſidered as final and concluſive; for though the ſupply cannot be actually raiſed upon the ſubject till directed by an act of the whole legiſlature, yet no monied man will ſcruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready caſh, on the credit of a vote of the Houſe of commons, though no law be yet paſſed to eſtabliſh it.

There are two kinds of Taxes levied upon the ſubject, annual and perpetual. The uſual annual taxes are, 1. The land-tax, or the ancient ſubſidy raiſed upon a new aſſeſſment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual exciſe on malt, mum, cyder, and perry. The perpetual taxes are, 1. The cuſtoms or duties payable upon all merchandize exported and imported. 2. The exciſe-duty, or inland impoſition on ſundry commodities. 3. The duty on ſalt. 4. The poſt-office, or duty for the carriage of letters; the annual amount of this revenue, from 1644 to 1744, gradually increaſed from 5000l. to 198,226l. and it is now, by increaſing the duty in 1784, and abridging the franking, conſiderably augmented. 5. The ſtamp duties, almoſt innumerable. 6. The duties on houſes and windows. 7. The duty on offices and penſions, with a variety of new taxes in 1784, ſuch as, an additional tax on windows, the bill-tax, &c. &c. After all charges of collecting and management are paid, the clear nett produce of the ſeveral branches of the revenue, old and new, is eſtimated to amount to about eleven millions ſterling, with two millions and a quarter raiſed at an average by the land and malt-tax. How theſe prodigious ſums are applied, is next to be conſidered.

The national debt owes its origin to the revolution, when our new connections with the continental powers of Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of foreign politics; for large ſums being neceſſary to ſettle the new eſtabliſhment, and to maintain an expenſive war on the continent, in order to reduce the exorbitant power of the French monarchy, which then threatened the liberties of Europe, it was not thought prudent to raiſe the ſums neceſſary to defray the expences of one year, by taxes levied on the people, during that ſhort period, leſt the unuſual weight of theſe taxes ſhould create murmurings and diſquiets in the nation. It therefore became neceſſary to anticipate the revenues of their poſterity, by borrowing immenſe ſums for the current ſervice of the ſtate, and to lay no more taxes on the ſubject than was neceſſary to pay the intereſt of the ſums ſo borrowed, converting the principal debt into a new ſpecies of property, transferable at any time, either in whole or in part, from one man to another. This ſyſtem, which was borrowed from the

the ſtate of Florence, laid the foundation of what is called the national debt; for a few long annuities created in the reign of Charles II. hardly deſerve the name. This ſyſtem has been ſo cloſely purſued, to the preſent time, that the capital of the funded debt at Midſummer 1775 was 129,860,018l. and the annual charge of it amounted to 4,219,254l. 7s. The American war was commencing at this time, and the execrable policy continuing of alienating the ſinking fund, and the manner of borrowing the money for ſupplies, have conſiderably increaſed it; for in the courſe of the ſaid war, from 1776 to 1782, 46,550,000l. was added to the three per cents, and 26,750,000l. to the four per cents. making together a capital of 73,400,000l. for which the money advanced was only forty-eight millions.

The ſurpluſſes of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South-ſea funds, over and above the intereſt and annuities charged upon them, are directed by ſtatute 3 Geo. I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the diſpoſition of parliament; and are uſually denominated the *ſinking fund*, becauſe originally deſtined to be held ſacred, and to be applied inviolably to the redemption of the national debt. To this have been ſince added many other entire duties, granted in ſubſequent years; and the annual intereſt of the ſums borrowed on their reſpective credits, is charged on, and payable out of the produce of the ſinking fund. However, the nett ſurpluſſes and ſavings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very conſiderable ſum. For, as the intereſt on the national debt has been at ſeveral times reduced (by the conſent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their intereſt, or be paid their principal), the ſavings from the appropriated revenues muſt needs be extremely large. This ſinking fund is the laſt reſort of the nation; its only domeſtic reſource, on which muſt chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever diſcharging or moderating our incumbrances. And therefore the prudent application of the large ſums, now ariſing from this fund, is a point of the utmoſt importance, and well worthy the ſerious attention of parliament.

Different ſchemes have been formed for paying the public debts: but no method can be ſo expeditious and effectual as an unalienable ſinking fund, as this money is improved at *compound intereſt*, and therefore increaſes in the moſt perfect manner.

In treating of the military and marine ſtrength of Great Britain, it may be proper to obſerve, that in abſolute monarchies it is neceſſary to form a diſtinct order for the profeſſion of arms, but extremely dangerous in a land of liberty. No man, in a free ſtate, ſhould take up arms but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is becauſe he is a citizen, and would wiſh to continue ſo, that he makes himſelf for a while a ſoldier. Accordingly, the laws and conſtitution of this country know no ſuch ſtate as that of a perpetual ſtanding ſoldier, bred up to no other profeſſion than that of war, nor had the kings of England ſo much as a guard about their perſons till the reign of Henry VII.

The military force of this kingdom, in the time of our Saxon anceſtors, was in the hands of dukes and heretocks. Alfred the Great firſt ſettled a regular militia; and, by his prudent management, made all the ſubjects of this kingdom ſoldiers.

Upon the Norman conqueſt, the feudal law was introduced here in all its rigour, the whole of which is built upon a military plan. All the lands in England were divided into what were called knights-fees, amounting to about 60,000; and, for every knight's fee, a knight or ſoldier was obliged to attend the king in his wars, forty days in a year: in which ſpace of time, before war was reduced to a ſcience, the campaign was generally finiſhed, and a kingdom either conquered or rendered victorious. By this means the king, without the leaſt expence, had an army of 60,000 men always ready at his command. This perſonal ſervice, however, in length of time, degenerated into pecuniary commutations, or aids, till at laſt the whole feudal ſyſtem was aboliſhed at the reſtoration.

This abolition of the military tenures gave occaſion to aſcertain the power of the militia, to recognize the power of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military ſubordination. The preſent militia laws are founded upon theſe ſtatutes, with the addition of ſome new regulations; the general ſcheme of which is to diſcipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, choſen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord-lieutenant, the deputy-lieutenants, and other principal landholders, under a commiſſion from the crown. They are not obliged to march out of their reſpective counties, unleſs in caſe of invaſion or actual rebellion, nor in any caſe compellable to march out of the kingdom. They are to be exerciſed at ſtated times, and their diſcipline is in general very eaſy; but when called out to actual ſervice they are ſubject to the rigours of martial law, as neceſſary to keep them in order and proper ſubordination. This is the conſtitutional ſecurity which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm againſt foreign and domeſtic violence. The legiſlature has indeed always been jealous of ſtanding armies; for king Charles II. having kept up about 5000 regular troops by his own authority, for guards and garriſons, which king James II. by degrees increaſed to no leſs than 30,000, all paid from his own civil liſt, the parliament was ſo offended, that it was made one of the articles in the Bill of Rights, That the raiſing up and keeping a ſtanding army in time of peace, unleſs it be with conſent of parliament, is illegal.

For many years paſt it has been annually judged neceſſary by the legiſlature, for the ſafety of this kingdom, the defence of the poſſeſſions of the crown of Great-Britain, and the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain annually, even in time of peace, a ſtanding body of troops, under the command of the crown; but theſe are, *ipſo facto*, diſbanded every year, unleſs continued by parliament. Accordingly, an annual act of parliament paſſes, "To puniſh mutiny and deſertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be diſperſed among the ſeveral innkeepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom, and eſtabliſhes a martial law for their government.

The land forces of Great-Britain maintained in time of peace do not uſually exceed 40,000 in number, computing 18,000 in England and Scoland, 12,000 on the Iriſh eſtabliſhment, and the remainder in garriſons abroad, at Minorca, Gibraltar, Nova-Scotia, Jamaica, and Antigua. In the war of 1756, however, the nation maintained above 100,000 ſoldiers, excluſive of marines, and an army of 50,000 Germans on the Continent; and ſince the American war, there have been in the pay of Great-Britain, natives and foreigners, 135,000 men, beſides 42,000 militia.

The Britiſh infantry have always been diſtinguiſhed by a ſpecies of courage and intrepidity peculiar to themſelves; and the cavalry is beyond all doubt the beſt in Europe, whether we reſpect the beauty, ſize, ſpirit, and docility of the horſes, or the ſtrength, appearance, and gallantry of the dragoons. The troops, both horſe and foot, are compoſed of tall, ſtrong, muſcular, handſome men, in red uniforms, with facings of various colours, well cloathed, armed, and accoutred; inferior to none in exerciſe and diſcipline, and ſuperior to all others in martial and military appearance.

The maritime ſtate is nearly related to the former, though much more agreeable to the principles of our free

free conſtitution. The royal navy of England has ever been its greateſt defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural ſtrength; the floating bulwark of the iſland; an army, from which, however ſtrong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been aſſiduouſly cultivated, even from the earlieſt ages. To ſo much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the 12th century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground and ſubſtruction of all their marine conſtitutions, was confeſſed compiled by king Richard I. at the iſle of Oleron, on the coaſt of France, then part of the poſſeſſions of the crown of England. And yet, ſo vaſtly inferior were our anceſtors in this point to the preſent age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, ſir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boaſt that the royal navy of England then conſiſted of 33 ſhips. The preſent condition of our marine is in a great meaſure owing to the ſalutary proviſions of the ſtatute called the navigation act; whereby the conſtant increaſe of Engliſh ſhipping and ſeamen was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably neceſſary.

The complement of ſeamen, in time of peace, uſually hath amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they formerly amounted to about 80,000 men; and after the commencement of the American war, to above 100,000, including marines. The vote of parliament for the ſervice of the year 1797, was for 120,000 ſeamen, including marines.

This navy is commonly divided into three ſquadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are ſo termed from the differences of their colours.—Each ſquadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red ſquadron has the principal command of the whole, and is ſtyled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is alſo a vice and rear-admiral. But the ſupreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty.

We may venture to affirm, that the Britiſh navy, during the war of 1756, was able to cope with all the other fleets of Europe. In the courſe of a few years it entirely vanquiſhed the whole naval power of France, diſabled Spain, and kept the Dutch and other powers in awe. For the protection of the Britiſh empire, and the annoyance of our enemies, it was then divided into ſeveral powerful ſquadrons, ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, as at once to appear in every quarter of the globe; and while ſome fleets were humbling the pride of Spain in Aſia and America, others were employed in fruſtrating the deſigns of France, and eſcorting home the riches of the eaſtern and weſtern worlds.

The Britiſh navy is diſtributed into ſix rates, orders, or claſſes, excluſive of the inferior veſſels; as ſloops of war, armed ſhips, bomb ketches, fire-ſhips, and cutters or ſchooners commanded by lieutenants.

The navy of England is at all times ſuperior to any other maritime power, in number of ſhips, weight of metal, and expert mariners. But the efforts of Great Britain by ſea on extraordinary occaſions, are inconceivable.

The gold coin of England conſiſts of guineas, half-guineas, and ſeven ſhillings pieces; and though the people reckon by pounds, it is at preſent an imaginary denomination. The pound is equal to twenty ſhillings, and the guinea amounts to twenty-one: beſides the Engliſh pieces, the gold coin of Portugal, called Joannes and Moidores, were till lately taken by all the dealers in England. Crowns, half-crowns, ſhillings, and ſixpences, compoſe the ſilver coin that circulates through Great Britain and Ireland, and for the convenience of retail, there is an immenſe quantity of copper coin, conſiſting of two-penny and penny pieces, half-pence, and farthings; the value of a crown is five ſhillings; a ſhilling twelve-pence; and four farthings conſtitute one penny. No perſon, however, is obliged to receive copper money in payment of any ſum above one ſhilling. Beſides the coins we have already mentioned, there are ſome five and two guinea pieces of gold, as well as fourpenny, three-penny, two-penny and penny pieces in ſilver; but theſe are rather preſerved as medals than uſed in circulation.

The title of the king of England is, By the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The deſignation of the kings of England was formerly his or her Grace, or Highneſs, till Henry VIII. to put himſelf on a footing with the emperor Charles V. aſſumed that of Majeſty; but the old deſignation was not aboliſhed till towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign. The title of Defender of the Faith, above mentioned, was given to Henry VIII. by the pope, on account of a book written by the king againſt Luther and the Reformation. Beſides the titles already given, the king of Great Britain has others from his German dominions, as Elector of Hanover, Duke of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, &c.

Since the acceſſion of the preſent royal family of Great Britain, anno 1714, the royal achievement is marſhalled as follows: quarterly, in the firſt grand quarter, Mars, three lions, paſſant guardant, in pale Sol, the imperial enſigns of England, impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, which are, Sol, a lion rampant, within a double treſſure flowered, and counter-flowered, with fleurs-de-lis, Mars. The ſecond quarter is the royal arms of France, viz. Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol. The third, the enſigns of Ireland, which is, Jupiter, an harp, Sol, ſtringed Luna. And the fourth grand quarter is his preſent majeſty's own coat, viz. Mars, two lions paſſant guardant, Sol, for Brunſwick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is, Sol ſemee of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter; having ancient Saxony, viz. Mars, an horſe currant, Luna, ente (or grafted) in baſe: and in a ſhield ſur tout, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne; the whole, within a garter, as ſovereign of that moſt noble order of knighthood.

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who aſſumed it to ſhew his independency upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almoſt every king of England had a particular badge or cognizance: ſometimes a white hart, ſometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is ſaid Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his miſtreſſes; and ſometimes a portcullis, which was that of the houſe of Lancaſter, many of the princes of which were born in the caſtle of Beaufort. The white roſe was the bearing of the houſe of York; and that of Lancaſter, by way of contradiſtinction, adopted the red. The thiſtle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very ſignificant when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſet*, "None ſhall provoke me unpuniſhed."

The titles of the king's eldeſt ſon are, prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothſay, earl of Cheſter, electoral prince of Brunſwick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the iſles, great ſteward of Scotland, and captain general of the artillery company.

He bears the king's arms, with the addition of a label of three points, charged with nine torteux; his device being a coronet beautified with three oſtrich feathers, inſcribed *Ich dien*, ſignifying in the German language, "I ſerve."

All degrees of nobility are derived from the king, as their fountain; and he may inſtitute what new titles he pleaſes. The right of peerage ſeems to have been originally territorial; that is, annexed to lands, honours, caſtles, manors, and the like, the proprietors and poſſeſſors of which were, in right of thoſe eſtates, allowed to be peers of the realm, and were ſummoned to

to parliament to do ſuit and ſervice to their ſovereign: and when the land was alienated, the dignity paſſed with it as appendant. Thus the biſhops ſtill ſit in the houſe of lords in right of ſucceſſion to certain ancient baronies annexed, or ſuppoſed to be annexed, to their epiſcopal lands.

Peers are now created either by writ or by patent: for thoſe who claim by preſcription, muſt ſuppoſe ether a writ or patent made to their anceſtors, though by length of time it is loſt. The creation by writ, or the king's letter, which is the more ancient method, is a ſummons to attend the houſe of Peers, by the ſtyle and title of that of barony which the king is pleaſed to confer: that by patent is a royal grant to a ſubject of any dignity and degree of peerage.

The preſent nobility of England are at once numerous and wealthy; enjoy many honourable privileges, but poſſeſs no power incompatible with the rights and liberties of their fellow-ſubjects. The majority of them live with great magnificence, eſpecially at their country-ſeats, which are indeed elegant palaces, adorned with beautiful gardens, ponds, parks, and plantations. No country in Europe can produce ſuch a number of noblemen living in all the pomp of affluence and all the delights of independence, ſecured by the law from the arm of arbitrary power, and, in their turn, diſabled by the law from excerciſing the rod of oppreſſion. They are diſtinguiſhed by the different titles of duke, marquis, earl, viſcount, and baron; and, according to theſe degrees, take precedence of one another. But they are all equally peers of England, and all ſit in the Houſe of Lords, which is the ſupreme court of judicature in England.

The perſon of a peer is ſacred from arreſt, except in caſe of treaſon, felony, breach of the peace, condemnation in parliament, or contempt of the king. In theſe caſes he cannot be tried but by jury of peers, he cannot be impanelled on any jury of inqueſt: he cannot be bound to his good behaviour, nor obliged to ſwear in any court of juſtice, but only to declare upon his honour. In caſe of lawful abſence, he can conſtitute a proxy to vote for him in parliament; a privilege which no commoner enjoys. He is exempted from all attendance at ſheriffs turns and leets, where other ſubjects are obliged to take the oath of allegiance, as alſo from joining the *poſſe cometatus*, when it is raiſed by the ſheriff to ſuppreſs routs and riots. He cannot be outlawed in any civil action, nor preſſed to death as a commoner, when mute upon his trial; and when condemned to die, he is indulged with the honour of decapitation.

The ſons of nobility have certain titles by courtſey, according to the rank of their fathers; but the law ranks them among the commons of England. Thus, the eldeſt ſon of a duke is denominated marquis, or earl; and the youngeſt ſons are ſaluted by the appellation of My Lord. The firſt ſon of a marquis or earl is denominated lord of ſome barony belonging to his father, and his brothers are likewiſe addreſſed by the title of Lord John or Lord William. The ſiſters enjoy the honourable title of Lady, in the ſame manner; but this courteſey is not extended to the younger children of viſcounts and barons.

The baronets of England were ſo called as being deemed an inferior kind of barons, in Latin *baronuli baronculi* and *baronetti*, conſtituted in the room of the old vavaſours, to hold a middle place between the parliamentary barons and the different orders of knights. They were created by James the Firſt, who beſtowed this hereditary honour as an encouragement to thoſe of his ſubjects who aſſiſted in the reduction of the province of Ulſter in Ireland. No perſon could be admitted into this order unleſs he was a gentleman by blood, of unblemiſhed morals, and poſſeſſed a yearly revenue of one thouſand pounds in land; and the expreſs condition of his admiſſion was, that he ſhould maintain thirty ſoldiers for three years on the military eſtabliſhment of Ireland. As an armorial badge of diſtinction, he wears in a canton of his eſcutcheon a bloody hand, as the arms of Ulſter. The number of baronets was, at firſt, reſtricted to 200, but now it is enlarged without limitation. The title of baronet is conferred by patent under the great ſeal, and deſcends to heirs male: like other knights, he is diſtinguiſhed by the appelative *Sir* prefixed to his chriſtian name in ſpeaking and writing. He takes precedence of all other knights, except thoſe of the garter, and baronets created in the field of battle. He is entituled to an honourable place in the kings army, near the royal ſtandard; and his eldeſt ſon, by virtue of a peculiar privilege when of age, has a right to the honour of knighthood, whenever it ſhall be demanded. The wives of baronets are ladies, and take place before the wives of all knights whatſoever.

There are two grand orders of knighthood in England, namely thoſe of the GARTER and the BATH The order of St. George, or the garter, is one of the moſt ancient and honourable inſtitutions of lay knights now extant. It was founded by Edward the Third. The order of the garter is a college or corporation, conſiſting of the ſovereign and twenty-five companions, called knights of the garter, of a dean, canons, petit canons, vergers, and other inferior officers; and of twenty-ſix poor knights, who receive their maintenance from the college, as a reward for military ſervice. There are other officers belonging to the order of the garter, which is dedicated to St. George, the tutelar ſaint and patron of England; ſuch as that of prelate of the garter, annexed to the biſhopric of Wincheſter; the chancellorſhip, veſted in the biſhop of Saliſbury; and the regiſtery, belonging to the dean of Windſor. There is a principal king at arms, called Garter, whoſe province it is to marſhal the ſolemnities of feaſts and inſtallations: finally the uſher of the black rod is likewiſe uſher of the garter. The ſeat of the order is the caſtle of Windſor, conſiſting of the chapter-houſe, the hall, and chapel of St. George. A knight of this order is diſtinguiſhed by a blue garter, with a gold buckle worn on the left leg, and inſcribed, *Honi ſoit qui mal y penſe*, ſignifying, *Shame to him who thinks evil of, or puts a bad conſtruction on, this order*; by a ſilver ſtar on the left breaſt, enamelled with gold and ſet with diamonds, hanging at the end of a broad blue ribband that croſſes the body from the left ſhoulder. The greateſt monarchs of Europe have been members of this inſtitution.

The order of the BATH was firſt inſtituted by Henry IV. and took their denomination from bathing on the eve of their admiſſion. The order, which had grown obſolete, was revived by king George the Firſt, in the year 1725, when eighteen noblemen, and as many commoners were inſtalled knights of the bath with great ceremony at Weſtminſter. Their number is limited to forty-ſix; and they are diſtinguiſhed by a ſtar on the breaſt, and a broad red ribband worn like a belt over the ſhoulder.

A knight is a term uſed almoſt in every nation in Europe, and in general ſignifies a ſoldier ſerving on horſeback; a rank of no mean eſtimation in ancient armies, and entitling the parties themſelves to the appellation of *Sir*. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; ſuch as thoſe of *bannerets*, batchelors, knights of the carpet, and the like; but they are now diſuſed. Indeed, in the year 1773, at a view of the royal navy at Portſmouth, the king conferred the honour of Knights Bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the frames of the ſupporters.

The gentlemen of England are comprehended under the general denomination of eſquires, or *armigeri*, the title formerly given to thoſe among the gentry who acted as armour-bearers in war to the prince and

prime nobility. Though the right of this title is limited to perſons of a certain rank, ſuch as the ſons of barons, and gentlemen whoſe anceſtors have been always free, and borne a coat of arms, mayors of towns, counſellors at law, batchelors of divinity, law or phyſic; yet it is indiſcriminately given to all thoſe who maintain the appearance of gentlemen. The higheſt order of plebeians are the freeholders, called yeomen, from the Saxon word *gemani*, which ſignifies *common*. Theſe are the huſbandmen and farmers, who hold lands and tenements inheritable by a perpetual right to them and their heirs for ever. The next claſs of people are the merchants and traders, greatly and deſervedly reſpected in England, on account of their riches as well as their profeſſion, which contributes ſo eſſentially to the wealth and power of the nation.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

It is generally agreed that the firſt inhabitants came from the neighbouring continent of the Celtæ, or Gauls, that ſettled on the oppoſite ſhore, long before their country was known to the Romans. The ancient Britons were a rude warlike people, living in hovels erected within the covert of thick and almoſt impenetrable woods. They painted their bodies with woad, and gave them a blueiſh or greeniſh caſt, and had no other covering than the ſkins of beaſts, caſually thrown over them, without being ſhaped into any kind of garment; and they are ſaid to have had the figures of animals and heavenly bodies on their ſkins. In their marriages, they were not very delicate, for they formed themſelves into a kind of matrimonial clubs; twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was common to them all; but her children belonged to the original huſband. They ſowed corn, though it is likely they lived chiefly on animal food and milk. They were amazingly dextrous in the management of their chariots; and, fought with lances, darts, and ſwords. Women ſometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognized as ſovereigns of their particular diſtricts. They favoured a primogeniture or ſeniority, in their ſucceſſion to royalty, but ſet it aſide on the ſmalleſt inconveniency attending it.

Such were the ancient Britons, when Julius Cæſar, about fifty-two years before the Chriſtian æra, invaded their country; and after a long and bloody war England was reduced to a province of the Roman empire. But the Romans were obliged to maintain their conqueſt by a military force, which was divided into different parties, and placed at convenient ſtations all over the province: the Roman governor, for the time being, was ſupreme ruler of the country.

The Britons lived during the long reign of Auguſtus Cæſar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great-Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæſar, about forty-two years after the birth of Chriſt, undertook an expedition in perſon, in which he ſeems to have been ſucceſsful againſt Britain. His conqueſts, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicia though a woman, made noble ſtands againſt the Romans. The former was taken priſoner after a deſperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the hiſtories of the times. Boadicia being oppreſſed in a manner that diſgraces the Roman name, and defeated, diſdained to ſurvive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after ſubduing South-Britain, carried his arms northwards, where his ſucceſſors had no reaſon to boaſt of their progreſs, every inch of ground being bravely defended.

While the Romans remained in this iſland, they erected thoſe walls, ſo often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invaſions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts. But in the year 426, the barbarous nations of the North, breaking into the Roman empire, rendered it neceſſary to recall the legions ſtationed in Britain; when the emperor Honorius renounced his ſovereignty of the country, and releaſed the inhabitants from their allegiance. On the departure of the Roman legions, the iſland was left in a feeble and defenceleſs ſtate.

The Scots, who inhabited the country to the northward of the Roman provinces, no ſooner perceived the weakneſs of their ſouthern neighbours, than they invaded their country, and committed the moſt dreadful outrages; the tracts of their irruptions were marked with blood and deveſtation; the northern parts of the once flouriſhing provinces of the Romans were totally waſted with fire and ſword, and the wretched inhabitants, deſtitute at once of forces and generals capable of repelling the cruel ravages of their barbarous enemies, became an eaſy prey. Reduced to this dreadful ſtate, the Britons had recourſe to the Saxons, a warlike people of Scandinavia, for protection; offering to give, as a reward for their ſervice, the Iſle of Thanet, a ſmall tract of land ſeparated by a narrow channel from the county of Kent. The offer was accepted, and the Saxons, together with a great number of Angles, a people of Jutland, landed in England. The Britons, headed by theſe auxiliaries, were ſoon too ſtrong for the Scots, who were defeated in ſeveral engagements, and driven back to their own country. Theſe victories, however, were far from reſtoring peace to the haraſſed Britons: Hengiſt and Horſa, the two Saxon generals, looked with contempt on the ſmall ſpot of land aſſigned them and their followers, as a reward for their ſervices, and meditated the conqueſt of the whole iſland: which was eaſily accompliſhed by Hengiſt, who perſuaded Vortigern, the Britiſh king, that, as his ſubjects underſtood very little of agriculture, it would be of infinite advantage to ſo fertile a country, if he would ſuffer a number of Saxons to be ſent for to cultivate the ſoil. Accordingly as many of thoſe people embarked as ſixteen ſhips would contain; but they had not long been in this iſland before they threw off the maſk, and convinced the wretched Britons that they had inadvertently conſented to their own deſtruction. The Saxons pretended that Hengiſt's troops had not been rewarded according to agreement, and that they had an undoubted right to ſatisfy themſelves. On which account a long and terrible war enſued; a great number of battles were fought, in which the Saxons were generally victorious, and the Britons forced at laſt to retire into Wales. Having thus no enemy in the field to contend with, the victors divided England into ſeven kingdoms, termed the Saxon heptarchy; namely, Kent; South-Sex, or the South-Saxons; Weſt-Sex, or the Weſt-Saxons; Eaſt-Sex, or the Eaſt-Saxons; Northumberland; the Eaſt-Angles, and Mercia.

Chriſtianity ſoon after this was introduced into England by pope Gregory the Great. And, about the year 596, he ſent over to England the famous Auſtin, the monk, who probably found no great difficulty in converting the king and his people; and alſo Sebert, king of the Eaſt-Saxons, who was baptized, and founded the cathedral of St. Paul's in London. Auſtin then attempted to bring the churches in Wales to a conformity with that of Rome, particularly at the celebration of Eaſter; but finding a ſtout reſiſtance on the part of the biſhops and clergy, he perſuaded his Chriſtian converts to maſſacre them, which they did to the number of 1200 prieſts and monks, and reduced the Britons, who were found in the heptarchy, to a ſtate of ſlavery, which ſome think gave riſe to the ancient villenage in England. Auſtin is accouuted the firſt archbiſhop of Canter-

bury,

bury, and died in 605, as his convert Ethelbert did ſoon after.

The pope, in Auſtin's time, ſupplied England with about 400 monks, and the Popiſh clergy took care to keep their kings and laity under the moſt deplorable ignorance, but always magnified the power and ſanctity of his holineſs. Hence it was that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by prieſts and monks; and, as they ſaw convenient, perſuaded their kings either to ſhut themſelves up in cloiſters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finiſhed their days; and ſuch was the tyranny in theſe early times, that no leſs than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, reſigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina, king of the Weſt-Saxons, though in other reſpects he was a wiſe and brave prince. The contributions of thoſe Anglo-Saxon kings to the ſee of Rome was unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, impoſed an annual tax of a penny upon every houſe, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence, becauſe paid on the holiday of St. Peter ad vincula, Auguſt 1. This tax was impoſed at firſt for the ſupport of a college at Rome for the education of Engliſh youth, founded by Ina, king of Weſſex, under the name of Rome-ſcot, but in proceſs of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his ſucceſſors.

During the Saxon heptarchy, a black cloud of barbarous ignorance covered the whole country. Continual wars among themſelves, blended with the moſt ſhocking crimes, furniſh the hiſtorical tranſactions that have reached our time. Theſe continual tumults and diſorders haſtened the deſtruction of the heptarchy, which was aboliſhed by Egbert, who annexed the other ſix kingdoms to his own, about the year 819. He was the eldeſt branch of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who firſt arrived in England, and related to Birthric, king of the Weſt-Saxons, he was in his early youth obliged to leave his country to avoid the effects of that prince's jealouſy. Fortunately for Egbert, Charlemagne, the moſt accompliſhed prince of his age, then ſwayed the ſceptre of France. The prince found there a generous protector, and under him he learned the arts of war and government. About the year 800, Birthric paid the debt of nature, and the Weſt-Saxons earneſtly ſolicited Egbert to return to his native land, and take poſſeſſion of the crown of his anceſtors. He immediately complied with their requeſt, and no ſooner found himſelf ſettled on the throne, than he took ſuch meaſures as in a ſhort time rendered him the ſole monarch of the ſeven provinces of the heptarchy. Peace being thus reſtored, he was ſolemnly crowned king at Wincheſter. Soon after he changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-lond or England.

About the year 832, the Danes, who were a powerful people, had long infeſted the Britiſh ſeas, and made deſcents upon the coaſts of Kent and Dorſetſhire. Egbert marched againſt them, but from the ſovereign contempt he entertained of theſe pirates, marched at the head of a ſmall number of forces, and was defeated. The Danes, however, did not long enjoy the fruits of their victory: for about two years after he attacked them with ſuch impetuoſity, that they were obliged to abandon the kingdom; nor did they ever venture to return till after his death, which happened in 838.

Ethelwolf, ſon of Egbert, proved a weak and indolent prince, without the leaſt tincture of his father's virtues; he was ſcarcely ſeated on the throne, before the Danes appeared again upon the coaſts, and the Engliſh being unable to oppoſe their ravages, they fixed themſelves in the iſland, which ſoon became one continued ſcene of bloodſhed and devaſtation. They however received a ſevere check from Athelſtan, ſon to Ethelwolf, and his partner in the regal authority; but this was not ſufficient to prevent their forming a ſettlement in the Iſle of Thanet, where they employed themſelves in collecting arms and force ſufficient to extend their ſettlements in England.

At the death of Ethelwolf, which happened in 857, his dominions were divided between his two eldeſt ſons (Athelſtan being then dead), Ethelbald and Ethelbert, whoſe joint reign affords no tranſaction worthy to be recorded. Ethelbald died firſt; and Ethelbert, at his deceaſe, named his brother Ethelred for his ſucceſſor, purſuant to the will of his father, though two ſons of his own were then living. During the reign of Ethelred, the Danes, notwithſtanding the valiant efforts of the king and his brother Alfred, made themſelves maſters of many of the counties in England, and were almoſt entirely maſters of the ſea-coaſt, when, by the death of Ethelred, which happened in 827, Alfred aſcended the throne.

Alfred came to the crown at a time when his kingdom was falling a prey to barbarous invadors, and his ſubjects worn out with frequent wars. Such was his courage and conduct, that, though during the ſtruggle he had once entirely loſt his dominions, and was reduced for a time to the ſervile ſtate of a cow-herd; yet before his death, which happened in the year 900, he had not only recovered the crown, but added new luſtre to it by his conqueſts over the Danes, whom he obliged to ſwear obedience to his government. Even the inhabitants of Wales, who had lived in a perpetual ſtate of enmity with the Saxons, courted his protection. The virtues of this monarch juſtly acquired him the epithet of Great, and his excellent laws, that of "The Father of the Engliſh Conſtitution." One of the principal glories of his reign was that of giving birth to a maritime power in England. Convinced that the ſuperiority of numbers in his enemies would always be againſt him, unleſs he could acquire the dominion of the ſea, he carefully obſerved the manner in which the Danes conſtructed their veſſels, and having made improvements upon their art, ordered a number of gallies to be built, ſome of which carried ſixty rowers, and were, though more lofty and of greater bulk, ſwifter ſailers than the Daniſh ſhips. He revived the uſe of juries, which had lain dormant for ſome time. He gave great encouragement to navigation and commerce, which, even in that early period, he brought to ſome degree of perfection. He introduced buildings of brick and ſtone, materials till then uſed only in erecting churches. His treatment of corrupt judges was truly exemplary; he cauſed ſeveral of them to be hung up by the ſides of high roads, as an example to deter others from the like deſtructive practices. A ſcholar himſelf, he admired and rewarded thoſe who were fond of the ſciences, and invited ſeveral learned men into his dominions.

Edward the Elder, ſucceeded his father Alfred. This prince reigned twenty-ſeven years, during which he was engaged in ſeveral wars againſt the Danes, and was generally victorious. The king of Scotland alſo, who had entered into an alliance with theſe invaders, was glad to purchaſe a peace by conſenting to hold his dominions in vaſſalage to the crown of England. Nor were the Danes and Scots the only enemies Edward had to contend with. In the year 920, an inſurrection happened in Wales, headed by Leofred, a Dane, and Griffith ap Madoc, brother-in-law to the prince of Weſt-Wales. Theſe two, at the head of a formidable army, had advanced as far as Cheſter, before Edward was in a condition to oppoſe their progreſs; but coming up with them at Sherwood, a battle enſued, wherein Griffith was killed, Leofred taken priſoner, and their whole army put to flight. Edward having thus ſubdued all his enemies, turned his thoughts to the improvement of his conqueſts, and the well governing of his ſubjects.

He enacted the moſt ſalutary laws, and took care to put them ſtrictly in execution.

Edward dying in 927, was ſucceed by his eldeſt ſon, Athelſtan, at the beginning of whoſe reign the Danes once more renewed their barbarous ravages; and his whole reign was one continued ſcene of war with theſe reſtleſs invaders, the Scots, the Engliſh, and other neighbouring powers. Theſe commotions, however, did not divert his attention from the welfare of his people. The encouragement of commerce ſeems to have been his chief delight. He alſo encouraged coinage; and we find by his laws, that archbiſhops, biſhops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of minting money. He enacted many excellent laws, and one in particular whereby every merchant, who had, on his own account, made three voyages to the Mediterranean, was put upon the ſame footing with a thane, or nobleman of the firſt rank. He died in 941.

Edmund I. brother to Athelſton, whoſe reign, and thoſe of his ſucceſſors, Edred and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or diſgraced by the influence of prieſts, Edgar mounted the throne about the year 959, but, like his predeceſſors, he was the dupe of prieſts, particularly Dunſtan. During his reign, which upon the whole was not inglorious, he ceded to the Scots all the territory north of Severus's wall, and revived the naval glory of England. He died in 975, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Edward; but by the intrigues of his ſtep-mother, Elfrida, was ſoon deprived of both his crown and life; and in 978, was ſucceeded by Ethelred, ſon to Elfrida. In his reign, the Engliſh nation was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes had by degrees poſſeſſed themſelves of the fineſt parts of England, and left Ethelred in no condition to diſlodge them. To get rid of them, he agreed to pay them 30,000l. which was levied by way of tax, and called Danegelt, being the firſt land-tax in England. In 1002, they had made ſuch ſettlements in the country, that Ethelred was obliged to give way to a general maſſacre for their extirpation. But whether this cruel deſign was executed entirely, or only in part, is uncertain; it was however ſeverely revenged by Swein, the Daniſh king, who in 1013 laid the country waſte with fire and ſword, and even obliged Ethelred, with his queen and two ſons, to fly into Normandy, where they remained till Swein paid the debt of nature. Immediately after his death, notwithſtanding Canute had been proclaimed king of England by the Danes, Ethelred returned; and having forced Canute to retire into Denmark, was once more reinſtated in his kingdom. Canute, however, ſoon collected a numerous fleet, and in 1016 once more invaded England. Juſt at that period Ethelred died, and his ſon, Edmund II. ſurnamed Ironſide, (from his great bodily ſtrength) after fighting ſeveral battles with the Danes, in order to prevent a further effuſion of human blood, conſented to divide the kingdom with Canute. This diviſion was ſoon terminated by the death of Edmund, who was aſſaſſinated by one of his courtiers; hoping, by that cruel act, to ingratiate himſelf with Canute: but that monarch no ſooner found himſelf firmly fixed on the throne of England, than he cauſed the traitor's head to be ſtruck off, as a juſt reward for his horrid ſervice.

Canute's reign was very favourable to the Engliſh, whom he incorporated with the Danes, and treated with the utmoſt tenderneſs. He was engaged in ſeveral wars, which he always finiſhed with honour, and at the time of his death, which happened in 1039, the nation enjoyed a profound peace. He left three ſons, Swein, Harold, and Hardicanute, who all ſucceeded to the crown of England; but their behaviour was ſo baſe and deteſtable, that the very government of the Danes became odious to the Engliſh; they therefore on the demiſe of Hardicanute, which happened in 1042, reſtored the family of Ethelred to the throne, in the perſon of Edward, commonly called the Confeſſor.

Edward, for ſome time, ſuffered himſelf to be entirely governed by earl Goodwin, whoſe daughter he had married, and by whoſe arts he was placed on the throne, in preference to Edward, ſon of Edmund II. but the inſolence of this nobleman and his ſons aroſe to ſuch a pitch, that they were baniſhed by the king, who, however, afterwards thought proper to recall and reinſtate them in their power. Edward repulſed the Danes, who had made a deſcent at Sandwich. Siward, one of his generals, routed the Scots, and killed their king Mackbeth. Alfgar, an Engliſh nobleman, and Griffin, king of Wales, made an inroad into England, and took and plundered Hereford, but were at length totally routed by Harold, ſon to earl Goodwin; ſo that Edward, either in perſon, or by his generals, obtained the victory over every power againſt whom he directed his arms. This monarch collected the laws of the Danes, Saxons, and Mercians, which he digeſted into one body, and called it "The common law of England." Being like moſt of his predeceſſors, a great friend to the monks; he founded many religious houſes, and rebuilt the Abbey at Weſtminſter, where he was buried in the year 1065.

Edward dying without iſſue, Herold, ſon to earl Goodwin, was raiſed to the throne in preference to Edgar Atheling, grandſon to Edmund Ironſide, and the only ſurviving prince of the ancient kings of England. Some authors aſſert that Edward had appointed William, duke of Normandy, his ſucceſſor, while others maintain it was only a pretence made uſe of by William for invading England. However that be, he actually landed on the coaſt of Suſſex, in the year 1066, without oppoſition; Harold being then employed in repulſing the Danes, who had made freſh inroads into England. William was at the head of forty thouſand men, all veteran troops, and commanded by the braveſt officers in Europe. He was met by Harold, at Haſtings, and a moſt dreadful engagament enſued, wherein Harold was ſlain, and the conqueror, with very little difficulty, aſcended the Engliſh throne.

William, in the beginning of his reign, gave the Engliſh a flattering proſpect of a juſt and mild adminiſtration; but they ſoon found themſelves deceived, for, having given them cauſe of complaint in the partiality ſhewn upon every occaſion to the Normans, they broke out into open rebellion, and endeavoured to place Edgar Atheling upon the throne. The attempt proved abortive; and William, in revenge for their conſpiracies, deprived them of all their poſſeſſions, which he divided among the Normans, and ſuch of the Engliſh as had remained faithful to him. He aboliſhed the Anglo-Saxon laws, and introduced thoſe of Normandy: built great numbers of forts all over the country, and diſarmed the old inhabitants: inſtituted the curfew bell, which was rung every evening at eight o'clock, and at the ſound of which the Anglo-Saxons were obliged to extinguiſh their candles and fires. He alſo ſeized the treaſures belonging to their monaſteries, under pretence that the rebels had concealed their moſt valuable effects in theſe religious ſtructures: impoſed the tenure of knight's ſervice upon all lands held of the crown: cauſed a general ſurvey of all the lands in England to be made, and an account to be taken of the villains, ſlaves, and live ſtock, upon each eſtate; all which was recorded in Doomſday-Book. He would not ſuffer the Engliſh to hunt or fell timber in his foreſts, without leave firſt obtained from him. He obliged them to uſe the Norman language upon all occaſions, and ordered it to be taught in ſchools. During his reign, England was treated in every reſpect as a conquered country. He died in the year 1087, and was ſucceeded by his ſecond ſon,

William

William II. ſurnamed Rufus, who, purſuant to the will of his father, had diſinherited Robert, his eldeſt ſon, for being concerned in a conſpiracy againſt him. This engaged the two brothers in perpetual wars with each other: but the cruſades to the Holy Land being ſet on foot about this time, Robert engaged in an expedition to Aſia, and, having occaſion for a ſum of money to defray the neceſſary expences of this undertaking, he mortgaged his duchy of Normandy to the king of England for ten thouſand marks of ſilver. William was continually engaged in ſubduing his rebellious ſubjects, and repelling the incurſions of the Welſh and Scots; the latter of whom aſſerted the right of Edgar Atheling to the crown of England. Theſe ſucceſſive commotions obliged him to raiſe large ſums of money, which he uſually levied on the clergy, as moſt able to bear the burden: but theſe being the only hiſtorians of that age, they have loaded his memory with the crimes of rapaciouſneſs and oppreſſion. William's death happened in the year 1100, and the 44th year of his age, when, being on a hunting party, he was accidentally ſhot by one of his attendants.

William II. having no iſſue, as ſucceeded by his younger brother Henry, ſurnamed Beauclerk, on account of his learning, who, taking advantage of Robert's abſence, ſeized upon the crown, to which he had no juſt pretenſions during the life of his elder brother. Robert, on his return from the Holy Land, endeavoured to obtain his right, by invading England; but loſt his duchy of Normandy, together with his liberty, in the attempt, and, after a long impriſonment, died in Cardiff-Caſtle. Henry was next engaged in a long but ſucceſsful war againſt France; and afterwards ſubdued the Welſh, who had taken up arms againſt him. By a charter granted to his ſubjects, he confirmed ſeveral privileges they had enjoyed under the Saxon kings, and reformed the abuſes which had crept into the court. In his reign, the clergy formed themſelves into a kind of ſeparate body, dependent on the pope only, which afterwards created great confuſion in the nation.

Henry having previouſly ſettled the ſucceſſion on his daughter, the empreſs Matilda, or Maud, and her ſon Henry, but they being abroad at the time of Henry's death, the crown was claimed and ſeized by Stephen, earl of Blois, ſon of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. A dreadful civil war enſued, and the kingdom was torn to pieces by inteſtine diviſions. The empreſs Matilda thought this a proper opportunity to aſſert her right, together with that of her ſon. Accordingly ſhe landed in England in the year 1139, attended by no more than 140 men; but, being continually reinforced by her friends as ſhe advanced, ſhe was ſoon in a condition of facing Stephen's forces, and ſeveral ſkirmiſhes happened between the two armies: at laſt, on the ſecond of February 1141, a general engagement enſued, wherein the king's army was defeated, and himſelf taken priſoner. Matilda, however, having, by her folly and unbounded ambition, rendered herſelf odious to the greater part of the nation, particularly to the clergy, who, by this time, had arrived at the moſt intolerable height of inſolence, ſhe was driven out of the kingdom, and Stephen re-inſtated on his throne. He did not long, however, enjoy the peace he thus acquired; Henry, ſon to the empreſs Matilda, conſidering Stephen, as an uſurper, applied to the king of Scotland, his great uncle, for aſſiſtance; and, being aſſured of the countenance of the clergy, he entered England, and the nation became once more a ſcene of anarchy and confuſion. At length a peace was concluded between the two contending princes, whereby it was agreed that Stephen ſhould enjoy the crown during his life, and Henry ſucceeded to it after his his deceaſe. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received with great joy by the Engliſh.

Stephen dying in 1154, Henry II. peaceably aſcended the throne, and began his reign by ſending all the foreigners, particularly the Flemings whom Stephen had called over to his aſſiſtance, out of the kingdom. The dreadful ſcenes of murder and confuſion that had attended the civil wars, having convinced Henry that many forts and caſtles belonging to private perſons were deſtructive of the public tranquility, he demoliſhed them all, except ſuch as he thought neceſſary for the ſafety of his kingdom. He was a great encourager of trade and manufactures; incorporated ſeveral towns, and granted ſuch power to the boroughs in England, that, if a bondman or ſervant remained in any of them a year and a day, he became a freeman by ſuch reſidence. This law gave a ſevere blow to the feudal power of the barons. He revoked all the donations his predeceſſor had made, and reſumed the crown lands which Stephen had alienated. He endeavoured to curb the inſolence of the clergy, particularly that of Becket, archbiſhop of Canterbury, and, by that means embroiled himſelf with the ſee of Rome. The haughty prelate, finding himſelf ſupported by the pope, treated the king with the utmoſt inſolence and contempt, which raiſed the reſentment of Henry to ſuch a pitch, that he one day exclaimed—"Is there no one who will revenge his monarch's cauſe upon this audacious prieſt!" His exclamation was not made in vain, it was overheard by four knights, and without informing Henry, who was then in Normandy, of their intention, they came over to England, and ſlew Becket at the altar of his own church in Canterbury. Henry, in order to appeaſe the public reſentment, which the ſuppoſition of his being privy to the murder had raiſed againſt him, he ſuffered himſelf to be ſcourged at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry was the firſt who levied a tax on the moveables and perſonal eſtates of his ſubjects. He introduced the uſe of glaſs windows into England, and ſtone arches in building: but, among all the excellent laws made by this monarch, none redounds more to his honour than that relative to ſhipwrecks, whereby the barbarous and abſurd practice of forfeiting ſhips, which had been loſt on the coaſt, was aboliſhed, and, if either man or animal was found on board alive, the veſſel and goods were reſtored to the owners.

This prince was engaged in perpetual wars with Scotland, France, Wales, and Ireland; the laſt he entirely conquered, and governed by an officer, to whom he gave the title of grand juſticiary. He took William, king of Scotland priſoner, and obliged him to pay 100,000l. for his ranſom; and, juſt before his death, concluded an honourable peace with France. But, notwithſtanding Henry's great ſucceſſes, his life was a continual ſeries of miſery, occaſioned by the ſucceſſive rebellions of his ſons, who did not ſcruple to act in concert with his avowed enemies. They were encouraged in theſe deteſtable practices by their mother, queen Eleanor, in revenge for the attachment ſhewn by Henry to other women, particularly the fair Roſamond. Theſe repeated misfortunes at length broke the ſpirit of that great prince, and he died of grief in the year 1189.

Richard I. ſurnamed Cœur de Lion, on the demiſe of his father, aſcended the throne, and diſtinguiſhed the beginning of his reign by raiſing an army of 35,000 men, with whom, by the perſuaſion of the clergy, and for their own ends, he made a moſt magnificent but ruinous cruſade to the Holy Land, where he took Acon and Aſcalon, and performed many other acts of valour. But, on his return to England, he was treacherouſly taken priſoner by Leopold, duke of Auſtria, who had ſerved under him at the ſiege of Acon, where, being diſguſted at an inſult offered to his ſtandard by this haughty monarch, he cauſed him to be ſeized as he was paſſing through his dominions, and thrown into priſon. The

emperor Henry VI. who alſo conſidered Richard as an enemy, on account of an alliance contracted by him with Tancred, king of Sicily, offered the duke a large ſum of money if he would deliver the royal captive into his hands. Leopold readily conſented; and, while England was diſtracted with inteſtine commotions, her king was confined in a dungeon by the faithleſs and avaricious Germans. He continued in this diſmal ſituation till the ſum of 300,000l. of our preſent money was paid for his ranſom.

At his return to his dominions, he was received with univerſal joy by his ſubjects, but found every thing in the utmoſt confuſion; by the treachery of his brother John, in whoſe favour France had invaded this kingdom. However, he ſeems to have held John in too much contempt to exert that revenge which he doubtleſs had in his power: his mind was fixed on more important objects; he liſtened to the overtures of the emperor Henry VI. who, aſhamed of the treatment he had inflicted on Richard, now ſolicited his friendſhip and aſſiſtance againſt the king of France. War was accordingly declared againſt that monarch, but ſoon after terminated by a truce of five years; and the renewal of hoſtilities was prevented by the death of Richard, who was ſlain before the walls of the caſtle of Chalus. The viſcount Limoges, owner of that fort, being a vaſſal of Richard, refuſed to deliver up a treaſure he had diſcovered, and which Richard claimed as ſuperior lord of the ſoil. This event happened in 1199, the 42d of his age, and 10th of his reign.

John ſeized the crown, and determined to defend it to the laſt extremity, and ſoon after baſely murdered Arthur, the eldeſt ſon of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right. Philip, king of France, eſpouſed the cauſe of that unfortunate prince, and cited the king of England to repair to France, and ſtand trial for that atrocious crime. John refuſed to obey the ſummons, and was declared guilty of felony and parricide; adjudged to forfeit to his ſuperior lord all his ſeignories and fiefs in France. That inhuman act had rendered him deteſtable to the generality of his ſubjects, and, ſoon after, his puſillanimous conduct embroiled him with the barons, who deteſted his actions. Apprehenſive of an invaſion from France, and dreading the reſentment of his nobility, inſtead of making the neceſſary preparations for ſecuring his kingdom, he applied to the pope for protection. He even offered to become his tributary, as a proof of which he meanly laid his crown at the feet of Pandulph, the pope's legate. The church of Rome, ſenſible of John's weakneſs, now reſolved to acquire unlimited power in England. In this deſign the pope was aſſiſted by the clergy, who wiſhed to render themſelves entirely independent of the civil power, and therefore exerted their utmoſt efforts. England was now once more reduced to a deplorable ſtate of anarchy and confuſion. At length the barons prevailed, and John was obliged to ſign that foundation of all our liberties, ſo well known by the title of Magna Charta. But this being merely an act of compulſion, John complained to the pope of the violence impoſed upon him, and his holineſs immediately declared the charter to be null and void, as having been obtained by force.

In the mean time, John privately levied a body of foreign forces, by whoſe aſſiſtance he, in his turn, triumphed over the barons, who, reduced to the moſt deſperate extremity, offered to acknowledge Lewis, eldeſt ſon to the king of France, as their ſovereign, provided he would aſſiſt them againſt their enraged monarch. The terms were accepted, and Lewis landed in England. John immediately aſſembled a conſiderable army, but paſſing from Norfolk into Lincolnſhire, his road lay along the ſea-ſhore, then overflowed at high water; and fixing on an improper time for his journey, he loſt, in the inundation, all his treaſure, carriages, baggage, and regalia. This misfortune ſo deeply affected him, that he retired to the caſtle of Newark, where he died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and 49th of his age.

Henry III. then a child of ten years old, he appointed to ſucceed him; and, during his minority, the earl of Pembroke was choſen protector of the kingdom. Though hiſtorians have charged John with being of an arbitrary, inconſtant, and cruel diſpoſition, yet it is evident, from the ſame relation, that he had great provocations from the clergy and the barons, who, in their turns, attempted to annihilate the royal prerogative. It muſt be acknowledged, at the ſame time, that, under John, the commons of England laid the foundation of all the wealth and privileges they now enjoy; and the commerce of England received a moſt ſurpriſing increaſe. He may be called the father of the privileges of free boroughs, which he eſtabliſhed and endowed all over his kingdom; and that it was under him that the ſtone-bridge was finiſhed acroſs the Thames at London, as it ſtood ſome years ago. The city of London owes ſome of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chooſe them a mayor out of their own body, and alſo to elect their ſheriffs and common council annually.

Henry was obliged to ſwear fealty to the pope, and renew that homage to which his father had ſubjected the kingdom; and his holineſs, in return, acknowledged Henry's right to the crown of England. Lewis was now obliged to quit the kingdom, and renounce all pretenſions to the crown. But the protector well knew that it was not ſufficient for Henry to have no competitor for the throne, it was alſo neceſſary for him to gain the affections of his ſubjects; accordingly, a new charter of liberties, chiefly copied from that extorted by the barons from his father, was granted. It had been happy for Henry had the protector lived, by whoſe wiſe adminiſtration affairs once more flowed in their proper channels, and the independency of this country was once more reſtored; but Pembroke dying in 1219, he was ſucceeded in the government by the biſhop of Wincheſter and Hubert de Burgh, high juſticiary. Their conduct was the reverſe of that of their predeceſſor, and the barons again broke out into open rebellion. They, however, aſſured the king, when ſummoned to anſwer for their conduct, that they had no deſign againſt his ſacred perſon, and that their ſole motive for appearing in arms was to remove Hubert de Burgh from his office. Henry, at that time, refuſed to comply with their requeſt; but, a few years after, Hubert was diſmiſſed.

The government of the kingdom devolved entirely on the biſhop of Wincheſter, who was a native of Poictou; he perſuaded Henry to admit a number of his countrymen, and other foreigners to ſettle in England. In a ſhort time all places of importance were beſtowed upon them, and Henry was prevailed on to violate the great charter. This once more rouſed the barons, and the king was threatened with excommunication by Edmund, archbiſhop of Canterbury, and other prelates of England, if he did not diſmiſs the biſhop of Wincheſter from his poſts, and all foreigners from the kingdom. Henry thought proper to comply with both theſe injunctions, and the primate, who was in every reſpect equal to the taſk, was placed at the head of the government.

Henry's attachment to foreigners, however, ſtill continued. He had married Eleanor, daughter to the count of Provence, and her relations and followers were promoted to the chief poſts in the kingdom. The barons, finding all remonſtrances ineffectual, entered into a confederacy, at the head of which was one Simon de Montfort, earl of Leiceſter. This ſtruggle between the king and his diſcontented barons laſted a conſiderable time; but at length the latter conquered, and, in one deciſive battle, the king and prince Edward, his eldeſt ſon, were taken priſoners at the

†

the battle of Lewes. Leiceſter and the barons now governed the nation; but prince Edward, having found means to eſcape, ſoon aſſembled an army at Eveſham, and coming to an engagement with the barons, killed Leiceſter, entirely defeated their forces, and replaced his father on that throne his rebellious ſubjects had ſo unjuſtly uſurped.

Edward afterwards undertook an expedition to the Holy Land; but, during his abſence, England again became a ſcene of confuſion; and Henry, worn out with age and grief, died in 1272, expiring in the arms of his favourite ſon, in the 64th year of his age, and 56th of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet to the ſtruggles of this reign, the people in great meaſure owe the liberties of the preſent day. During the reign of Henry, the feudal tenures in England received a ſevere blow by the knights and burgeſſes being allowed to form part of the legiſlature in a ſeparate houſe, which is the preſent Houſe of Commons.

Edward was proclaimed king of England immediately on the demiſe of his father. He invited all who held of his crown *in capite* to his coronation dinner, which conſiſted of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 ſheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats. Alexander III. king of Scotland, was at the ſolemnity, and let looſe 500 horſes, for any that could catch them, to keep them. As ſoon as the ceremony of his coronation was performed, Edward employed himſelf in correcting thoſe abuſes, which, during the preceding reigns, had introduced themſelves into the kingdom. The nation was over-run with robbers, murderers, incendiaries, raviſhers, and plunderers, who lived in open defiance of the laws; and, to proceed againſt ſuch, the king appointed ſpecial commiſſioners, who were to travel through all the counties in England, inquire ſtrictly into diſorders of every kind, and puniſh them with the utmoſt ſeverity. The commiſſioners executed their orders with ſuch vigour, that numerous gangs of diſorderly people were ſoon diſperſed, and the evil totally eradicated. Edward likewiſe regulated the coin, which at that time was greatly adulterated. He ſettled the privileges of the cinque ports; and paſſed the famous mortmain act, whereby all perſons were reſtrained from giving, by will or otherwiſe, their eſtates to religious, and other ſocieties that never die, without a ſpecial licence from the crown.

In the year 1276, he undertook an expedition againſt Lewellyn, prince of Wales, who, during the life of Henry, had aſſiſted the barons; and, on the acceſſion of Edward, refuſed to perform the homage of a vaſſal. Lewellyn made the neceſſary preparations for defending his principality; but finding that the advantageous ſituation of Edward's army had cut off all ſupplies from his own, he was obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion, without having been able to bring the king to an engagement: a treaty was agreed to, and hoſtages delivered by Lewellyn for ſecurity of his future ſubmiſſion. The Welſh, however, could not long ſuffer the inſolent treatment they received from the Engliſh, and once more had recourſe to arms: but this laſt effort for the preſervation of their liberties proved abortive. Lewellyn was ſlain, and his brother David, who ſucceeded to the title, never being able to collect an army ſufficient to face Edward, flew from place to place, and was at laſt betrayed into the king's hands, who cruelly put him to a ſhameful death. The ancient race of their princes being thus extirpated, all the nobility in Wales ſubmitted to the conqueror, and the laws of England, with the ſheriffs, and other miniſters of juſtice, were eſtabliſhed in that principality. Edward created his ſon prince of Wales, and the eldeſt ſons of the monarchs of England have ever ſince borne that title.

Edward was choſen arbiter between Robert Bruce and John Baliol, each of whom, on the death of Margaret, queen of Scots, in 1291, claimed the throne of that kingdom. Edward declared in favour of Baliol, who accordingly aſcended the throne, and, purſuant to a promiſe he had previouſly made the king of England, did homage to Edward for his crown; but, repenting of ſo ſhameful a ſubmiſſion, he ſeized the opportunity offered him, by a war breaking out between England and France, to exert his right of independence. With this view he entered into an alliance with France, but unfortunately for him, a truce being ſoon after concluded between England and that nation, Edward had leiſure to employ the whole force of his arms againſt Scotland, which he reduced to a province of England, and took Baliol priſoner. Impatient of ſubmitting to the Engliſh yoke, the Scots reſolved, if poſſible, to ſhake it off; and Edward, rendered furious by their frequent attempts, at laſt reſolved to ruin their country ſo effectually, as to prevent every attempt of that nature for the future. He aſſembled a numerous army, which he conducted to Carliſle; but, while the neceſſary preparations were making to execute his intentions, he was ſeized with a diſorder which put a period to his life in the year 1307, the 69th year of his age, and 35th of his reign. He ordered his heart to be ſent to the Holy Land, with 32,000l. for the maintenance of what was called the Holy Sepulchre.

In his wars with France, Edward loſt Guienne; for, though he had formed alliances againſt that nation with moſt of the princes of Germany and other powers, he had the mortification to reap no advantage from their aſſiſtance; and that every attempt to leſſen, tended only to heighten the glory of Philip.

This monarch gave great encouragement to foreigners, who traded with England; but he made the aggregate body of every particular nation, reſiding here, anſwerable for the crimes of each individual of their number. He regulated the forms of parliament, and their manner of granting aids towards the nation's defence, which differed very little from the preſent method: and, at the beginning of his reign, he proceeded with great rigour againſt the Jews, whom he expelled the kingdom, and ſeized upon their eſtates.

Edward II. ſucceeded his father, but fell far ſhort of him in the government of his dominions. He was no ſooner, as he ſuppoſed, maſter of himſelf and actions, than he recalled his favourite Gaveſton, ſon to a Gaſcon knight of ſome diſtinction. This young man had been eſtabliſhed in the Prince of Wales's houſehold by Edward I. in return for the ſervices of his father; but finding he had inſinuated himſelf into the affections of his ſon, in whom he was deſirous of cruſhing his deſire for favourites, which already ſeemed the ruling paſſion of his ſoul, he baniſhed young Gaveſton, and, on his death-bed, exacted a promiſe from the prince never to recall him. Happy had it been for Edward had he obeyed this injunction of his father; for the barons finding that, beſides endowing his minion with the earldom of Cornwall, he was daily loading him with riches and honours, which rendered him inſupportably inſolent, they formed a party againſt him, at the head of which was Thomas, earl of Lancaſter, couſin-german to the king.

The barons now repaired to the parliament-houſe armed, where they inſiſted upon the baniſhment of Gaveſton, and that he ſhould take a ſolemn oath never to return into England. The king finding he muſt in ſome meaſure comply with this requeſt, appointed his favourite lord lieutenant of Ireland; but, unable to bear his abſence, he ſoon recalled him. The barons, however, obliged him once more to quit the kingdom; and, upon his returning again in 1312, the whole nation roſe up in arms; upon which Edward placed Gaveſton in the caſtle of Scarborough, then deemed impregnable. Gaveſton, however, had neither courage nor conduct ſufficient to defend it: he ſoon capitulated, and ſurrendered himſelf a priſoner

ſoner to the barons. By the terms of capitulation it was agreed, that his life ſhould be ſafe for two months; but the enraged barons no ſooner found themſelves maſters of his fate, than they ordered his head to be ſtruck off by the hands of the common executioner. The king was at firſt inconſolable, and denounced vengeance on the barons and nobility who had been acceſſary to the murder of his favourite; but upon their condeſcending to aſk his pardon, publicly on their knees, he forgave them every thing that was paſt.

While England was diſtracted with inteſtine broils, Robert Bruce recovered the greater part of Scotland, and, at the time of Gaveſton's death, was beſieging Stirling, the only fortreſs which remained in the hands of the Engliſh. Edward led a numerous army to its relief, but coming to an engagement with Bruce near Bannock-Bourn, he was entirely defeated, and the greater part of his forces ſlain. After which, Robert conquered the Engliſh as often as he engaged them; laid all their provinces contiguous to his dominions under contribution, ſecured his crown, and gave a general peace to his kingdom.

After the death of Gaveſton, the king attached himſelf to Hugh Spencer, and was entirely governed by his counſels and thoſe of his father. This once more gave the barons a pretence for rebellion, and both father and ſon were baniſhed. But Edward having, by the aſſiſtance of the common people, obtained ſome advantages over the barons, he, at the inſtigation of his queen Iſabella, a furious ambitious woman, recalled the Spencers; and numbers of the nobility fell victims to her cruelty. At length the Spencers themſelves having given her cauſe of diſguſt, ſhe formed a party, and publicly levied a body of troops in order to deſtroy thoſe very favourites, to whom ſhe was indebted for her power. All theſe ſchemes were concerted at the court of Philip the Fair, king of France, who was brother to Iſabella, and whither ſhe had retired, under pretence of taking her ſon to pay homage for Guienne and Ponthieu. There ſhe was joined by numerous malcontents from England, and, among the reſt, by Roger Mortimer, a Welſh baron, who had been condemned for high treaſon; but his ſentence of death being changed into that of perpetual impriſonment, he found means to eſcape from the Tower, and took ſhelter in France. Here he was introduced to the queen of England, who firſt employed him as her counſellor, but ſoon becoming enamoured of his perſon, they publicly lived together in the moſt criminal intimacy.

When affairs were ripe for execution, Iſabella ſailed for England, where, on her landing, ſhe was joined by the nation in general, who ſuppoſed her only intent was to put an end to the power of the Spencers. Thus abandoned, Edward attempted to fly into Ireland, but being driven by contrary winds on the coaſt of South Wales, he endeavoured to conceal himſelf in the mountains: he was however, ſoon diſcovered, and conducted to Kenelworth Caſtle, and the Spencers being alſo taken priſoners were both put to death. The infamous queen now ſummoned a parliament, in which ſentence was paſſed upon the unfortunate but innocent Edward, whereby he was obliged to reſign his crown in favour of his ſon. This point obtained, there wanted nothing to render the character of Iſabella truly diabolical, but the murder of her depoſed huſband; and this by her contrivance, jointly with that of Mortimer, was perpetrated on the 21ſt of September 1327.

Edward III. at his acceſſion to the throne, was only 14 years of age; ſo that the queen and Mortimer flattered themſelves that the adminiſtration of affairs would, for ſome years at leaſt, be under their direction, and, in order to ſecure their power, they planned and executed many popular meaſures. But Edward eaſily penetrated into their deſigns, and reſolved to counteract them, when a proper opportunity ſhould offer. He was ſurrounded by the emiſſaries of Mortimer, and was therefore obliged to act with the utmoſt caution; but having privately engaged the aſſiſtance of ſeveral perſons of diſtinction, Mortimer was ſeized in his bed, and, after a ſhort trial, condemned by parliament to be hanged; which ſentence was executed on a gibbet at the Elms, in the neighbourhood of London. The vile queen was confined for life to her own houſe at Riſings, and her revenue reduced to 4000l. per annum.

Edward now proceeded with the utmoſt induſtry and judgment to redreſs all thoſe grievances which had either proceeded from want of authority in the crown, or from the late abuſes of it. Thieves, murderers, and criminals of all kinds, were protected by the barons, for whom they had acted during the civil commotions. Edward ſaw the danger of this attempt, and, in order to render it ſucceſsful, firſt exacted a promiſe from the peers, that they would break off all connections with ſuch diabolical wretches. This point being gained, he iſſued writs to the judges, enjoining them to adminiſter juſtice without paying any regard to arbitrary orders from his miniſters; and they proceeded with ſuch rigour, that the public diſturbers of the peace of the kingdom were ſoon either extirpated or diſperſed, their gangs broken, and a period put to their pernicious practices.

When affairs were ſettled at home, the king employed his forces againſt John Bruce, king of Scotland, who, on the death of Edward II. had committed dreadful ravages on the frontiers of England: but the queen dowager and Mortimer thought it at that time moſt conducive to their ſafety to make peace with John; and, to render it more laſting, Iſabella gave her daughter Joan in marriage to David, eldeſt ſon of Bruce. This conſanguinity, however, did not affect Edward, who reſolved to place Edward Baliol, ſon of that prince, who had been taken priſoner by Edward I. on the throne of Scotland, in oppoſition to his brother-in-law. He ſent for him from Normandy, and promiſed him every aſſiſtance in the recovery of the Scottiſh crown, to which he had an undoubted right, provided he would, in return, become his vaſſal. Baliol conſented, and, after ſeveral conflicts, drove David out of Scotland, where he was ſoon after crowned.

The king of France dying without iſſue in 1337, Philip of Valois declared himſelf next male heir to that crown, but was oppoſed by Edward, who, notwithſtanding he was well acquainted with the Salique law, which excludes all females or their deſcendents from aſcending the throne of that kingdom, aſſerted his claim in right of his mother; and, when he found that Philip was acknowledged king of France, reſolved to invade his kingdom. This war, on the part of Edward, was a continual ſcene of ſucceſs, and he carried his victorious arms even to the gates of Paris. In 1340, he took the title of king of France, uſing it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, "Dieu et mon Droit, God and my right." On the 19th of September 1356, was fought the famous battle of Poictiers, wherein the army of John, the French king, was defeated, and himſelf, with his ſon Philip, taken priſoners, by the Engliſh, under the command of Edward prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince, at that time only 16 years of age. This prince was the darling of his father, the admiration of all Europe, and the hope of England: but his early death prevented the enjoyment of that happineſs with the proſpect of which the nation fondly flattered themſelves when he ſhould aſcend the throne. He died in 1372, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinſtated Peter the Cruel on that throne. In 1360, Edward having reduced Calais, conſented to a peace, whereby he was left in poſſeſſion of ſeveral capital provinces in France,

and

and John was to pay three millions of crowns in gold for his ranſom.

During the above war with France, the Scots taking advantage of the abſence of Edward, recalled their king, David, who, returning with a body of choſen troops, marched into Northumberland, penetrated as far as Durham, which he took, and put all its inhabitants to the ſword. He did not long enjoy the fruits of his invaſion; Edward's queen, Philippa, marching againſt him at the head of a numerous army, obtained a complete victory, and took David priſoner. He was conducted to London, and did not recover his liberty till the end of the war.

The order of the garter was inſtituted by Edward III. and he built the noble caſtle of Windſor. In his reign John Wickliffe, a ſecular prieſt, educated at Oxford, preached the doctrines of the Reformation, and made many diſciples among all ranks of people, who were diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of Wickliffites, or Lollards. He was a man of parts, language, and piety; and has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion thoſe doctrines which had generally paſſed for certain and undiſputed during ſo many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe being derived from his ſearch into the Scriptures, and into eccleſiaſtical antiquity, were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the 16th century. He had many friends in the univerſity of Oxford and at court, and was powerfully protected againſt his enemies, by John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, one of the king's ſons, and other great men. Edward died in the year 1377.

Richard II. ſon to the Black Prince, ſucceeded his grandfather Edward, at the early age of 11 years. During his minority, the kingdom was governed by the duke of Lancaſter, the duke of York, and the duke of Glouceſter, his three uncles. In the beginning of his reign, the Scots defeated the Engliſh army, and this was followed by a three years truce. The French inſulted the coaſts of England, which induced Richard to carry his arms into France, but without ſucceſs, and the war was at length terminated by a twenty-five years truce. Richard was ſoon after affianced to Iſabel, daughter of Charles VI.

The king's unbounded attachment to favourites, which offended his ambitious uncles; the heavy taxes, particularly the poll-tax, impoſed upon the people; and the doctrines of Wickliffe; rendered the nation a continued ſcene of confuſion, during the whole reign of this weak prince. A rebellion broke out, headed by Ball, a prieſt, Wat Tyler, and Jack Straw, who, aſſembling 100,000 rabble, marched from Blackheath to London, where they committed great outrages, and became ſo formidable, that the king was obliged to enter into a conference with the arch-rebel in Smithfield: but the demands of theſe headſtrong people were ſo inſolent, and the menaces of their chief, in caſe of refuſal, ſo daring, that Walworth, lord-mayor of London, who then attended the king, enraged at his audacity, ſtruck him a violent blow on the head, which inſtantly deprived him of life, and, by the excellent conduct of the young king, the rebels ſoon after laid down their arms without any further ill conſequences. Happy had it been for Richard, if the ſame moderation which he poſſeſſed in the inſurrection of Wat Tyler, had influenced every other action of his life. But Sir Michael de la Pole, lord chancellor, judge Treſilian, and Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, created duke of Ireland, deſtroyed the pleaſing proſpect of happineſs. Theſe three worthleſs men poſſeſſed his entire confidence, which rendered them exceedingly obnoxious to parliament; and, notwithſtanding the king's utmoſt efforts in their favour, they were attainted, and condemned to ſuffer as traitors.

By theſe factions, the kingdom was brought to the brink of deſtruction, and the king ſacrificed ſeveral noblemen to his ſafety, particularly the duke of Glouceſter, who was inſidiouſly impriſoned, and afterwards murdered at Calais. A quarrel ſoon after happened between the duke of Hereford, ſon to the duke of Lancaſter, and the duke of Norfolk, which was to be determined by ſingle combat between the parties; but, when the two champions appeared in the field, the king interpoſed, and, in order to prevent at once the preſent effuſion of noble blood, and the future conſequences of the quarrel, he ordered both the dukes to quit the kingdom, and retire to different nations.

About this time, Richard embarked for Ireland, in order to revenge the death of his couſin, Roger, earl of Marche, the preſumptive heir of the crown, who had lately been ſlain in a ſkirmiſh with the natives; and the nobility, thinking themſelves materially affected by the injury done to Henry, duke of Lancaſter, offered that nobleman the crown of England, if he would return and head the malcontents, who were by this time very numerous. This opportunity of gratifying his revenge and gaining the crown, was eagerly embraced by the duke, who ſoon found himſelf at the head of 60,000 men, and ſoon after reinforced by 40,000 more, under the duke of York, who had been left regent to the kingdom. Richard, having intelligence of this invaſion and inſurrection, immediately left Ireland, and landed at Milford-Haven with a body of 20,000 men; though he ſoon found them reduced to about 6,000, the reſt having joined the duke. Thus abandoned, the king fled to the iſle of Angleſey, from whence he propoſed to eſcape either into France or Ireland; but, being prevailed on to continue in the kingdom by the feigned conceſſions of Lancaſter, he was ſoon after betrayed by Percy, duke of Northumberland, into the hands of his rebellious ſubjects, who conveyed him priſoner to London. A parliament was now aſſembled, and Richard, accuſed of oppreſſion, tyranny, and miſconduct, was depoſed by the ſuffrages of both lords and commons, and ordered to be impriſoned in Pomfret-Caſtle, in Yorkſhire, where he died in 1399, in the 34th year of his age, and 23d of his reign.

Henry IV. was ſon of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon of Edward III. and placed on the throne of England in prejudice to Edmund, earl of Marche, ſon of that Roger who was ſlain in Ireland, and who had been declared preſumptive heir of his crown by Richard. The nobility flattered themſelves that this glaring defect in his title would render him dependent upon them, but they ſoon found themſelves diſappointed. Though this occaſioned ſome conſpiracies againſt him, his prudence ſoon rendered them abortive, and he reſolved to leave nothing unattempted to reduce the enormous power of the nobility.

Foreign powers conſidered the acceſſion of Henry in no other light than that of an uſurpation; ſome, however, from indolence, and others from intereſt, acknowledged his title to the crown of England. The king of France, highly incenſed at the injury offered to Richard, reſolved to revenge it, and even impriſoned the herald ſent by Henry's ambaſſadors to demand a ſafe conduct for them to the French court: but being haraſſed by inteſtine diviſions, political motives obliged him to accommodate affairs as ſoon as poſſible. Having recovered his daughter, widow to Richard, he laid aſide his preparation for war, and renewed the truce between the two crowns.

Theſe commotions induced the Scots to make incurſions into England, and, though Henry had taken poſſeſſion of Edinburgh, he could not prevail on Robert III. to do him homage for his crown, nor force him to a battle. Finding therefore that his ſtay in Scotland was of no conſequence, he returned to London and diſbanded his army. But the next year, Archibald, earl of Douglas, having made an

irruption into the northern counties of England, and committed great devaſtations, was overtaken on his return by the Percies, and a dreadful battle enſued, wherein the Scots were totally routed, and Douglas himſelf taken priſoner, together with a great number of the principal Scots nobility. The news of this victory being tranſmitted to Henry, he returned the earl of Northumberland, with the reſt of his family, thanks for this important ſervice; but, at the ſame time, required the noble priſoners to be delivered up to him. This gave diſguſt to the conquerors, who, in a ſhort time after, broke out into open rebellion, and a battle was fought between the king, who commanded his own forces, and Henry Percy, ſurnamed Hotſpur, at the head of the rebels. After a long and bloody conteſt, wherein Hotſpur was ſlain, Henry proved victorious, and the earl of Northumberland having made the neceſſary conceſſions, the king thought proper to grant him a pardon: but the loſs of his favourite ſon ſat heavy on his mind. He ſoon after entered into a conſpiracy with the earl of Nottingham and the archbiſhop of York; the whole, however, proved abortive: Nottingham and the prelate were taken priſoners, Percy fled into Scotland, and afterwards made ſome fruitleſs endeavours to excite an inſurrection in the north of England, where he was ſlain in battle by Sir Thomas Rokeſby, ſheriff of Yorkſhire. About the ſame time Glendour, who had headed the Welſh in their rebellions, died; and Henry having by accident taken James, heir to the crown of Scotland, a child of nine years old, peace was entirely reſtored to the nation.

The marine of England was conſiderably increaſed in the reign of this monarch: the different orders of parliament, eſpecially the commons, acquired their proper authority. Learning was at this time at a much lower paſs in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Biſhops, when teſtifying ſynodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myſelf, N. N. hath ſubſcribed for me;" or, "As my lord biſhop cannot write himſelf, at his requeſt I have ſubſcribed." By the influence of the court, and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the ſeſſion of parliament 1401, for the burning of heretics, occaſioned by the great increaſe of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and William Sawtree, the firſt martyr for this doctrine, was burnt alive. Henry IV. died in 1413, in the forty-ſixth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign.

Henry. V. who now aſcended the throne, had ſignalized himſelf greatly during the wars carried on by his father; but on the reſtoration of peace, he aſſociated himſelf with ſome infamous perſons, who led him into every ſpecies of vice and outrage. During the laſt illneſs of his father, however, there ſeems to have been a thorough reformation in his conduct, and the annals of England do not contain a greater hero.

The beginning of his reign was diſtinguiſhed by a conſpiracy formed among the Wickliffites, who were every day increaſing, and headed by Sir John Oldcaſtle, lord Cobham, who it was pretended had agreed to put himſelf at their head, with a deſign to overturn the government; but this appears to be a groundleſs accuſation, ſuggeſted by the bloody zeal of the clergy: however, Henry endeavoured at firſt, by gentle converſations, to reconcile that nobleman to the Catholic faith; but finding he could not prevail, delivered him over to the eccleſiaſtical power, and he was condemned to the flames for his erroneous opinions. He, however, before the day appointed for his execution, found means to eſcape from the Tower, but was taken about four years after, hanged as a traitor, and his body burnt on the gibbet, purſuant to the ſentence pronounced againſt him as a heretic. This rigour checked for a time the rapid progreſs which the Lollards had made ſince their firſt inſtitution.

Henry having received an injuction from his father never to ſuffer the Engliſh to remain long in peace, reſolved to follow the advice of Chichely, archbiſhop of Canterbury, and aſſert the right which Edward III. had formed to the crown of France. He firſt demanded that the provinces of Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Poitou, ſhould be reſigned to him, which being refuſed by Charles VI. a war enſued. In 1415 Henry landed, with his army, at Havre de Grace, in Normandy, took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, where a great number of the principal nobility of France were left dead on the field, and many taken priſoners. After this engagement the conqueror ſubdued moſt part of France with the greateſt rapidity.

The French king having been declared a lunatic, the adminiſtration of affairs was diſputed between his bother, Lewis, duke of Orleans, and his couſin german, John, duke of Burgundy. This conteſt threw the whole nation into a ferment, which was artfully increaſed by Henry; who, taking advantage of theſe commotions, obliged the queen of France to give him her daughter Catharine in marriage; to declare him regent of France during her huſband's life, and his iſſue ſucceſſors to the French monarchy, in prejudice of the dauphin, her ſon. Accordingly, Henry made a triumphant entry into Paris, where he received the fealty of the French nobility, and the dauphin was formally proſcribed. That prince, however, aſſiſted by the Scots, left nothing uneſſayed for the recovery of his kingdom; but, in all probability, the attempt would have proved his deſtruction, had not death put a period to Henry's glory. Finding his laſt moments approach, he ſent for his brother, John, duke of Bedford, the earl of Warwick, and a few more noblemen, whom he had honoured with his confidence, and conjured them to protect his infant ſon. He adviſed them never to give liberty to the French princes taken at Agincourt, till his ſon was of age; and never to make peace with that nation, unleſs, by the ceſſion of Normandy, and its annexation to the crown of England, compenſation was made for all the hazards and expence he had experienced in endeavouring to obtain the crown of France. He then left the regency of that kingdom to the duke of Bedford; that of England to his younger brother the duke of Glouceſter; and the particular care of the infant king to the earl of Warwick. Having thus ſettled his worldly affairs, he diſmiſſed all but his confeſſor, and ſoon after expired, in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth of his reign. This event happened in the year 1422.

Henry VI. an infant of nine months, was proclaimed king of France, as well as of England, and writs were iſſued in his name for calling a parliament. At this meeting very little regard was paid to the verbal appointments of the deceaſed king. The duke of Bedford was nominated protector, or guardian of England, but the parliament would not ſuffer him to aſſume the appellation of regent, which ſeemed to them a title of two great authority. As the ſtate of affairs required that nobleman's preſence in France, they inveſted his brother, the duke of Glouceſter, with the ſame dignity during his abſence; and, in order to limit the power which theſe princes might aſſume, they named a council, without whoſe advice and approbation no meaſure of importance could be determined. The young king, inſtead of being in the hands of Warwick, was committed to the care of Henry Beaufort, biſhop of Wincheſter, his great uncle, who had the ſole care of his education. Mean time, the duke of Bedford reſolving to complete the conqueſt of France, made every neceſſary preparation for that purpoſe, both by the exertion of arms, and by entering into new treaties with the principal nobility in that kingdom.

On

On the death of Charles VI. which happened ſoon after that of Henry V. many of the French ſecretly wiſhed that the dauphin might aſcend the throne. The army of that prince was re-inforced by conſiderable numbers of Scots; and Bedford being obliged to viſit England, where buſineſs detained him near eight months, on his return to France had the mortification to find the Engliſh had ſuffered ſome defeats, and that numbers of the chief men in France had deſerted to the intereſt of Charles, among whom was the duke of Brittany. The regent therefore immediately attacked his province, and reduced him to ſuch extremities, that he once more renounced the French alliance, and promiſed to do homage for his duchy to Henry.

The duke now reſolved on the ſiege of Orleans, a place rendered by its ſituation of ſuch importance, that on the poſſeſſion of it the entire conqueſt of France in a manner depended. Senſible of this, Charles placed a ſtrong garriſon in that important city, which was for ſome time vigorouſly defended, but was at laſt on the point of ſurrendering for want of proviſions, when a phenomenon, ſcarcely to be paralleled in hiſtory, brought it unexpected relief. In the village of Domremi there lived a girl of about twenty-ſeven years of age, named Joan d'Arc, a ſervant at an inn, where ſhe performed the common offices of an oſtler. By frequently hearing the misfortunes of Charles, ſhe began to pity him, and miſtaking her deſire of affording him aſſiſtance for a divine miſſion, ſhe reſolved, if poſſible, to procure admiſſion to his preſence, which after ſome difficulty was effected. On approaching the prince, ſhe aſſured him that ſhe was ſent expreſsly from heaven to raiſe the ſiege of Orleans, and afterwards to conduct him to Rheims, and cauſe him to be crowned in that city. Charles having conſulted his friends, they either believed the girl inſpired, or thought her enthuſiaſm might be a means of raiſing the drooping ſpirits of the French. A ſtrong body of forces was immediately put under her command; and ſuch was the panic with which the Engliſh were ſeized on her approach, that, inſtead of engaging, they ſuffered her to enter Orleans peaceably, with the convoy deſtined to relieve the garriſon. Elated with her ſucceſs, ſhe reſolved to attack the beſiegers, who, dreading her ſupernatural influence, loſt all their wonted courage and confidence. The forts, built by the Engliſh generals round the city, were taken, with great ſlaughter, and at length the ſiege was raiſed, to the utter diſgrace of the Britiſh army. The maid of Orleans, an appellation uſually beſtowed on this extraordinary woman, did not give her enemies time to recover from their deluſion; ſhe diſpoſſeſſed them of ſeveral towns, and, having again defeated their army, took Talbot, their general, priſoner. She then conducted Charles to Rheims, ſeizing upon all the cities which oppoſed her paſſage, and rendered the French as formidable to the Engliſh, as, a ſhort time before, the Engliſh had been to the French. At laſt this extraordinary perſon fell into the hands of the Engliſh, who, contrary to every ſenſe of juſtice, humanity, or reaſon, condemned her to be burnt as a witch.

Bedford flattered himſelf that the death of this heroine would have re-eſtabliſhed Henry's intereſt in France, whither he cauſed the young king to be brought, and crowned at Paris. But it was beyond the power of man to retrieve the affairs of the Engliſh. The French returned with joy to the allegiance they owed Charles as their rightful ſovereign; and the duke of Burgundy, who had been a firm friend to the Engliſh ever ſince the beginning of this war, followed the current, and was reconciled to Charles. This defection was of the utmoſt importance at ſo critical a juncture, and was followed by a ſtill greater blow to the Engliſh; the duke of Bedford paid the debt of nature at Rouen, a few days after he received the news of the duke of Burgundy's reconciliation with Charles VII. in the year 1435.

§

England was at this time in the utmoſt confuſion; the king had married Margaret, daughter to the duke of Anjou, and titular king of Sicily, a woman of a high ſpirit and implacable diſpoſition. Glouceſter had loſt all his authority in the government. Wincheſter, who preſided at the head of the treaſury, had by his avarice ruined the intereſt of the nation both at home and abroad; and Richard, duke of York, lord-lieutenant of Ireland, whoſe claim to the crown of England was prior to that of Henry, being deſcended by the mother's ſide from Lionel, an elder ſon of Edward III. ſecretly formed a party to aſſert that right, and ſoon after broke out into open rebellion.

The duke of Glouceſter having been aſſaſſinated, by order of the queen, who, taking advantage of Henry's weakneſs, had ſeized the entire management of affairs, appointed William de la Pole, duke of Suffolk, prime miniſter: but he being ſoon after baniſhed and murdered, was ſucceeded by Edmund Beaufort, duke of Somerſet.

The king having been viſited with a fit of illneſs in 1454, it was neceſſary to appoint a protector; and the queen, being unable to reſiſt the York party, was obliged to acquieſce, when the duke was named to fill that important office by the parliament. This ſet the nation in a flame, and Henry recovering, both parties prepared for action. Soon after, a battle was fought at St. Alban's, in which the Yorkiſts gained the victory, and took Henry priſoner. This misfortune ſo diſconcerted the king, that he committed the whole authority of the crown into the hands of Richard. Margaret, however, found means to ſet her huſband at liberty. Five years after, a ſecond battle was fought at Northampton, wherein the Lancaſtrians were again defeated, and Henry made priſoner a ſecond time.

In a parliament ſummoned immediately after the battle of Northampton, the duke of York publicly aſſerted his claim to the crown, and ſubmitted his rights to the debates of the peers. After many deliberations, it was enacted, that the king ſhould poſſeſs the throne during his life, and the duke of York ſucceed him, in excluſion of all Henry's iſſue. When Margaret, who, with her infant ſon, had fled to Durham, heard of this deciſion, ſhe employed her utmoſt abilities to gain the northern barons over to her intereſt, and, to the aſtoniſhment of her enemies, ſoon collected an army of 20,000 men. At the head of this powerful body ſhe proceeded as far as Wakefield, and gave battle to the duke of York, who had marched thither to meet her; but Margaret proved victorious, the duke of York was ſlain in the engagement, and his forces cut to pieces.

Edward, now duke of York, exerted himſelf to revenge the death of his father, and obtained ſeveral advantages over the Lancaſtrians; notwithſtanding which, the queen advanced towards London, and having defeated the earl of Warwick at St. Alban's, ſet Henry once more at liberty. Not daring to enter London, where Edward was received with every demonſtration of joy, ſhe retreated northwards, taking her huſband with her. Edward now reſolved to aſſume the title and dignity of king, without waiting for the meeting of parliament. He ordered his army to aſſemble in St. John's Fields, where numbers of people attended, and the right of Edward being explained in an harangue, pronounced to this mixed multitude, they were aſked if they would have Henry of Lancaſter for their king? To which they replied in the negative. It was then demanded, whether they would accept of Edward, eldeſt ſon of the late duke of York? When they expreſſed their conſent by loud acclamations of joy. This popular election being finiſhed, it was ratified by a great number of biſhops, lords, magiſtrates, &c. and the new king was on the 5th of March 1461 proclaimed in London,

London, under the name of Edward IV. In the mean time the king and queen retreated into the north, where Margaret levied more forces; but Edward reſolving to give her as little time as poſſible, marched with the utmoſt expedition againſt her. The two armies met at Towton, where a moſt obſtinate battle enſued. After a moſt bloody conteſt, in which a great number of the nobility were ſlain, victory at length declared in favour of Edward, who purſuing the enemy with unrelenting fury, 40,000 men were left dead on the field.

Margaret and her huſband were obliged to fly into Scotland, where ſhe made ſuch conceſſions to the Scots, as induced them to aſſiſt her with a body of forces. At the head of this little army ſhe again entered England; and being reinforced by conſiderable numbers in the northern counties, ſhe again ventured to face the victorious Edward, but met with numberleſs defeats. Henry was taken priſoner, and ſhe, after enduring incredible fatigues, eſcaped into France.

This civil war was carried on with greater animoſity than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as blood-thirſty as her opponents; and when priſoners of either ſide were made, their deaths were deferred only far a few hours, eſpecially if they were perſons of rank.

Edward IV. (the late duke of York) being crowned on the 29th of June, had ſome time before ſent the earl of Warwick to demand Bona of Savoy, the king of France's ſiſter, in marriage, in which embaſſy he was ſucceſsful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princeſs into England; but in the mean time the king fell in love with, and privately married Elizabeth, the widow of Sir John Grey. When the ſecret of Edward's marriage broke out, the earl, deeming himſelf affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and reſentment, and, from being Edward's ſincere friend, became his moſt implacable enemy: he, therefore, with the marquis of Montacute, the archbiſhop of York, and the duke of Clarence, concerted meaſures to dethrone the king, whom they attacked, in his camp at Nottingham, and made priſoner, but eſcaping from his confinement, and retiring to Holland, the earl of Warwick, and the French king, Lewis XI. declared for the reſtoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne.

Edward, returning from Holland, advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received by the citizens into the capital, he re-aſcended the throne, defeated and killed Warwick in the battle of Barnet, and made Henry once more his priſoner. A few days after, he routed a freſh army of Lancaſtrians, and made queen Margaret priſoner, together with her ſon prince Edward, whom the duke of Glouceſter, Edward's brother, murdered in cold blood.

Edward, being thus ſettled on the throne, purſued the Lancaſtrians with unremitting fury, and numbers of all ranks were put to death. In 1474 the kingdom of England was in a deplorable ſituation. The king abandoned himſelf to the moſt luxurious indolence, in which he was imitated by his great men, who, to ſupport their extravagance, became penſioners to the French king. The parliament ſeemed only to act as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The beſt blood in England was ſhed on ſcaffolds, and even the duke of Clarence fell a victim to his brother's jealouſy. Edward, partly to amuſe the public, and partly to ſupply the vaſt expences of his court, pretended ſometimes to quarrel, and ſometimes to treat with France; but his irregularities put an end to his life in 1483, in the twenty-third year of his reign, and the forty-ſecond of his age. Before his death he nominated his brother, the duke of Glouceſter, regent, during the minority of his eldeſt ſon.

During the reigns of Henry IV. and Edward IV. notwithſtanding the turbulence of the times, there was an increaſe of the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen. So early as 1440 a navigation act was thought of by the Engliſh, as the only means to preſerve to themſelves the benefit of being ſole carriers of their own merchandize; but foreign influence prevented Henry's paſſing the bill for that purpoſe. The invention of printing, which is generally ſuppoſed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received ſome countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor ſtate in England; its chief ornaments were the famous Littleton, judge of the Common-Pleas, and Forteſcue, chancellor of England, both of whom flouriſhed at this period.

The late king Edward IV. left two ſons by his queen, who had raiſed many of her obſcure relations to the higheſt employments, and thereby given great offence to the chief nobility. Her eldeſt ſon, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle and guardian, the duke of Glouceſter, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, reſolved to fix that crown on his own head, which was deſigned to adorn the brow of his nephew. Accordingly, he found means to baſtardize the queen's iſſue, by act of parliament, under the ſcandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke was then declared guardian of the kingdom, and at laſt accepted of the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners, having firſt put to death all the nobility and great men, whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family.

Richard III. had, however, ſo ſtrongly prejudiced the minds of the Engliſh againſt him, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, who ſtill remained in France, carried on a ſecret correſpondence with the remaining friends of Edward IV. and, by offering to marry his eldeſt daughter, he was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreign troops, which were ſoon joined by 7000 Engliſh and Welſh. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, enſued at Boſworth-Field, in which Richard, after diſplaying moſt aſtoniſhing acts of perſonal valour, was ſlain in the year 1485, having been firſt abandoned by a main diviſion of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother.

The crimes of Richard have no doubt been much exaggerated by ſome hiſtorians, who have been ſilent reſpecting his good qualities. He is repreſented by other writers, as exemplary in his diſtributive juſtice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whoſe oppreſſions he aboliſhed, and was a father to the common people. He founded the ſociety of heralds —an inſtitution, which, in his time, was found neceſſary to prevent diſputes among great families. During his ſhort reign, we have repeated inſtances of his relieving cities and corporations that had gone into decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hardware manufactures of all kinds, and for preventing their being imported into England, no fewer than ſeventy-two different kinds being prohibited by one act. He was the firſt Engliſh king who appointed a conſul for the ſuperintendency of Engliſh commerce abroad.

Henry VII. was now univerſally acknowledged king of England, and, according to agreement between him and the queen dowager, married the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter to Edward IV. This marriage united the two houſes of York and Lancaſter, and put a final period to thoſe dreadful contentions which had ſo often deluged England with the blood of its inhabitants. Henry, however, could not forget that the deſtruction of his family had been owing to partiſans of the houſe of York, and, in conſequence of this averſion, he committed the earl of Warwick, ſon to the duke of Clarence, and ne-

phew to Edward IV. close prisoner to the Tower, without pretending to charge him with any other crime, than his propinquity to the house of York. The same motives prompted him to declare that he did not hold the crown in consequence of his alliance with Elizabeth, but by his own undoubted right. These unconquerable prepossessions in Henry gave great disgust to the nation, and several conspiracies were formed against him, particularly those of Lambert Simnel, and Perkin Warbeck. Simnel was taken prisoner, and, after being employed in the king's kitchen, was made one of his falconers. Perkin was never proved to satisfaction to have been an impostor, either by Henry, or by James IV. king of Scotland, who had for some time kindly entertained him: at length, however, after various unfortunate adventures, he fell into Henry's hands, and was shut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to escape with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded.

The ruling passion of Henry was avarice: to this he sacrificed every other consideration. In 1499, Arthur, his eldest son, married the princess Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king of Spain. Though the prince did not long survive his nuptials, Henry was so averse to the refunding of her dowry, that he obliged his second son, Henry, to marry his brother's widow; and notwithstanding the opposition of Warham, archbishop of Canterbury, the pope was prevailed on to grant a dispensation for that purpose. To the same vice in Henry may be attributed the little encouragement he gave to Columbus, who made him the first offer of discovering the West-Indies. This neglect was, however, somewhat extenuated, by the encouragement he gave to Cabot, who discovered North America. He was also desirous of improving the commerce of England, and often lent considerable sums of money, without interest, to such merchants whom he knew had not funds sufficient to accomplish the schemes they had formed. Henry died in 1509, in the fifty-second year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign. At the time of his demise he was possessed of 1,800,000l. sterling, equal to five millions at present.

This monarch married his eldest daughter Margaret to James IV. king of Scotland—an union which in the next age produced remarkable events. He instituted a company, called Yeomen of the Guard, who were to attend continually near his person; and these, with little variation, have been ever since continued by his successors. An act was passed, by which the barons and gentlemen of landed interest were at liberty to sell and mortgage their lands without fines and licences for the alienation. This obstacle being removed, the estates of the barons soon became the property of the commons, but stripped of their dangerous privileges. The baronial power was thus imperceptibly undermined, and soon after fell to the ground. Several other acts of parliament were passed, relative to trade and navigation, which proved infinitely beneficial to the nation. The fine arts were far advanced in England during this reign.

Henry VIII. succeeding his father at the age of eighteen, ascended the throne amidst the universal acclamations of his people. The young monarch possessed a liberality of temper bordering on profusion, and which, though sometimes misapplied, generally tended to the benefit of his subjects. He was brave without ostentation, and of a frank and candid disposition. Fond of study, and a friend to learning, he had made considerable progress both in philosophy and divinity, and was thoroughly acquainted with music. To all these qualifications nature had given him a most engaging person; and people were so much prepossessed in his favour, that the vices of vehemence, ardour, and impatience, to which he was remarkably addicted, were considered as the faults of youth, which time would correct; but which, in the latter part of his life, degenerated into tyranny and cruelty. His pride was unbounded, and his flatterers took care to turn it to their own advantage. They engaged him deeply in the affairs of the continent, and he once made the necessary preparations for the conquest of France. But in all his wars he was the dupe of foreign powers, particularly of Ferdinand, king of Spain, and the emperor Maximilian.

Thomas Wolsey, the son of a butcher at Ipswich, but afterwards a student at Magdalen-College, in Oxford, was this monarch's chief favourite. He was first introduced to court by Fox, bishop of Winchester, where his great talents and insinuating address soon recommended him to the particular notice of the king. His promotions were as great as they were rapid. From almoner of the household, he was made dean of Lincoln, then a member of the privy-council, soon after appointed prime-minister, then bishop of Lincoln, and afterwards archbishop of York. Francis I. king of France, raised him to the purple; Henry created him lord chancellor, and likewise obtained a commission from the pope, nominating him legate *à latere*. It is natural to imagine that such noble preferments were sufficient to satisfy the most unbounded ambition. That of Wolsey, however, did not stop here; he aspired to the pontifical chair, to which Charles V. had promised to raise him. Finding that emperor never intended to perform his promise, he persuaded Henry to abandon his alliance with Charles, and engage in a treaty with France, hoping by that means to reach the summit of his ambition.

Martin Luther, professor of divinity in the university of Wirtemburg, in 1521 began to preach against the abuses which had crept into the church of Rome, and even called the authority of the pope in question. This doctrine, which in some particulars was the same with that of the Lollards, was readily embraced by the remains of that sect in England. Henry, in order to stop the rapid progress it was making among all ranks of people, wrote a Latin treatise "Of the seven Sacraments," against the principles of Luther; and the pope, as a reward for this service, conferred on him the title of "Defender of the Faith." A disappointment soon after entirely changed Henry's sentiments. From a friend, he became an enemy; he had for some time entertained many scruples with regard to the propriety of his marriage with Catharine, his brother's widow; and in order to remove them, had consulted the principal divines of the kingdom, all of whom declared that the contract was contrary to every law, either human or divine. This unanimous opinion determined the king to solicit a divorce from the court of Rome. He was indeed excited to this measure by a much stronger motive than that of conscience; he had fallen in love with Anne Boleyn, a young lady belonging to the queen's court. Wolsey used his interest to obtain the divorce, hoping he should, by that means, revenge himself on Charles V. nephew to Catharine. That emperor interposed so effectually with Clement VII. who then filled St. Peter's chair, that he absolutely refused to annul the marriage of Henry with Catharine. This was the first cause of disgust the king conceived against Wolsey, who had represented the divorce as a thing easily obtained. Wolsey's enemies laid hold of this opportunity to ruin him. Their attempt succeeded: Henry soon after seized all his furniture, papers, and treasure, and even impeached him of high treason. This blow was too severe for the spirit of Wolsey to support; he died of grief on the twenty-ninth of November 1530, at Leicester-Abbey.

A perplexing, though nice conjuncture of affars, induced Henry at last to throw off all relation to, or dependence upon the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation. Henry never could have ef-

fected this arduous meaſure but for his deſpotic diſpoſition, which broke out on every occaſion. Upon a ſlight ſuſpicion of the queen's inconſtancy, and after a ſham trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death ſome of her neareſt relations, and in many reſpects he acted in the moſt arbitrary manner; his wiſhes, however unreaſonable, being too readily complied with, in conſequence of the ſhameful ſervility of his parliaments. The diſſolution of the religious houſes, and the immenſe wealth that came to Henry, enabled him to give full ſcope to his ſanguinary diſpoſition; ſo that the beſt and moſt innocent blood in England was ſhed by his orders, and ſeldom any long time paſſed without being marked with ſome illuſtrious victim of his tyranny. Among others, was the aged counteſs of Saliſbury, deſcended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to cardinal Pole; the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correſpondence with that cardinal. Sir Thomas More, lord high chancellor, John Fiſher, biſhop of Rocheſter, and Thomas Cromwell, a man who, from the loweſt rank, had been raiſed by Henry to the higheſt poſts, were alſo among the number of victims whom, either from religious or political motives, he ſacrificed to his cruelty.

Henry's third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family: but ſhe died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, ſiſter to the duke of Cleves; he diſliked her ſo much, that he ſcarcely bedded with her, and, obtaining a divorce, he ſuffered her to reſide in England on a penſion of 3000l. a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whoſe head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His laſt wife was Catharine Parr, in whoſe poſſeſſion he died, after ſhe had narrowly eſcaped being brought to the ſtake for her religious opinions, which favoured the Reformation. Henry's cruely increaſed with his years; nor did he, while thus perſecuting the followers of Luther, ſpare the Catholics, many of whom ſuffered for denying his ſupremacy; and it was juſtly obſerved by a foreigner, at that time in England, that thoſe who were againſt the pope were burnt, and thoſe who were for him hanged. He alſo put the brave earl of Surrey to death without a crime being proved againſt him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, muſt have ſuffered the next day, had he not been ſaved by Henry's own death, in the year 1547, in the fifty-ſixth year of his age, and the thirty-eighth of his reign. He left at his deceaſe three children, viz. Mary, by his firſt wife, Catharine of Arragon; Elizabeth, by his ſecond wife, Anne Boleyn; and Edward, by his third wife, Jane Seymour.

Henry's attention to the naval ſecurity of England is highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the unjuſt and arbitrary power he frequently aſſumed, in many reſpects, for the glory and intereſt of his ſubjects. Whatever were his religious motives, it muſt be candidly confeſſed, that had the Reformation gone through all the forms preſcribed by the laws and the courts of juſtice, it probably never could have taken place, or at leaſt not for many years; and without enquiring into his perſonal crimes, or failings, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby reſuming it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the preſent greatneſs of England. Henry was a great encourager of learning and the arts; he gave a penſion to Eraſmus, who was himſelf a prodigy of learning; he brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houſes began to reſemble thoſe of Italy for magnificence and regularity. He was a conſtant and generous friend to Cranmer; and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimſical than ſettled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who afterwards became the inſtruments of a more pure reformation. In his reign, the Bible was ordered to be printed in Engliſh; Wales was united and incorporated with England; and Henry took the title of king, inſtead of lord, of that principality.

Edward VI. aſcended the throne at the age of nine years; but, agreeable to Henry's will, the regency devolved on ſixteen executors, and twelve counſellors, who, after ſome diſputes were ſettled, appointed the earl of Hertford, the king's uncle, protector. This nobleman was always a friend to the Reformation, and now promoted it with all his power. He was aſſiſted in this deſign by the young king, and archbiſhop Cranmer, but vehemently oppoſed by Gardiner, biſhop of Wincheſter, and Bonner, biſhop of London. He however ſucceeded, and in a ſhort time private maſſes were aboliſhed, the cup was reſtored to the laity, all images were removed out of churches, the common prayer was corrected, and the Reformation confirmed by act of parliament. All theſe alterations, however, were not effected without great diſturbances; the inhabitants of different counties took up arms, but, after ſeveral defeats, accepted of a general pardon.

Henry having earneſtly recommended his executors to exert their utmoſt endeavours for uniting England and Scotland by the marriage of Edward with the young queen of Scots, the protector entered that kingdom at the head of a powerful army. This war, which was carried on with very little ſucceſs, did not obtain the end propoſed; the young queen was ſent into France, and betrothed to the dauphin. During the protector's abſence, great diviſions and cabals were formed in the Engliſh councils; and ſoon after his return, he had the mortification to ſee lord Seymour, his brother, who, on the death of Henry, had married the queen dowager, endeavour to ſupplant him. This breach was widened by the earl of Warwick, who was reſolved to raiſe his own fortune on the deſtruction of both. He perſuaded the protector to deprive his brother of the poſt of admiral, and commit him to the Tower as a ſeditious perſon. Soon after, on refuſing the terms of reconciliation offered him, he was accuſed of high treaſon, tried, and beheaded.

England, in 1549, was one continued ſcene of confuſion. The war ſtill continued with Scotland; inſurrections, occaſioned by the encloſure of lands, had broke out in almoſt every county, and France, taking advantage of theſe domeſtic diſtractions, attempted to recover Boulogne, which Henry VIII. had conquered. The council, which alone could reſtore tranquillity, was divided in itſelf, and the protector became obnoxious to every other member. At length they proceeded to extremities againſt him; and Warwick became his open enemy. He was accuſed of ſeveral miſdemeanors, and committed to the Tower, together with his principal friends and adherents. An entire change immediately took place in the council: Warwick enjoyed the chief authority, who thinking that this revolution in affairs had ſufficiently humbled the ſpirit of Somerſet, he readmitted him into the council, and even formed an alliance between their families, by the marriage of his ſon, lord Dudley, with the lady Jane Seymour, Somerſet's daughter.

Warwick was now created duke of Northumberland; but finding that Somerſet often expreſſed his reſentment for the diſgrace he had ſuffered, he determined to deſtroy him. He was accuſed of a deſign to raiſe an inſurrection in the north, and of having formed a conſpiracy to murder the duke of Northumberland. His peers acquitted him of the firſt charge, but found him guilty of the ſecond, and he was beheaded, purſuant to his ſentence, upon Tower-hill. The duke, having now the ſole management of the king, perſuaded him by many plauſible arguments, to change

change the order of ſucceſſion eſtabliſhed by Henry VIII. in favour of lady Jane Gray, daughter to the duke of Suffolk, and wife to Northumberland's fourth ſon. In 1553, the king granted his letters patent for this purpoſe, and in a few days after expired at Greenwich, at the early age of eighteen.

Northumberland immediately publiſhed Edward's will, and cauſed lady Jane to be proclaimed queen at London, where her title was recognized by the citizens; though on the approach of Mary with a powerful army, lady Jane was entirely abandoned, and Mary's right to the crown acknowledged with univerſal acclamations. The duke, finding his ſchemes fruſtrated, was among the foremoſt to own the title of that princeſs. This mean artifice was not ſufficient to ſave his life: he was beheaded, together with the duke of Suffolk, lord Guildford Dudley, and lady Jane Gray. The execution of the two latter was haſtened by the inſurrection of Sir Thomas Wyat, who having aſſembled about ſix thouſand men, entered London, firmly perſuaded that the inhabitants would riſe in favour of lady Jane. The very contrary happening, he was totally diſappointed: his forces were defeated, and he himſelf taken priſoner, and beheaded.

Mary (ſtyled, by ſome, Mary the Bloody) was a bigotted Papiſt, and proceeded, like an infernal fury, to reſtore Popery to its former ſtate in England; though, on her acceſſion, ſhe had firmly promiſed religion ſhould remain on the ſame footing as in the time of her predeceſſor. Her firſt ſtep was to recall cardinal Pole, who had been baniſhed by her father; and he, together with Bonner, biſhop of London, and Gardiner, biſhop of Wincheſter, were the chief agents who executed her bloody mandates. The torch of perſecution blazed in every corner of the kingdom, and no leſs than five biſhops, viz. Cranmer, Ridley, Latimer, Hooper, and Ferrar, twenty-one divines, eight gentlemen, eighty-four tradeſmen, one hundred huſbandmen, twenty-ſix wives, twenty widows, nine virgins, two boys, and two infants, periſhed in the flames. Even the princeſs Elizabeth eſcaped with difficulty, as her attachment to the Proteſtant religion was well known. In the beginning of her reign, Mary married Philip, ſon to the king of Spain, and they jointly laboured to exterminate all thoſe who refuſed to embrace the religion of Rome.

In 1557, the queen ſignified her intention of taking part with Spain in the war that kingdom then carried on againſt France. This ſtep was ſtrongly oppoſed by the miniſtry; but the remonſtrances and threatenings of Philip prevailed, and war was declared on the moſt trifling pretences. It was with great difficulty, however, that Mary found means to raiſe an army, nor was the war attended with the leaſt advantage to England. On the contrary, the important town of Calais, which had been in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh above two hundred years, was taken by the French. This loſs occaſioned alarming reflections on the queen's imprudence, who had thus ſacrificed the welfare of her people, and expoſed the nation to diſgrace, merely to ſatisfy the capricious humour of her huſband. Theſe cenſures, together with the grief ſhe felt for the loſs of Calais, and her huſband's reſolution of ſettling for ever in Spain, preyed ſo greatly on her ſpirits, that ſhe was ſeized with a lingering fever, which put a period to her turbulent and ſanguinary life in the year 1558, in the 42d year of her age, and 5th of her reign.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, aſcended the throne on the demiſe of her ſiſter Mary; and the nation, with an univerſal joy, acknowledged her for their queen. She immediately notified her acceſſion to foreign courts, and among the reſt to Philip of Spain. That prince flattered himſelf, that by forming an alliance with Elizabeth he ſhould be able to acquire that unbounded power in England, which he had vainly endeavoured to eſtabliſh in the reign of her ſiſter. He ordered his miniſter to pay her his compliments of congratulation, and at the ſame time to propoſe a marriage between them. Elizabeth received this propoſal with a determined reſolution to reject it, but gave ſo evaſive an anſwer, that Philip flattered himſelf with the hopes of ſucceſs, and actually ſent an agent to Rome to ſolicit the neceſſary diſpenſation.

Elizabeth having reſolved to make a thorough change in religion, ordered the Lord's prayer, the creed, the ten commandments, the litany, and the goſpels to be read in Engliſh. At the ſame time ſome able divines were employed to review the liturgy of Edward VI. and to prepare the nation for its being uſed in the public ſervice of the church. In a word, the queen exerted her utmoſt endeavours to extirpate Popery, by the gentleſt methods, and was ſo happy as to enjoy the fruits of thoſe endeavours during the whole courſe of a long reign.

Mary, queen of Scots, by her ill conduct having obliged her ſubjects to inſiſt on her abdicating the throne in favour of her ſon James, then an infant, fled into England for protection, which had often been promiſed her by Elizabeth: but that politic princeſs, fearing ſhe might create diſturbances in the kingdom, to which ſhe had ſet up a claim, kept her confined eighteen years, and at laſt brought her to a trial for being acceſſary to the murder of her ſecond huſband, lord Darnley, and of forming conſpiracies againſt the government of England. No poſitive proof of guilt, however, could be produced againſt this unhappy princeſs; notwithſtanding which ſhe was condemned to loſe her head, and the horrid ſentence was executed in 1587.

Elizabeth's reign was for the moſt part employed in ſchemes againſt Philip, who no ſooner found that his offers of alliance were rejected, than he became her avowed enemy. The moſt formidable attempt of Spain was in the year 1558, when, in order to invade England, Philip equipped a powerful fleet, ſtyled the Invincible Armada. It conſiſted of 130 veſſels, of which near an hundred were galleons, and much larger than any ever before uſed in Europe. It carried 19,295 ſoldiers; 8456 mariners; 2088 galley-ſlaves; and 2630 large pieces of braſs ordnance. It was victualled for ſix months, and attended by twenty ſmaller ſhips, called caravals, and ten ſalves with ſix oars each. The duke de Medina Sidonia was appointed admiral of this Invincible Armada, and the duke of Parma, who commanded in the Spaniſh Netherlands, was to join him with an army of 30,000 foot, and 1800 horſe; but the latter part of the ſcheme was fruſtrated, the Engliſh and Dutch fleets blocking up the ports of Flanders. The Spaniſh armament arrived in the channel on the 19th of July, and were met by the Engliſh ſquadron under the command of lord Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, and ſeveral other perſons of diſtinction; by whoſe valour and good conduct the enemy were ſoon put into the utmoſt diſorder, and rendered incapable of performing any one part of the orders received from Philip. The amazing ſize of their ſhips, from which they promiſed themſelves certain conqueſt, proved the means of their deſtruction; for, unacquainted with the narrow ſeas, they were at a loſs how to manage them, and, while their bulk expoſed them to the fire of the Engliſh, their cannon was placed too high to do any material execution. Some were ſunk, ſome burnt, and others taken. The Spaniſh admiral, finding that the intention for which he was ſent was now entirely fruſtrated, determined to return to Spain by ſailing round the north of Scotland. After his fleet had paſſed the Orkneys, it was overtaken by a violent ſtorm, which drove many of the Spaniſh ſhips on the weſtern iſles of Scotland, and others on the coaſt of Ireland, where they periſhed. Not one half of this formidable armament ever reached Spain, to the confuſion and diſhonour of Philip. Thus ended an expedition which had been three

three years in preparing, and by which the Spaniards are ſaid to have loſt 13,500 men, and 81 ſhips of war, large and ſmall.

Elizabeth entered into ſeveral treaties with the Dutch, and for a ſeries of time ſupported that people in their revolt from Philip. She ſent them her favourite, the earl of Leiceſter, who acted as her general and viceroy in the Low Countries. Though this nobleman behaved ill, yet her meaſures were ſo wiſely taken and executed, that the Dutch eſtabliſhed their independency upon Spain; and then ſhe ſent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant and naval officers, into the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, who enriched their country by the prodigious treaſures they took from the Spaniards in thoſe parts of the globe.

On the death of the earl of Leiceſter, Elizabeth made choice of the young earl of Eſſex, as her chief favourite, who was appointed to command the land forces, in a joint expedition with the lord admiral Howard, againſt Cadiz, which they took, deſtroyed the ſhips in the harbour, and did other damage to the Spaniards, to the amount of 20,000,000 of ducats.

The latter part of Elizabeth's reign was employed in concerting means with Henry, king of France, for the reduction of the houſe of Auſtria; and in ſuppreſſing the rebellion in Scotland, which was chiefly fomented and ſupported by the Spaniards. After humbling the latter, ſhe made the Iriſh feel the weight of her reſentment, and ſubmit to her mercy. But even theſe fortunate events adminiſtered but little ſatisfaction to Elizabeth, who in her old age grew diſtruſtful, peeviſh, and jealous. Though ſhe had an attachment to the earl of Eſſex, ſhe teazed him, by her capriciouſneſs, into the madneſs of taking arms, and then beheaded him. She afterwards became a prey to the ſevereſt grief, which in a few days had ſuch an effect on her health, that her death was every inſtant expected. In this diſtreſsful ſituation, it was thought neceſſary, in order to prevent a diſturbance, that ſhe ſhould name her ſucceſſor; and, being aſked the queſtion, anſwered, James, king of Scotland. This was her laſt act; and ſhe ſoon after expired without a groan, in the year 1603, in the 70th year of her age, and 45th of her reign.

The ſucceſſes of Elizabeth's reign have diſguiſed her internal government; for ſhe was far from being a friend to perſonal liberty, and was guilty of many ſtretches of power againſt the moſt ſacred rights of Engliſhmen. The ſevere ſtatutes againſt the Puritans, debarring them of liberty of conſcience, and by which many ſufferred death, muſt be condemned. Through the practices of the Spaniards with the Iriſh Roman Catholics, ſhe found great difficulty to keep that iſland in ſubjection, and at the time of her death her government there had gone into great diſorder. We can ſcarcely retain a ſtronger proof that the Engliſh began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy teſtified by all ranks at the acceſſion of her ſucceſſor, notwithſtanding the long inveterate animoſities which had ſubſiſted between the two kingdoms.

James I. was ſon to the unfortunate queen of Scots, by her ſecond huſband, lord Darnley, and great grandſon of Margaret, eldeſt daughter of Henry VII. Soon after his acceſſion, a conſpiracy was diſcovered for ſubverting the government, and to fix on the throne of England Arabella Stuart, a near relation of the king, and deſcended equally from Henry VII. Among the conſpirators were ſeveral perſons of diſtinction; particularly the famous Sir Walter Raleigh. They were all impeached and found guilty, but few executed: Sir Walter was ordered into cloſe confinement in the Tower, where he remained for ſeveral years.

In 1605, a ſecond plot was diſcovered of a much more dangerous nature. The Papiſts had flattered themſelves, that when James came to the throne their religion would be reſtored in this kingdom: but finding all their hopes abortive, and that every law againſt them was executed with the utmoſt ſeverity, a few individuals determined to revenge the cauſe of all the reſt. Cateſby, Piercy, and Fawkes, were at the head of this conſpiracy, which was near a year and a half in concerting. They thought the ſureſt method to extirpate their enemies at once, would be that of blowing up the Parliament-Houſe with gunpowder, at the very time when the king and all the members were aſſembled. Nothing was omitted which could render this infernal contrivance ſecure; and the fatal cataſtrophe muſt have been inevitable, had it not been for a letter ſent to lord Monteagle, a Catholic peer, adviſing him to abſent himſelf from parliament on the firſt day of the ſeſſion; for that a terrible blow was intended for every individual of it. This letter was ſhewn to his majeſty, who immediately concluded, that the blow hinted at was to be given by gunpowder, and orders were iſſued for examining carefully all the vaults below the houſes of parliament. The lord chancellor purpoſely delayed the ſearch, till the day before the meeting of parliament, when on going into a valut underneath the Houſe of Lords, he diſcovered great quantities of wood and faggots, which ordering to be removed, thirty-ſix barrels of powder were diſcovered concealed under them. Fawkes was found in the vault, and ſecured; matches and every thing proper for ſetting fire to the train being found in his pocket. He at firſt refuſed to diſcover his accomplices; but being ſent to the Tower, and threatened with the rack, his courage failed him, and he made a full diſcovery of all the conſpirators, who were apprehended, and moſt of them executed.

James's attachment to favourities has juſtly been cenſured by the writers of that and every ſucceeding age. His firſt was Robert Carr, a youth of twenty years of age, and of a good family in Scotland. James firſt knighted, and then created him viſcount Rocheſter, honoured him with the order of the garter, gave him a ſeat in the privy-council, and, without aſſigning him any particular office, beſtowed on him the ſupreme direction of all his buſineſs and political concerns. For a long time, by following the advice of Sir Thomas Overbury, he enjoyed, what is very rare, the favour of the prince, without being hated by the people; but having connected himſelf with the counteſs of Eſſex, a woman of an abandoned character, whom he intended to marry as ſoon as ſhe could be divorced from her huſband, the earl of Eſſex, Overbury remonſtrated with him on the folly and danger of ſuch a proceeding. Rocheſter was weak enough to reveal this converſation to the Counteſs, who, enraged at the interpoſition of Overbury, ſo much to her diſadvantage, reſolved on his deſtruction, and prevailed on Rocheſter to aſſiſt in her diabolical ſchemes. James committed him priſoner to the Tower, where the Counteſs cauſed him ſoon afterwards to be poiſoned, which atrocious crime James pardoned, contrary to his ſolemn oath.

Some time before the murder of Overbury was diſcovered, Somerſet's power at court began to give place to George Villiers, a youth of good family, who by his perſonal accompliſhments had rendered himſelf agreeable to James, and was created his cupbearer. Upon Somerſet's diſgrace, he acquired a ſtill more unlimited power over James than his former favourite had ever enjoyed, ſo that riches and honours were laviſhed on him to exceſs.

In 1613, James married his eldeſt daughter, Elizabeth, to the elector palatine, whom he furniſhed with large ſums of money, and raiſed a regiment of upwards of 2,000 men, to aſſiſt him in retrieving his affairs. Some time after, he entered into a treaty with the court of Spain, for giving the infanta in marriage to his ſecond ſon, Charles, who, by the death of his elder brother, Henry, became heir apparent to the crown of England. Buckingham, who was almoſt

moſt as great a favourite with the prince as with the king, fell in with the prince's romantic humour, and, againſt the king's will, they travelled in diſguiſe to Spain, where a moſt ſolemn farce of courtſhip was acted; but the prince returned without his bride, and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Briſtol, who was then ambaſſador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block, for breaking off the treaty, after the Spaniſh court had conſented to the match.

A treaty of marriage was now ſet on foot between Charles and Henrietta Maria, daughter to Henry IV. of France. In the midſt of this negotiation, and the praparations making for reſtoring the Palatine to his electorate, James was ſeized with a tertain ague, which put a period to his life, in the year 1625, and in the 59th year of his age, having reigned over England twenty-two years.

Commerce and colonization owed great advantages to this prince, and he laid the foundation of great national benefits; but it is certain that he had no juſt ideas of the Engliſh conſtitution and liberties, which led him into many abſurd diſputes and jars with his parliament; and he with his miniſters were continually inventing new ways to raiſe money, as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other illegal methods: among other expedients, he ſold the titles of baron, viſcount, and earl, at a certain price; made a number of knights of Nova-Scotia, each to pay ſuch a ſum; and inſtituted a new order of knights baronets, which was to be hereditary, for which each perſon paid 1095l. His pacific reign was a ſeries of theological conteſts with eccleſiaſtical caſuiſts, in which he proved himſelf more of a theologian than a prince, and his pedantry was extremely ridiculous. In 1617 he attempted to eſtabliſh epiſcopacy in Scotland, but the zeal of the people baffled his deſign. His puſillanimous conduct reſpecting his ſon-in-law, the elector palatine, rendered him contemptible to his people, and has ſubjected his memory to the cenſure of every ſucceeding age. He formed a ſyſtem of policy for attaching himſelf intimately to the court of Spain, that it might aſſiſt him in recovering the Palatine; and to this ſyſtem he ſacrificed the brave Sir Walter Raleigh, on a chance of having committed hoſtilities againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies. He was ſentenced to die in 1603, and beheaded on Tower-Hill in 1618.

He reſtored to the Dutch their cautionary towns, upon diſcharging part of the mortgage that was upon them; and procured from Spain at the ſame time an acknowledgment of their independency. We have already deſcribed the progreſs of the arts and learning under his reign. He encouraged and employed that excellent painter, Sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who reſtored the pure taſte of architecture in England; and in his reign, poetical genius, though not much encouraged at court, arrived at its vertical point. Mr. Middleton alſo at this time projected conveying water into the city from Hertfordſhire, by means of pipes, which is now called the New River.

Charles I. aſcended the throne on the death of his father, and immediately completed his marriage with the princeſs Henrietta, a woman of a haughty, turbulent ſpirt. By her inſtigations, joined to thoſe of his favourites, he entered into ſeveral meaſures which at firſt cauſed murmurings among his ſubjects, and afterwards gave them a pretence for breaking out into open rebellion. At the very beginning of his reign, Charles gave ſufficient indications of his deſpotic temper; and the commons, reſolving to reduce the prerogative of the crown, refuſed to furniſh thoſe aids he demanded for carrying on the war againſt Spain, without his making conceſſions in favour of the liberty of the people. The king's great attachment to Buckingham was another cauſe of diſguſt. At the earneſt ſolicitations of that nobleman, Charles ſent a fleet to the relif of the Hugonots, or French Proteſtants, who were beſieged in Rochelle. Buckingham's delay at Portſmouth proved fatal to him, by giving an opportunity to one Felton, formerly a lieutenant of foot, to aſſaſſinate him juſt as he was going to embark, in 1628. However, the fleet ſailed for Rochelle, under the command of the earl of Lindſey, but was obliged to return to England, without being able to afford the Hugonots any relief.

The contentions between the king and parliament were now become very ſerious. The commons denied him the power of levying tonnage and poundage, a cuſtom which had been granted to his predeceſſors; and at the ſame time refuſed to raiſe, by any other means, the neceſſary ſupplies. Charles was ſoon reduced to the utmoſt diſtreſs, the commons not having voted him money even for the expences of his houſehold. This neglect obliged him to have recourſe to methods unknown to the conſtitution of England: he levied money upon ſalt, ſoap, and other neceſſaries of life, alledging the example of his predeceſſors as an excuſe for his arbitrary conduct. Theſe proceedings rendered his government more and more deteſted. The ſevere puniſhments inflicted on Burton a divine, Prynne a lawyer, and Baſtwick a phyſician, who, under pretence of aſſerting the liberties of the people, had blown the trumpet of ſedition, increaſed the king's unpopularity: and he was afterwards as much embroiled with his Scotch as with his Engliſh ſubjects. Unfortunately for him, he had choſen archbiſhop Laud for his ſpiritual guide, and, at the inſtigation of that prelate, endeavoured to introduce the religion of the church of England into Scotland, where the inhabitants profeſſed a ſtrict preſbytery. They immediately formed ſecret connections with the malcontents in England, invaded the kingdom, and obliged the king, who was very ill ſerved by his army in general, to conſent to an inglorious peace.

The firſt ſtep of the commons, in the new parliament, was, to refuſe Gardiner, recorder of London, for their ſpeaker, becauſe he was choſen by the king, and to advance Lenthal, a lawyer, to that high office. They then impeached the earl of Strafford, who was conſidered as chief miniſter, of having endeavoured to change the form of government, and ſubvert the ancient laws and liberties of the kingdom. Laud was next impeached of high treaſon, and ſent to the Tower. Strafford was beheaded on the 22d of May 1641; and on the 10th of January 1645, archbiſhop Laud was alſo brought to the block.

Charles now endeavoured to conciliate the affections of his ſubjects, by popular acts. He paſſed the famous Petition of Rights, and agreed to other demands made by the commons: but theſe conceſſions came too late. A rebellion broke out in Ireland, wherein many thouſand Proteſtants of that nation were maſſacred, without diſtinction of age, ſex, or condition, by the Papiſts, and no pains were omitted to inſinuate into the minds of the public, that the king had ſecretly favoured this conſpiracy, from hatred to his Engliſh ſubjects. The biſhops were now expelled the Houſe of Peers, and committed to cloſe cuſtody, becauſe they drew up a proteſt againſt the proceedings of parliament, which the king two haſtily ſigned. Charles, finding that lenient meaſures had no effect, ſuffered himſelf to be guided by thoſe who adviſed more violent methods. He accuſed lord Kimbolton and five commoners, viz. Mr. Denzil Hollis, Sir Arthur Hazlerig, Mr. Hambden, Mr. Pym, and Mr. Strode, of high treaſon; and the houſe having refuſed to deliver them to his meſſenger, he went in perſon to demand them; but they had made their eſcape, and taken ſhelter in London, where the citizens remained all night under arms, in order to protect them. This raſh ſtep was conſidered as an act of high treaſon againſt his people, and the commons would not liſten to any terms of reconciliation. The city militia was raiſed, and the mobs

grew ſo inſolent that the king was obliged to retire to Hampton-Court, and from thence thought proper to retire to York, where he had the ſatisfaction of finding himſelf joined by the chief nobility and gentry. Thus ſupported, he refuſed his concurrence to a militia bill, which the commons had drawn up. Preparations for a civil war were now made on both ſides. The two houſes firſt levied a guard for themſelves, and the county of York raiſed one of ſix hundred men for the king. Both houſes then aſſembled an army; and the queen having diſpoſed of the crown jewels in Holland, purchaſed a large quantity of arms and ammunition, part of which, after eſcaping many dangers, were ſafely received by the king. Before things came to the laſt extremity, the parliament ſent conditions to their monarch on which they were willing to come to agreement; but took care they ſhould be ſuch as he could not, conſiſtent with his honour or dignity, comply with. He then collected ſome forces, and advancing ſouthwards, erected the royal ſtandard at Nottingham. The earl of Lindſey was appointed his general, and next to him in command were the princes Rupert and Maurice, ſons to the elector Palatine. The parliament, whoſe cauſe was favoured by London, and moſt of the trading towns and corporations, appointed the earl of Eſſex general of their forces. The firſt battle was fought on the twenty-third of October 1642, at Keinton, or Edge-Hill, in Warwickſhire, Five thouſand men were left dead on the field, and neither ſide had reaſon to boaſt an advantage, though, as is uſual in ſuch caſes, both claimed the victory. After this battle, a treaty was ſet on foot between the king and parliament; but the demands of the latter, ſtriking immediately at the root of all monarchical power, were rejected. For ſome time the king's affairs wore a favourable aſpect, and the parliament was reduced to ſuch diſtreſs, that they invited the Scots to come to their aſſiſtance, who immediately ſent an army of 20,000 men.

During the winter of 1644, the king ſummoned all the members of both houſes, in his intereſt, to meet at Oxford. The Houſe of Peers was tolerably full. The Houſe of Commons did not conſiſt of half the number of that at Weſtminſter; and the members of the latter proſecuted their animoſities againſt the royaliſts with redoubled fury. About this time a ſet of men began to make ſome noiſe at Weſtminſter, who ſtyled themſelves Independents, and were in fact equally enemies to the Preſbyterians and the royaliſts. By the arts of Oliver Cromwell, their leader, the earls of Eſſex and Mancheſter were removed from the command of the parliament's forces, to which Fairfax and ſome Independent officers were appointed. This was a fatal blow to the power of the Preſbyterians. In the interim, the war raged with unremitting fury, and the king obtained ſeveral advantages.

Prince Rupert, contrary to the advice of the marquis of Newcaſtle, engaged the parliament's forces at Marſton-Moor, and was totally defeated. From this time the king's affairs were, by miſmanagement, rendered irretrievable. By degrees he loſt all his towns and forts; and, on the 14th of June 1645, was himſelf defeated at Naſeby, by Fairfax, and Cromwell. He retired into Wales, where he remained for ſome time, and then marched to the relief of Cheſter, from whence he went to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be ſafe. The Scots were beſieging Newark at the time when Charles arrived in their camp, and was received by them with all the exterior marks of duty and reſpect; but ſoon found that he had, in fact, only ſurrendered himſelf priſoner into their hands. They informed the Engliſh parliament of the king's arrival among them, but refuſed to deliver him up, unleſs their arrears, which they ſaid amounted to two millions, were firſt paid. After numberleſs debates on this point, it was at laſt agreed that they ſhould accept of 400,000l. and reſign their unhappy monarch into the hands of his implacable enemies. Having taken the king's perſon out of the hands of the commiſſioners, they inveſted Cromwell with the ſupreme command, and ſet the parliamentary power at defiance. The Preſbyterian members now found how neceſſary it was to come to an accommodation with the king, and ſeveral treaties were ſet on foot for this purpoſe, which, by the artifices of Cromwell, were all rendered abortive. After ſome conſultation, Charles was reſolved to truſt to the generoſity of Hammond, governor of the Iſle of Wight; who was no ſooner maſter of the king's perſon, than he confined him in Cariſbroke-Caſtle, and informed Cromwell of the whole tranſaction. A treaty for accommodating matters was ſet on foot by the Independents, which would in all probability have ſucceeded, had not Cromwell, who dreaded the general diſpoſition of the people for peace, carried him firſt to Hurſt-Caſtle, and afterwards to London, where, after an extraordinary trial before a court of juſtice of their own erecting, his head was ſtruck off before his own palace at Whitehall, January 30, 1648-9, in the 49th year of his age, and 24th of his reign.

Some writers have concluded, that had Charles been reſtored to his throne, he would have become an excellent prince; he is, however, allowed to have had many virtues, and, notwithſtanding the tyrannical nature of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers.

Cromwell, who hated ſubordination to a republic, had the addreſs to get himſelf declared commander in chief of the Engliſh army. Admiral Blake, and the other Engliſh admirals, carried the terror of the Engliſh name by ſea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his ſervices would be forgotten, for which reaſon he went April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 muſqueteers, and diſſolved the parliament, opprobriouſly driving all the members, about an hundred, out of their houſe. He next annihilated the council of ſtate, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the adminiſtration of government to about 140 perſons, whom he ſummoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July. This aſſembly, however, after ſitting about five months, diſſolved itſelf, and Oliver Cromwell was choſen protector. He was inſtalled into this high office with great ceremony and magnificence, by the title of, His Highneſs the Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland; a title under which he exerciſed all the power that had been formerly annexed to the royal dignity.

The Protector next proceeded to new-model the government, and various were the ſchemes that were propoſed, eſtabliſhed, and proved abortive; and it was by his management of the army that he did every thing. He was openly or ſecretly thwarted by people of property all over England; and, however hiſtorians have been dazzled with his amazing fortune and power, it appears, from the beſt evidences, that, during the continuance of his protectorate, he was perpetually diſtreſſed for money to keep the wheels of government going. The war with Holland, in which the Engliſh were again victorious, ſtill continued. Seven bloody engagements at ſea were fought in little more than the ſpace of one year; and in the laſt, which was deciſive in favour of England, the Dutch loſt their brave admiral Van Tromp.

At laſt his wants led him into the error of taking part with France againſt Spain, in hopes that the rich Spaniſh prizes would ſupply him with ready money, and his expectations herein were not wholly diſappointed. He lent the French court 6000 men, and Dunkirk being taken by their aſſiſtance from the Spaniards, he took poſſeſſion of it. Finding that his

uſurpation gave as much diſcontent to his own party, as terror to the royaliſts, he had thoughts of renewing the model of the conſtitution, and actually erected a houſe of lords out of his own creatures. After a moſt uncomfortable uſurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more deſpotically in ſome reſpects than he did; yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even theſe few threatened to oppoſe him, if he ſhould take upon him the title of king, which he was very deſirous of aſſuming.

The famous and beneficial navigation act, that palladium of the Engliſh trade, was now planned and eſtabliſhed; and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Notwithſtanding all Cromwell's faults, it muſt be allowed that he maintained the honour of the nation much, and in many inſtances interpoſed in favour of the Proteſtants abroad: and he alſo paid ſome regard to men of learning, and the education of youth.

Richard Cromwell, who ſucceeded his father as Protector, differed greatly from Oliver both as to ſpirit and parts in the affairs of government. Being placed in his dignity by thoſe who wanted to make him the tool of their own government, he was ſoon after driven, without the leaſt ſtruggle or oppoſition, into obſcurity. Though the Preſbyterians were very zealous in promoting the reſtoration of Charles, that event was in fact brought about by the general concurrence of the people, who ſeemed to think that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by reſtoring the ancient conſtitution of monarchy. Monk, commander of the forces in Scotland, made this a pretence for putting into execution a ſcheme he had long planned, of reſtoring Charles. He was a man of military abilities, but of no principles, except ſuch as ſerved his ambition or intereſt: he proteſted againſt the violence offered to parliament, drew together the ſeverel ſcattered regiments, marched into England, took poſſeſſion of the capital, cauſed a new parliament to be aſſembled, and recalled Charles from Spain. For theſe ſervices, he was loaded with honours and riches, created duke of Albemarle, and confirmed in the command of the army.

In 1660, Charles II. mounted the throne, and ſoon after married the princeſs Catharine of Portugal, with whom he received a portion of 300,000l. together with the two fortreſſes of Tangier in Africa, and Bombay in the Eaſt Indies. He endeavoured, in the firſt year of his reign, to unite every party in an affection for him and his country, ſeemed deſirous to promote the happineſs of his people, and Preſbyterians and loyaliſts were equally admitted into his councils. But it was not long before affairs put on a more unpleaſing aſpect: the king became at length entirely abſorbed in pleaſure and diſſipation, to which he ſet no bounds: this led him into the moſt extravagant expences, and, together with his indolence, had the ſame pernicious conſequences as deſpotiſm itſelf. He has been ſeverely cenſured for ſelling Dunkirk for about 250,000l. to the French for ſupplying his neceſſities, after he had ſquandered the immenſe ſums granted him by parliament: he was alſo ſo ill adviſed as to ſeize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at eight per cent. and to ſhut up the Exchequer, which indefenſible ſtep he intended to juſtify by the neceſſity of his affairs. But even in this, his conduct was more defenſible than in his ſecret connections with France, which were of the moſt ſcandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom, and ſuch as muſt ever reflect infamy on his memory; among other inſtances of his reprehenſible conduct, may be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour againſt the lord Clarendon, as the chief adviſer of the ſale of Dunkirk, and whom he ſacrificed to the ſycophants of his pleaſurable hours, though he was a man of extenſive knowledge and great abilities, and more honeſt in his intentions than moſt of his other miniſters: this great man was, in 1667, impeached of high treaſon, and, to avoid the ſtorm, retired into France, where he ſurvived his diſgrace only ſix years.

The firſt Dutch war began in 1665, which was carried on with great reſolution and ſpirit under the duke of York; but, through Charles's miſapplication of the public money granted to carry on the war, the Dutch, taking advantage of his negligence, ſent a large fleet of ſhips to ravage the coaſt of England, which accordingly ſailed up the Medway as far as Chatham, where (and alſo at Upnor-caſtle) they burnt ſeveral capital ſhips of war. Soon after, a treaty was concluded at Breda between England, Sweden, and the States-General, in 1667, called the Triple Alliance, for the preſervation of the Spaniſh Netherlands againſt the arms of France.

War was again declared againſt Holland in 1672, which had almoſt proved fatal to that republic, as the Engliſh fleet and army acted in conjunction with thoſe of France. The duke of York commanded the Engliſh fleet; as did the duke of Monmouth, a natural ſon of Charles, 6000 Engliſh forces acting in conjunction with the Engliſh in the Netherlands; and all Holland muſt have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch Louis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and ſome utterly unforeſeen circumſtances. All confidence was now loſt between Charles and his parliament, notwithſtanding the glory which the Engliſh fleet obtained by ſea againſt the Dutch, with whom the popular clamour at length obliged him to make peace, in conſideration of 200,000l.; and in order to remove the nation's fears, as much as poſſible, reſpecting the duke of York, he negotiated a marriage between Mary, eldeſt daughter to the duke, and heir apparent to the crown of England, and the prince of Orange; which was concluded, October 23, 1677.

Charles complaining of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houſes, he ordered them to be ſhut up, but in a few days afterwards they were opened again: he exerciſed great rigour and ſeverity againſt the Preſbyterians, and all other nonconformiſts to epiſcopacy, which was eſtabliſhed with a high hand in Scotland as well as England. His parliament addreſſed him, but in vain, to make war with France in the year 1677; for he was entirely devoted to that crown, whoſe money he regularly received as a penſioner, and hoped through its influence and power to be abſolute: ſeveral of his great men had alſo ſalaries from the ſame court, and alledged the king's example in juſtification of this infamous practice.

The hatred of the commons to the French and Papiſts grew every day more violent; and many of the members of parliament were bent upon ſuch a revolution as afterwards took place, and were ſecretly determined that the duke of York ſhould never reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, taking advantage of this diſpoſition, alarmed the whole nation with the account of a plot which he pretended was formed by the Jeſuits to murder the king, and introduce Popery into England. Nothing could exceed the improbability of this conſpiracy, but the readineſs with which the intelligence of it was received by the parliament; who, blinded by their prejudice, gave credit to the moſt glaring abſurdities. Lord Stafford, at this time a very old man; Coleman, ſecretary to the duke of York; numbers of Jeſuits, and ſeveral other Catholics, were publicly executed on the moſt perjured evidences. It was with difficulty that the queen herſelf eſcaped. The duke of York, againſt whom the heavieſt of the ſtorm was directed, thought it moſt prudent to retire from England; and the king, though convinced that the whole was an infamous impoſition, in order to prejudice the minds of the nation

againſt his ſucceſſor, was compelled by neceſſity to yield to the popular clamour. The conduct of ſome members in the houſe of commons, plainly demonſtrated, that the chief end of this plot was, to exclude the duke of York from the throne. A bill for that purpoſe was, ſome time after, actually brought into and paſſed by that houſe; but was rejected by the peers.

England was again in a flame; but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, ſeemed to recover the affections of his people to a very great degree. The duke of York and his party, however, made a ſcandalous uſe of their victory; for on their part, they trumped up a plot of the Proteſtants for killing or ſeizing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as falſe as that charged upon the Papiſts; notwithſtanding which, lord Ruſſel, Algernon Sidney, and ſeveral other diſtinguiſhed Proteſtants, ſuffered death on this occaſion; Eſſex died in priſon, Hampden was fined 40,000l. and the king ſet his foot upon all oppoſition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the meaſures of the court, as were almoſt all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth, and the earl of Shafteſbury, was obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. Charles, it was thought, afterwards repented of ſome of his arbitrary ſteps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and execute ſome meaſures for the future quiet of his realm, but amidſt all theſe excellent reſolutions, he was ſeized with a ſudden fit, reſembling an apoplexy; and though he was recovered from it by bleeding, he languiſhed only for a few days, and expired February 6, 1685, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign.

Though the principles and conduct of Charles were in general unconſtitutional to England, yet ſome of his actions muſt be owned beneficial to the nation. He confirmed the abolition of all the feudal tenures, in lieu of which he received from the parliament a gift of the exciſe for life; and in this act coffee and tea are firſt mentioned. By his long reſidence, and that of his friends, abroad, he imported into England the culture of many elegant vegetables, ſuch as the cauliflowers, aſparagus, artichokes, and ſeveral kinds of beans, peas, and ſalads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered by the Engliſh under the auſpices of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a ſugar colony. The Royal Society was inſtituted, and many popular acts reſpecting trade and colonization were paſſed. The trade of England was alſo incredibly increaſed during his reign, and he entered into many vigorous meaſures for its protection and ſupport. He carried the art of ſhip-building to great perfection; and the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its fineſt improvements to his and his brother's knowledge of naval affairs and architecture. Charles loved, patronized, and underſtood the arts, more than he encouraged or rewarded them, eſpecially thoſe of Engliſh growth; but his neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedneſs, but indolence, and want of reflection. In his time, our language was harmonized, refined, and rendered natural; and the days of Charles may be called the Auguſtan age of mathematics and natural philoſophy. As to his religion, James, ſoon after Charles's death, publiſhed to the world, that his brother, notwithſtanding his repeated profeſſions of regard to the Proteſtant faith, was a Papiſt, and died ſuch, of which there are now inconteſtable proofs. The reign of this monarch has indeed been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarſe and indelicate: the court was a nurſery of vice, and the ſtage exhibited ſcenes of impurity.

England was viſited with two dreadful calamities in the late reign. In May 1665, a terrible plague broke out in London, and raged for eleven months, in which time it ſwept away, in the city only, upwards of 100,000 ſouls: and on the 2d of September 1666, a fire broke out in the city, which in three days conſumed eighty churches, ſeveral city gates, and 400 ſtreets, containing 13,200 dwelling-houſes.

James II. now aſcended the throne, though great oppoſition was at firſt made to his acceſſion: but the declaration which he made to the privy-council, immediately on the demiſe of his brother, of his reſolution to maintain the eſtabliſhed government, both in church and ſtate, quieted the minds of the whole nation; and the popular affection towards him was increaſed by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the reign of Charles, had formerly pronounced all reſiſtance to the king to be unlawful. It was not long, however, before his arbitrary notions of government began to appear. The army and people ſupported him in cruſhing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful ſon of Charles II. and, as ſuch, had aſſumed the title of king. That duke being beheaded July 15, 1685, and ſome hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn, and quartered, in the weſt of England, exhibiting a ſcene of barbarity ſcarcely ever known in this country, in which Jefferies and Colonel Kirke were the principal inſtruments. James deſperately reſolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-reſiſtance: the experiment failed, and in the end proved fatal to him. He made the moſt provoking ſteps to render Popery the eſtabliſhed religion of his dominions. He arrogated to himſelf a power of diſpenſing with the known laws; inſtituted an illegal eccleſiaſtical court, openly received and admitted into his privy-council the pope's emiſſaries, giving them more reſpect than was due to the miniſters of a ſovereign prince. He ſent an embaſſy to Rome, and received at his court the pope's nuncio. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people, are almoſt beyond deſcription, and were diſapproved of by the pope himſelf, and all ſober Roman Catholics. His ſending to priſon, and proſecuting for a libel, ſeven biſhops, for preſenting a petition againſt reading his claration againſt liberty of conſcience, alarmed his beſt Proteſtant friends. The joyful news of their acquittal was however ſoon conveyed from Weſtminſter-Hall to thoſe without, from them to the city and army, and in a ſhort time ſpread throughout the kingdom.

Matters being brought to this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland applied for relief to William, prince of Orange, in Holland; a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Louis XIV. who then threatened to enſlave Europe, inviting him to aſſiſt them by his arms in the recovery of their laws and liberties. This prince was the nephew and ſon-in-law of James, having married the princeſs Mary, that king's eldeſt daughter; and he at laſt embarked with a fleet of 500 ſail for England, avowing it to be his deſign to reſtore to the church and ſtate their due rights, and prevent the eſtabliſhment of a deſpotic power. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had conſidered as his beſt friends; and and even his daughter the princeſs Anne, and her huſband, George prince of Denmark, left him and joined the prince of Orange. James might ſtill have reigned; but he was ſurrounded with French emiſſaries, and ignorant Jeſuits, who wiſhed him not to reign, rather than not reſtore Popery. They ſecretly perſuaded him to ſend his queen and ſon, real or pretended, then but ſix months old, to France, and to follow them in perſon, which he did; and thus ended the reign of James in England, which event in Engliſh hiſtory is termed the Revolution, and took place in the year 1688.

The chief object of William was to humble the power of France, and his reign was ſpent in an almoſt uninterrupted courſe of hoſtilities with that power, which

which were ſupported by England at an expence ſhe had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two laſt reigns, and he gave his conſent to the bill of rights, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and ſecured. England had never before this time been at ſo high a pitch of wealth and proſperity: her tonnage of ſhips was nearly doubled, both in the merchants ſervice and royal navy, to what it had been a few years before: the increaſe of the cuſtoms, and the annual rental of England, was in the ſame proportion.

The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being ſucceſsful, required an enormous expence, and the Iriſh continued, in general, faithful to James: but many Engliſh, who wiſhed well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being reſtored by conqueſt; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne. The marine of France proved ſuperior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue. The continental war forced the parliament to open new reſources for money. A land-tax was impoſed, and every ſubject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the ſeveral counties. On December 28, 1694, William loſt his excellent queen, who died of the ſmall-pox, in her 34th year: and, not being well ſupported in his war with France, he was forced, in 1697, to conclude the peace of Ryſwick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England.

In 1698, William was guilty of a very impolitic action, in agreeing to a treaty of partition with France, with regard to the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, in caſe Charles II. king of Spain, whoſe death was daily expected, ſhould leave no iſſue. By this treaty the Spaniſh monarchy was to be divided between the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria; but Charles, who died in 1700, bequeathed his dominions to the duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the Dauphin of France. The ſplendor of a crown was too great a temptation to be reſiſted by Louis; who, in open defiance of the treaty he had concluded with William, and the ſtates-general, ſeized on the Spaniſh monarchy. This breach of faith was further aggravated by the inſincerity of the French court, on the death of James II. which happened in September 1701. Soon after which, Louis gave orders, that the ſon of the deceaſed monarch ſhould be proclaimed king of England, Scotland, and Ireland, by the name of James III.

William was no ſooner informed of theſe proceedings, than he recalled his ambaſſador from Paris, and ordered the French reſident here to leave the kingdom immediately. The parliament, which had been highly chagrined at the treaty of partition, and even impeached ſome of the miniſtry for adviſing it, approved of the juſt reſentment of their monarch; and William received addreſſes from every part of the kingdom, promiſing to ſupport his government againſt the pretender and all his enemies. Aſſured of the aſſiſtance of his people, the king now concluded alliances with ſeveral foreign princes againſt France, particularly with the emperor and Holland, uſually ſtyled the grand alliance. Land and ſea forces were raiſed with the utmoſt expedition, and every thing was in the greateſt forwardneſs for the declaration of war, when the king, whoſe health had been viſibly declining for ſome time, received a fall from his horſe, whereby his collar bone was broken. The bone was ſet, and the phyſicians began to flatter themſelves that his majeſty would recover; but a defluxion having fallen upon his knee, attended by ſeveral dangerous ſymptoms, he languiſhed a few days, and expired. This event happened on the firſt of March 1702, in the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign.

The chief glories of this prince's reign were, the reſcue and preſervation of religion and public liberty; for under him, England ſuffered ſeverely both by ſea and land. With reſpect to his diſpoſition, he did not appear formed by nature for popularity; his manners were cold and forbidding; he ſeemed alſo ſometimes to loſe ſight of thoſe principles of liberty, for the ſupport of which he had been raiſed to the throne; and, though he owed his royalty to the Whigs, yet he often favoured the Tories.

Anne, princeſs of Denmark, was immediately proclaimed queen of England; and, as it was ſuſpected that ſhe would deviate from the meaſures purſued by William, ſhe took the earlieſt opportunity of aſſuring her ſubjects and allies, that ſhe meant faithfully to adhere to the engagements formed by that monarch. The two parties of Whig and Tory now ran very high in England, and when it came to be debated in council, whether England ſhould enter into the war as principals, or only as auxiliaries, the Tories, headed by the earl of Rocheſter, the queen's maternal uncle, adviſed the latter: but the Whigs, the chief of whom were the dukes of Devonſhire and Somerſet, inſiſted upon the expediency of our acting as principals; as the honour of the nation was immediately concerned in fulfilling the engagements made by the late king, which could not be done otherwiſe than by entering into the quarrel as principals. The earl of Marlborough, who was competitor with Rocheſter for the queen's favour, and, by the influence which his counteſs had over that princeſs, in a manner directed her reſolutions, declared himſelf of the ſame opinion. This point being determined, war was declared againſt France and Spain on the 4th of May 1702. The prince of Denmark, huſband to the queen was created high admiral of England, and the duke of Marlborough appointed general of the combined army.

A ſcene of almoſt uninterrupted ſucceſs attended the confederates, particularly the Engliſh, during the whole courſe of this war; and gained the earl, who, for his eminent ſervices, was created duke of Marlborough, much honour. Several battles were fought, the principal of which were thoſe of Blenheim, Ramillies, and Oudenarde. The battle of Blenheim happened in conſequence of the queen's generous reſolution to ſave the empire of Germany, which was in danger of being totally ruined by the joint forces of France and Bavaria. The States-General having embraced the ſame reſolution, Marlborough marched with ſurpriſing rapidity into Germany, at the head of the confederates, and drove the French and Bavarians from the intrenchments they had raiſed at Schellenberg, in order to prevent his croſſing the Danube. Having paſſed that river, and being joined by a conſiderable body of forces under prince Eugene, he attacked the French and Bavarians at Blenheim, where they gained a very ſignal and complete victory; marſhal Tallard, the French general, was taken priſoner, together with 13,000 men, and a proportional number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. The French were ſoon after driven out of Germany, and all Bavaria conquered. About this time, Sir George Rook reduced Gibraltar, which ſtill remains in our poſſeſſion. At ſea, other advantages were alſo obtained.

On the 12th of May 1706, the battle of Ramillies was fought, with equal ſucceſs. The loſs of the French amounted to near 40,000 men. After this victory, the archduke of Auſtria, who diſputed the crown of Spain with the duke of Anjou, and had taken upon himſelf the title of Charles III. was ſolemnly recognized by the ſtates of Flanders for their ſovereign; and the allies purſued the conqueſts with the utmoſt rapidity.

On the 12th of July 1708, an engagement happened at Oudenarde, when the French were once more totally defeated. In this action the electoral

prince of Hanover, afterwards king George II. gave early proofs of his martial diſpoſition; for, having charged at the head of the Hanoverian dragoons with great intrepidity, his horſe was ſhot under him, and one of his aids-de-camp killed by his ſide. In this battle, between three and four thouſand of the enemy were left dead on the field, and ſeven thouſand were taken priſoners.

France was reduced to ſuch diſtreſſes in 1709, that the pride of her aſpiring monarch Louis being thereby humbled, he determined to ſacrifice all the calls of ambition, as well as the intereſt of his grandſon, to obtain a peace, and accordingly, about the middle of May, conferences were opened for this purpoſe at the Hague. Prince Eugene, Marlborough, and the Dutch penſionary Heinſius, were for continuing the war, and their propoſals to Louis were ſuch as no monarch could, conſiſtent with his honour, acccept: the conferences therefore were broken off, and the allies reſolved to begin the campaign with the ſiege of Tournay. The trenches were opened on the 27th of July, and the town ſoon after ſurrendered; but it was the ſecond of September before the garriſon capitulated. Mons was the next great object of the allies; but, before that ſiege could be effected, it was found neceſſary to drive the French army from their poſts behind the woods of la Merte and Trainiere, in the neighbourhood of Malplaquet. This was attempted with ſucceſs; but it proved the deareſt victory the confederates ever purchaſed, having coſt them above 18,000 men killed and wounded, and among the former were ſeveral officers of diſtinction. The end propoſed by this engagement, however, was obtained, for about the middle of November, Mons ſurrendered.

In Spain, the affars of the confederates were far from being equally ſucceſsful. The queen had ſent a fine army under the command of lord Galway, to aſſiſt Charles III. That general was joined by the Portugueſe forces, and, at firſt, their attempts were attended with ſome ſucceſs; but, in 1707, the Engliſh ſuſtained a ſevere defeat in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies.

The Tories, who were Marlborough's inveterate enemies, had long endeavoured to convince the queen that this war would, in the end, prove ruinous to the church and ſtate; and accuſed the Whigs of not being very well affected to the former. Robert Harley, afterwards earl of Oxford, was at the head of this party, formed to ruin the duke. The people were taught to believe that the church was in danger, and, by that means, rendered clamorous. This was increaſed by a ſermon preached at that time by Dr. Sacheverel, wherein he ſtrenuouſly aſſerted the high notions of hereditary indefeaſible right, paſſive obedience, and non-reſiſtance. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who paſſed a very mild ſentence upon him. The honour and intereſt of the nation were now ſacrificed to private court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Marſham, a relation of the ducheſs of Marlborough, her benefactreſs, whom ſhe had ſupplanted, and by Mr. Harley, afterwards earl of Oxford. To complete the triumph of the Tories, Marlborough was diſmiſſed from all his employments, and the command of the army given to the duke of Ormond.

The new miniſtry having reſolved to negotiate a peace with France, a congreſs was opened at Utrecht, on the 29th of January 1712, for that purpoſe. The preliminaries were ſoon ſettled between England and France, and, not long after, acceded to by all the princes who formed the grand alliance, the emperor excepted. That monarch determined to carry on the war againſt France, but was ſoon convinced he had undertaken what he was unable to ſupport, and accordingly made a ſeparate peace.

The queen, after the peace of Utrecht, was perpetually diſturbed by the jarring of parties. When the change of the miniſtry had taken place in favour of the Tories, Oxford, at that time Mr. Harley, was created lord high treaſurer, Sir Simon Harcourt appointed lord keeper, and Mr. Henry St. John, afterwards lord Bolingbroke, nominated ſecretary of ſtate. Theſe three perſons, though they had united in oppoſing the adminiſtration of the Whigs, were far from being united in their political ſentiments; their views and purſuits were very different: it is therefore no wonder that they ſoon experienced an oppoſition more formidable than that they had ſo lately ſubdued. Each found his hopes diſappointed, and an open rupture between them was the conſequence. Nor did they ſet any bounds to their reſentment; forgetting the reſpect due to their royal miſtreſs, who had diſtinguiſhed them with the higheſt marks of her favour, they made uſe of the moſt bitter invectives againſt each other in her preſence. This deeply affected her, and ſhe removed the earl of Oxford from his office of lord high treaſurer. The general confuſion occaſioned by this event, and the fatigue of attending a long cabinet council, had ſuch an effect upon the queen's ſpirits, before greatly weakened by her bad ſtate of health, that, on the 29th of July 1714, ſhe was ſeized with a lethargic diſorder, languiſhed till the firſt of Auguſt, and then expired, in the 50th year of her age, and 13th of her reign. With her ended the line of the Stuarts, which, from the acceſſion of James I. anno 1603, had ſwayed the ſceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the acceſſion of Robert II. anno 1371. As queen Anne left no iſſue, ſhe was ſucceeded by George, elector of Hanover, in purſuance of a ſtatute paſſed in the 12th year of William III. for limiting the ſucceſſion of the crown.

George I. mounted the throne with ſtrong prepoſſeſſions againſt the Tories, whom he conſidered as enemies to the houſe of Hanover. A total change therefore immediately took place in the miniſtry. This avowed partiality greatly inflamed the minds of thoſe who were already but too much diſcontented at the late changes, and the rejoicings on account of the coronation were interrupted in ſeveral places by diſorderly rabbles, who committed numberleſs outrages. The Pretender, taking advantage of theſe commotions, cauſed a manifeſto to be diſperſed in England, ſetting forth his right to the crown. A rebellion ſoon after broke out in Scotland, under the earl of Mar, which might have been attended with very ſerious conſequences, had not the death of Louis XIV. who had promiſed to ſupport the young adventurer, happened at this criſis. In the mean time, ſeveral of the Scottiſh peers armed their clans in favour of George I. and the duke of Argyle having been appointed commander in chief of the forces in Scotland, engaged the rebels, under the earl of Mar, at Sheriff-Muir, and totally defeated their whole army. This defeat did not however intimidate the inſurgents. In the beginning of the year 1716, the pretender arrived in Scotland, and made his public entry into Perth. The duke of Argyle immediately marched to attack the rebels; but they did not wait his approach. They retreated with the utmoſt expedition to Montroſe, where the chevalier, with ſome of his principal adherents, went on board a ſmall veſſel, and paſſed over into France. The rebel army now found that their chiefs had abandoned them, upon which they immediatly diſperſed. During the rebellion in Scotland, an inſurrection happened in the Weſt of England, where the pretender's friends were very numberous, but was ſuppreſſed almoſt as ſoon as formed, and ſeveral of the leaders puniſhed with death.

In 1715, a new parliament, conſiſting chiefly of Whigs, met at Weſtminſter, when Henry, earl of Bolingbroke, Robert, earl of Oxford, and James, duke of Ormond, were impeached of high treaſon; and the earl of Strafford of high crimes and miſdemeanors.

meanors. Lord Bolingbroke and the duke of Ormond retired into France; and lord Oxford was impriſoned for three years, when he regained his liberty.

Peace being reſtored to the kingdom, his majeſty went over to the continent, in order to ſecure his German dominions from the attempts of Charles XII. king of Sweden, who had been incenſed againſt George, as elector of Hanover, for purchaſing Bremen and Verden of the Danes, which had been a part of the Swediſh dominions. In 1718, a rupture happened between England and Spain, on account of the quadruple alliance; and the Engliſh admiral, Sir George Byng, by the king's orders, defeated the Spaniſh fleet near Syracuſe. France having joined the Engliſh in this war, it was ſoon ended, by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor. Charles had embraced the intereſt of the pretender, and even engaged to aſſiſt the malcontents in England with a powerful army. This confederacy being diſcovered, his Britannic majeſty concluded a treaty with France and the States-General, known by the name of the Triple Alliance, in order to diſappoint any attempts that might be made againſt his dominions. On his return to England he immediately ordered count Gyllembergh, the Swediſh reſident, into cuſtody, and purſued ſuch prudent meaſures, that the deſigns of Sweden were for that time rendered abortive. Charles, however, did not abandon his deſign; and he would, in all probability, have invaded England at the head of a powerful army, in conjunction with Peter, czar of Muſcovy, had not death put an end to his life before the ſcheme was ripe for execution.

The year 1720 was rendered remarkable by the ſudden riſe of the South-Sea ſtock. That company had been lately erected, and owed its riſe to a ſcheme for carrying on an excluſive trade, and making a ſettlement in the South Seas. Accordingly, a plan was laid before the houſe of commons, to increaſe their capital ſtock by redeeming the public debts, in conſideration of certain advantages which were to be granted them. This plan occaſioned many warm debates, but at length the company's offers were accepted.

In 1722, a conſpiracy was ſaid to be formed againſt the king, and, after ſome conteſt, the Habeas Corpus act was ſuſpended. The earl of Orrery, Dr. Atterbury, biſhop of Rocheſter, and the lord North and Grey, were charged with high treaſon, and committed to the Tower; and ſoon after, the duke of Norfolk. Several other perſons were ſeized and impriſoned; and Dr. Atterbury was baniſhed for life. Mr. George Kelly, an Iriſh clergyman, and Mr. John Plunket, were impriſoned during his majeſty's pleaſure; and Mr. Chriſtopher Layer, a young counſellor at law, put to death.

The courts of Spain and Vienna having entered into a treaty contrary to the intereſt of Great-Britain, the king, in order to counteract their deſigns, projected a defenſive treaty between England, France, and Pruſſia, which was ſigned at Hanover on the 3d of September 1725. The real intent of this alliance was to ſecure his Britannic majeſty's German dominions, though it was repreſented by the court party as having been contracted merely for the glory and advantage of this nation, the intereſt and honour of which was evidently ſacrificed to that electorate. Catharine, empreſs of Ruſſia, having conſulted with the courts of Madrid and Vienna the moſt probable meaſures for placing the pretender on the throne of Great-Britain, they ſent a fleet into the Baltic under the command of Sir Charles Wager, with orders to remonſtrate with the empreſs on her conduct: that artful woman, however, diſowned having the leaſt knowledge of thoſe proceedings, and the admiral, after continuing in the Baltic till the ſeaſon was too far advanced for the Ruſſian fleet to make any ſucceſsful attempt in favour of the pretender, returned to England. Sir John Jennings, with ſeveral ſhips of war, ſailed at the ſame time as Sir Charles Wager, in order to inſult the coaſt of Spain, and he ſo effectually executed his orders, that the panic extended even to Madrid. A third ſquadron, which ſailed at this juncture for the Weſt Indies, under the command of rear-admiral Hoſier, was not ſo fortunate. His orders were to watch the Spaniſh plate fleets; but the Spaniards having received intelligence of this deſign, before he could reach the Baſtimentos, had unladen the galleons, and carried the treaſure, amounting to ſix millions and a half ſterling, back to Panama. Hoſier, however, continued cruiſing before Porto Bello from the beginning of June till Chriſtmas. But, during this interval, the admiral himſelf, and moſt of his crew, periſhed by epidemical diſeaſes. The management of the Spaniards was little better: they reſolved to attempt the retaking of Gibraltar, and actually laid ſiege to that important fortreſs; but ſuch care had been taken to put the place into a proper poſture of defence, that, having loſt 10,000 men, the enemy was obliged to abandon the enterpriſe.

While the chief powers in Europe were thus preparing for war, they were actually very deſirous of peace. Louis XV. undertook the friendly office of a mediator, and a congreſs was opened at Soiſſons for adjuſting all differences between the contending nations. The king reſolved to ſeize this favourable opportunity of viſiting his German dominions; and accordingly, having appointed a regency, he embarked at Greenwich on the 3d of June, 1727, and landed in Holland on the 7th. But on the road to Hanover, he was ſuddenly ſeized with a paralytic diſorder, which terminating in a lethargy, he was carried in a ſtate of inſenſibility to Oſnaburgh, where he expired on the 11th of the ſame month, being the 68th year of his age, and 13th of his reign, and was interred among his anceſtors at Hanover.

As ſoon as this event was known in England, Sir Robert Walpole, at that time conſidered as firſt miniſter, immediately waited on the prince and princeſs of Wales with the melancholy intelligence, and, on the 15th of June, the prince was proclaimed king of England, by the title of George II. Conſiderable changes were at firſt expected in the miniſtry, but all the great officers of ſtate continued in their places; Sir Robert Walpole kept poſſeſſion of the treaſury, notwithſtanding a coolneſs had ſubſiſted between him and George II. while prince of Wales. The principal members who oppoſed the meaſures purſued by Sir Robert, were Mr. Daniel Pultney, Mr. William Pultney, Mr. Shippen, and Sir William Wyndham. He filled all places of power, truſt, and profit, and almoſt the houſe of commons itſelf, with his own creatures; and was blamed for his unbounded love of peace, whereby he ſubjected the nation to the inſults of foreign powers; but an attempt which, in 1733, he made in the houſe of commons to introduce a general exciſe, was what gave the firſt ſhock to his power. There is no doubt but, had he been determined to have exerted his influence, the bill would have paſſed; but, finding that the nation in general was averſe to it, he ſuffered the oppoſition to prevail, and the people teſtified their approbation by tokens of public rejoicing.

The meaſures of Sir Robert Walpole had for ſome time rendered him the object of popular reſentment, which was now greatly increaſed by his giving offence to Frederick, prince of Wales. A motion had been made in the houſe of commons for augmenting the prince's revenue. Sir Robert oppoſed it, and it was carried in the negative. The prince was now conſidered as the leader of the oppoſition, and Sir Robert began to fear the conſequences, when Frederick, by an unhappy accident, incurred the diſpleaſure of the king, who gave the prince to underſtand, that until he ſhould withdraw his confidence from thoſe by

whoſe

whoſe inſtigation and advice he was encouraged in his diſobedient behaviour, and return to his duty, he ſhould not reſide in the palace; at the ſame time ſignifying his pleaſure, that he ſhould leave St. James's with all his family, as ſoon as it could be done without prejudice or inconvenience to the princeſs, who now lay-in there. The prince, in conſequence of this meſſage, retired to Kew; but found his father's anger was not eaſily appeaſed: even his requeſt to obtain admittance to the queen, his mother, to implore forgiveneſs, and receive her bleſſing in her laſt moments, was denied. That princeſs paid the debt of nature on the 29th of November, 1737, and was regretted as a pattern of conjugal virtue, and a friend to all the learned of Europe.

In the mean time, the debates in parliament relating to the Spaniſh depredations in America, were carried on with uncommon ardour. Sir Robert adhered to his pacific ſyſtem, and concluded a ſhameful compromiſe, under the title of a convention, which even his beſt friends could not defend; but at length, vigorous meaſures becoming neceſſary, war was declared againſt Spain on the 23d of October, 1736. Vernon, a ſworn enemy to the miniſter, having aſſerted in the houſe of commons, that Porto Bello might be taken with ſix men of war, was ſent with a fleet to the Weſt Indies. The admiral performed his promiſe: he took Porto Bello, ſituated on the Iſthmus of Darien, with ſix ſhips only, and demoliſhed all the fortifications by which it was defended. He, however, miſcarried in another attempt he made againſt Carthagena; but the misfortune was chiefly owing to the general of the land forces.

The ſucceeding winter was one of the ſevereſt ever known in England. The river Thames was frozen over, and ſeveral trades exerciſed on the ice. The fruits of the earth were deſtroyed, trade was at a ſtand, and the price of proviſions aroſe to an amazing height; even water was ſold in the ſtreets of London. In this ſeaſon of diſtreſs many wretched families muſt have periſhed by cold and hunger, had not thoſe of opulent fortunes been inſpired with a remarkable ſpirit of humanity and compaſſion. Nothing can more redound to the honour of the Engliſh nation, than the inſtances of benevolence and well-conducted charity which were then exhibited.

The general election now coming on, the miniſter determined to try his ſtrength in the houſe of commons by a conteſted election; and had the mortification to find a majority of ſixteen voices againſt him. On this deciſion he declared he would never more ſit in that houſe. Accordingly, the parliament was adjourned by the king for ſixteen days, and, during that interval, Walpole was created earl of Orford, and reſigned his employments. After which, the new adminiſtration being ſettled, by dividing, after various removals, the power of the premierſhip between Mr. Pelham and his brother the duke of Newcaſtle, the prince of Wales, attended by a numerous retinue of his adherents, waited on his majeſty, who received him very graciouſly, and ordered his guards to be reſtored.

The affairs of Europe, about this time, wore a threatening aſpect. In the Weſt-Indies the war, in 1741, proved unfortunate for England, through the fatal diviſions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops; and it was thought that above 20,000 Britiſh ſeamen periſhed in the impracticable attempt on Carthagena, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other fruitleſs expeditions. The year 1742 had been ſpent in negotiations with the courts of Peterſburgh and Berlin, which, though expenſive, proved of little or no ſervice to Great Britain; ſo that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the ſame ſituation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Leſtock had occaſioned the Spaniſh and French fleets to eſcape out of Toulon with inconſiderable loſs; and ſoon after the French and Engliſh declared war againſt each other. The Dutch, England's natural allies, carried on a moſt lucrative trade during the war; nor could they be brought to act againſt the French till the people entered into aſſociations and inſurrections againſt the government. Their marine was in a miſerable condition; and when they at laſt ſent a body of troops to join the Britiſh and Auſtrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with ſo bad a grace, that it was plain they did not heartily embark in the war.

When the duke of Cumberland took upon himſelf the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almoſt maſters of the barriers in the Netherlands, and were beſieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raiſe the ſiege, but, by the coldneſs of the Auſtrians, the cowardice of the Dutch, whoſe government all along held a ſecret correſpondence with France, and miſconduct ſomewhere elſe, he loſt the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his beſt men; though it is generally believed that his diſpoſitions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with amazing intrepidity. To counterbalance ſuch a train of misfortunes, admiral Anſon returned this year to England with an immenſe treaſure (about a million ſterling) which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Popperel, took the important town and fortreſs of Louiſbourg, in the iſland of Cape Breton, from the French.

Such was the ſtate of affairs in Europe, when the pretender's eldeſt ſon, in 1745, landed in Scotland. His friends, on his firſt appearance, conſidered the attempt as deſperate, as a ſcheme which nothing but the madneſs of enthuſiaſtic zeal could have projected, and the fury of wild ambition undertaken to execute; but he was deaf to all their arguments, and determined to proceed, whatever conſequences might enſue. For ſome time fortune attended his ſtandard; Sir John Cope was defeated at Preſton-Pans, the pretender entered England, took the city of Carliſle, and penetrated as far as Derby. The capital was now thrown into the utmoſt confuſion, and the Jacobite party laid a deep ſcheme to diſtreſs the bank of England. The merchants immediately aſſembled, and agreed to take bank notes in payment; this preſerved the public credit. The duke of Cumberland was appointed to command the army aſſembled in the neighbourhood of Litchfield. But the chevalier, finding himſelf fatally diſappointed in his hopes of being joined by the Engliſh, retreated back into Scotland, where he defeated general Hawley, and burnt Fort Auguſtus.

The duke of Cumberland purſued the rebels, and, on the 16th of Auguſt, both armies met at Culloden. A fierce encounter enſued; but, in leſs than thirty minutes, the pretender's army was totally defeated, the field of battle covered with their dead bodies, and the young adventurer himſelf obliged to have recourſe to flight for his ſafety.

This extinction of the rebellion did not however reſtore the peace of Europe. The war was carried on with great vigour in Flanders, and the iſland of Zealand threatened with a deſcent. This again rouſed the populace of Holland; and the States, in order to prevent the dreadful conſequences of a tumult, declared the prince of Orange ſtadtholder, and proclaimed war againſt France. Notwithſtanding theſe appearances, the Dutch never could be prevailed upon to act with vigour. The allies were defeated at Laffeldt; and Bergen-op-Zoom was taken in a manner that has never been accounted for. In the mean time, the French marine and foreign trade were almoſt annihilated by the Engliſh, under the command of Anſon, Warren, Hawke, and others.

A general peace now ſeemed neceſſary to all parties; and accordingly a definitive treaty was ſigned at

at Aix-la-Chapelle, on the 17th of September 1748. Soon after the concluſion of the peace, the boldeſt ſtroke of financing ever perhaps attempted in any government, was undertaken and executed with ſucceſs. The laſt war had greatly increaſed the public debt, ſo that very large ſums were obliged to be raiſed annually to diſcharge the intereſt, which was then at four per cent. Mr. Pelham, who preſided at the treaſury board, was deſirous, if poſſible, of leſſening this annual ſum. It was ſufficiently evident, that great numbers of private perſons in England had acquired immenſe fortunes during the war; and, conſequently, that there was no want of money in the nation. He therefore took the reſolution of reducing the intereſt of the national debt, from four to three and a half per cent. for ſeven years, and, after that time, to ſtand at three per cent.

This meaſure, however bold it might at firſt appear, was well founded. Very few choſe to take their money out of the funds; and even ſome of them afterwards made intereſt with the miniſter to have it replaced on the conditions he had offered. Many improvements were alſo made by Mr. Pelham during this ſtate of tranquility, with regard to commerce, manufactures, and the fiſheries. On the 20th of March 1750, Frederick, prince of Wales, paid the debt of nature. He was a munificent patron of the arts, a friend to merit, and warmly attached to the true intereſts of his country. In the next ſeſſion of parliament an act was paſſed for regulating the commencement of the year, and correcting the calendar, according to the Gregorian computation, which had been long adopted by moſt other nations in Europe. This was done by ſinking eleven days in September 1752, and, from that time, beginning the year on the 1ſt of January. In 1753 was paſſed the famous act for preventing clandeſtine marriages. In the year 1754, died univerſally lamented, Mr. Pelham, who had for ſome time ſo worthily and wiſely conducted the affairs of England.

When the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was ſigned, it was conſidered by every intelligent perſon as nothing better than an armed ceſſation of hoſtilities. The French were aſſiduous in repairing and augmenting their marine; they had laid an artful ſcheme for poſſeſſing themſelves of the Engliſh back-ſettlements in North-America, and for cutting off all communication between the Britiſh ſubjects and the Indians. Alarmed at theſe proceedings, the Britiſh miniſtry ordered a ſquadron of men of war, under the command of admiral Boſcawen, to ſail to the coaſt of Newfoundland, and obſerve the motions of the French fleet, then fitting out at Breſt. Boſcawen ſailed about the latter end of April 1775, with eleven ſhips of the line, and one frigate, having a conſiderable number of land forces on board. He was ſoon after joined by admiral Holborne, with ſix ſhips of the line and one frigate. A few days after the Britiſh fleet had reached the banks of Newfoundland, the French ſquadron appeared, but the fog prevented any purſuit, ſo that only two of them, the Alcide and the Lys, both of 64 guns, fell into the hands of the Engliſh; the reſt of the fleet eſcaping up the river St. Laurence.

For ſome time the ſpirit of the Engliſh nation had been rouſed by the encroachments of the French in America. It was no ſooner known that hoſtilities were begun, than the public poured their money into the funds of the government, and orders were iſſued for making repriſals both in Europe and America; and that all the French ſhips, whether outward or homeward bound, ſhould be ſtopped and brought into the harbours of England. Theſe orders were ſo effectually obeyed, that, before the end of the year 1755, above 300 of the richeſt French merchant ſhips, and above 8000 of their beſt ſailors were ſent into the Britiſh ports. This well-timed meaſure had ſuch an effect, that the French had neither hands to navigate their merchantmen, nor to man their ſhips of war; for, about two years after, there were above 30,000 French ſeamen priſoners in England: ſo that the French name, inſtead of being the terror, now became the contempt of Europe.

While the enemy's trade was thus ruined in Europe, colonel Monckton, at the head of a body of troops raiſed by the province of Maſſachuſet's-Bay, drove the French from the forts they had erected in different parts of Nova-Scotia, and ſecured the tranquility of that province. But general Braddock, who had been ſent from England at the head of a body of troops, in order to drive the French from the forts they had erected on the Ohio, had, for want of taking the neceſſary precautions in paſſing through the woods, fallen into an ambuſcade, where his army was cut to pieces, and himſelf ſlain in the conteſt. General Johnſon was more fortunate; he totally defeated the French army near Crown Point, commanded by baron Dieſkau, a German officer, whom he took priſoner.

The French miniſtry, baffled in every attempt both in Europe and America, were determined to ſtrike an important blow, and accordingly fitted out a formidable fleet at Breſt, where they aſſembled a great number of tranſports. This armament at firſt filled the Engliſh with conſternation, as it ſeemed to threaten a deſcent upon their coaſt. Six thouſand men, furniſhed by the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel, and twelve battalions of Hanoverian troops, arrived in England, and every neceſſary precaution was taken to render the attempt abortive. But it ſoon appeared that the preparations at Breſt were only intended to cover the real deſign formed by the enemy. While the Engliſh were every day expecting an invaſion, the French embarked a large body of troops at Toulon, and landed them in Minorca, where they beſieged and took the caſtle of St. Philip, though bravely defended by general Blakeney, and took poſſeſſion of the whole iſland. The loſs of this place was more ſhameful than prejudicial to the kingdom; but the public outcry was ſuch, that the king gave up Byng to public juſtice, and he was ſhot to death at Portſmouth for not doing all that was in his power againſt the enemy.

This ſacrifice being found very inſufficient to ſilence the complaints of the people, Mr. Pitt, long known as a bold and eloquent ſpeaker, was placed at the head of affairs. He ſoon proved himſelf equal to the important poſt he filled, and, by his ſpirited meaſures, raiſed the depreſſed minds of his countrymen. About the ſame time, advices arrived from the Eaſt-Indies, which more than counterbalanced the loſs of Minorca. The ſucceſſes of colonel Clive in that part of the world were truly amazing. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient ſeat of the nabobs of theſe provinces. Suraja Dowla, who had embraced the French intereſt, and, at their inſtigation, had attacked the Engliſh ſettlements, was, a few days after his defeat by colonel Clive, taken priſoner by the ſon of the new nabob, Jaffier Ally Cawn, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the amazing extent of territory now poſſeſſed by the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced a new ſyſtem of operations againſt France; a plan calculated at once to alarm and diſtreſs the enemy, and reſtore the ſpirits of the Engliſh. Deſpiſing the threats of an invaſion from the enemy, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France, and convincing the world, that the Britiſh forces are ſo far from fearing an attack, that they were deſirous of ſeeking them in their own territories. The firſt expedition was deſigned againſt Rochfort, and the command of the land forces given to Sir John Mordaunt. The fleet, commanded by admiral Hawke, ſailed from Spithead on the 8th of September, 1757; but, for reaſons beſt known to the officers of the army, no attempts were

made to land on the coaſt of France; and, on the 6th of October, the admiral returned to St. Helen's. This diſappointment, however, occaſioned no murmurings againſt the miniſter: the people had too great an opinion of his virtue and intrepidity, to impute any part of the failure to him.

The French having ſent a numerous army into the electorate of Hanover, large ſupplies were voted by the Britiſh parliament for the defence of his majeſty's hereditary dominions, and the neceſſary methods taken for rendering the deſigns of the enemy abortive. The duke of Cumberland, who commanded an army of obſervation in that country, did every thing in his power to ſtop the progreſs of the French; but, being preſſed by a force far ſuperior to his own, he was obliged to abandon the enterpriſe, and ſigned a convention with the enemy at Cloſterſeven: then the duke de Richlieu, who commanded the French, took poſſeſſion of that electorate and its capital.

So many difficulties concurring in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence and alliance was concluded between his Britannic majeſty and the king of Pruſſia, in conſequence of which the parliament voted 670,000 pounds to the latter; together with near two millions per annum, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Heſſe-Caſſel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckburg.

The French under Richlieu having violated the convention, an army was formed at Stade, under the direction of prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick, a celebrated Pruſſian officer, was appointed general of the combined army, who determined to begin the operations of the campaign immediately, and, if poſſible, drive the French out of the electorate of Hanover. It was the latter end of November before the army began their march; but, notwithſtanding the advanced ſeaſon of the year, they ſoon drove the enemy out of Lunenburg, Zell, and part of the Brunſwick dominions. Enraged at this reverſe of fortune, Richlieu committed the moſt barbarous ravages on the innocent inhabitants, burning and deſtroying all the villages and farm-houſes that lay in his way. He reduced the ſuburbs of Zell to aſhes, and even ſet fire to the orphan-houſe, by which infernal action a great number of poor innocent children periſhed.

The Engliſh repeatedly inſulted the coaſts of France; deſtroyed the ſtores and ſhipping at St. Maloes and Cherburg, and filled the whole French nation with the moſt dreadful alarms. After theſe expeditions, the duke of Marlborough, who commanded the Britiſh forces, joined prince Ferdinand at the head of 12,000 veteran troops; and this number was afterwards increaſed to 25,000. Succeſs almoſt conſtantly attended the ſtandard of prince Ferdinand; but, being oppoſed by an army always nearly double to his own, his victories were not attended with the advantages they would otherwiſe have produced. The moſt glorious battle ever fought in this, or, perhaps, any other age, was that of Minden; where about 7000 Engliſh defeated above 80,000 regular troops of the enemy.

In every other part of the globe the Britiſh armaments had equal ſucceſs. The French ſettlement at Senegal, on the coaſt of Africa, was taken by captain Marſh, and the iſland of Goree by commodore Keppel. The important fortreſs of Louiſburg, in the iſland of Cape Breton, which had been reſtored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, was again reduced by admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt, and ſix French ſhips of the line taken. The war in the Eaſt Indies was alſo carried on with equal advantage. Admiral Pococke defeated the French fleet in two engagements, and forced them to abandon the coaſt of Coromandel. General Lally, commander of the French forces in India, undertook the ſiege of Madras. The place was accordingly inveſted, and a briſk cannonade continued for two days; but not being able to make any impreſſion on the works, and the Engliſh receiving a reinforcement of 600 men, Lally thought proper to raiſe the ſiege, and retire to Pondicherry. This was immediately performed, but with ſuch precipitation, that they left behind them 40 pieces of cannon.

Three capital expeditions were planned in America, and carried into execution in the year 1759. The firſt was againſt the French iſlands in the Weſt-Indies. The command of this expedition was given to commodore Hughes and general Hobſon. The firſt attack was made upon the iſland of Martinique; but, failing in the attempt, they ſteered for Guadaloupe, which ſubmitted to the Engliſh. The ſecond expedition was againſt Quebec, the capital of Canada, ſituated on the river St. Laurence, and remarkably ſtrong both by art and nature. The miniſter gave the command of the fleet to admiral Saunders, and that of the land forces to general Wolfe, a young officer, but one of the greateſt military geniuſes the world ever ſaw. Wolfe was oppoſed with far ſuperior force by Montcalm, the beſt and moſt ſucceſsful general the French had. Though the ſituation of the country which the Britiſh general was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a deſcent of the Engliſh, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perſeverance, however, ſurmounted incredible difficulties; he gained the heights of Abraham, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himſelf killed, as was Montcalm; general Monckton, who was next in command, being wounded, brigadier-general (now marquis) Townſhend, completed the French defeat, and reduced Quebec.

General Amherſt conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and join general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Laurence. The miniſter took care that Amherſt ſhould be well ſupplied with every neceſſary for rendering his expedition ſucceſsful; in conſequence of which, all the operations were carried on with ſuch amazing facility, that Canda was conquered, and became a part of the Britiſh empire in North America.

The affairs of France now became deſperate, and ſhe determined to venture all upon a ſingle ſtake, by invading England in three different parts of the kingdom: but on the 8th of Auguſt, 1759, admiral Boſcawen attacked the Toulon ſquadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the ſtraits of Gibraltar, took Le Centaure, of 74, Le Temeraire, of 74, and Le Modeſte, of 74 guns; and burnt L'Ocean, of 80, and Le Redoubtable, of 74 guns. The reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line and three frigates, made their eſcape in the night; and on November 20, Sir Edward Hawke defeated the Breſt fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the iſland of Dumet, in the bay of Biſcay. The Formidable, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the Theſee, of 74, and the Superbe, of 70 guns, were ſunk; and the Soleil Royal, of 80, and the Heros, of 74 guns, were burnt; and afterwards the Juſte, of 74, periſhed in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Vilaine, by throwing their guns overboard; and the reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of five ſhips of the line and three frigates, eſcaped in the night. The Engliſh loſt, on this occaſion, the Eſſex, of 64, and the Reſolution, of 74 guns, which ran aſhore in the chaſe. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their invaſion of Great Britain.

Captain Thurot having eſcaped from Dunkirk, and ſailing to the northward round the iſles of Scotland, made a deſcent at Carrickfergus in Ireland; but on his return from thence he was met by captain Elliot, with a force inferior to his own. An engagement enſued, when fortune declared for the Engliſh; the whole ſquadron of the enemy were taken, and Thurot himſelf killed in the action.

The

The war in Germany ſtill continued as undeciſive as it was expenſive, and all the belligerent powers ſeemed inclined to peace. A negotiation was accordingly ſet on foot, but proved abortive, as did many other projects of the ſame kind. While the thoughts of the public were engaged on this deſirable event, George II. died ſuddenly at his palace at Kenſington, in the ſeventy-ſeventh year of his age, and the thirty-fourth of his reign. He died at the very point of time when the terror of his arms, the power of his dominions, and the wiſdom of his government, were raiſed almoſt to the ſummit of human acquiſition; they were indeed at that height of proſperity and glory as never had been exceeded in the reign of the moſt fortunate of his predeceſſors. Though his parts were neither lively nor brilliant, yet the whole of his conduct demonſtrated that his judgment was at once both ſolid and comprehenſive. He underſtood the intereſts of the other ſovereigns of Europe, and was particularly acquainted with all the receſſes of that political labyrinth, the ſyſtem of Germany; and was, during his whole life, a zealous aſſertor of the liberties of that country, but could never ſeparate an idea that there was any difference between his electoral and royal dominions. His temper was ſudden and violent, but placable; nor did theſe ſtarts of paſſion, though they influenced his behaviour for a time, make any impreſſion on his conduct, which was always ſufficiently deliberate and attentive both to his own intereſts and thoſe of his people. He was plain and direct in his intentions; true to his word; ſteady in his favour and protection to his ſervants, and never changed them willingly. He hardly ever removed thoſe who ſerved more immediately about his perſon; they grew old with him, or died in their places. He was merciful in his diſpoſition, but not to ſuch a degree as to encourage offences againſt his government; nor did his affections, either public or private, ever interfere with the ordinary courſe of juſtice. He lived beloved, and died lamented.

George III. grandſon of George II. aſcended the throne when England was in the zenith of its glory. Being a native of England, the people were prejudiced in his favour: he was in the bloom of youth, in his perſon tall and comely, and at the time of his acceſſion the moſt ſalutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The firſt acts of this young monarch's reign ſeemed to convince the public, that the death of his predeceſſor ſhould not relax the operations of the war, which hitherto had been remarkably proſperous. Accordingly, in 1761, the iſland of Belleiſle, on the coaſt of France, ſurrendered to his majeſty's ſhips and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgſon, as did the important fortreſs of Pondicherry in the Eaſt-Indies to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations againſt the French Weſt-Indies ſtill continued under general Monckton, lord Rollo, and Sir James Douglas; and in 1762, the iſland of Martinico hitherto deemed impregnable, as likewiſe thoſe of Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note, were ſubdued by the Britiſh arms.

The war againſt France having been conducted with ſuch wiſdom and effect by Mr. Pitt, and he receiving authentic information of the hoſtile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, propoſed in council an immediate declaration of war againſt that kingdom. He aſſerted, that this was the time for humbling the whole houſe of Bourbon, and that if this opportunity was let ſlip, it might never be recovered; but he was over-ruled in the council, all the members of which, except his brother-in-law earl Temple, declared themſelves of a contrary opinion. This great man now perceived his influence decline, and it was ſuppoſed he was ſupplanted by the earl of Bute, who had a conſiderable ſhare in directing the education of the king, and had of courſe acquired an aſcendancy in the royal favour. Mr. Pitt, however, convinced that nothing could be hoped for in a divided miniſtry; and being determined not to be reſponſible for meaſures he was no longer allowed to guide, reſigned the ſeals, and lord Temple alſo gave up the poſt which he held in the adminiſtration. His majeſty, ſenſible of the diſtinguiſhed merit of this miniſter, made him an offer of any rewards in the power of the crown to beſtow, and was pleaſed to ſettle a penſion of 3000l. a year upon Mr. Pitt for three lives, and a title was beſtowed upon his dady and her iſſue.

The earl of Egremont was made ſecretary of ſtate on the reſignation of Mr. Pitt, and the duke of Newcaſtle placed at the head of the treaſury. The war, however, ſtill continued to be carried on with vigour, and the plans were purſued that he had previouſly concerted. Accordingly, war was declared againſt Spain on the 4th of January 1762. The vitals of the Spaniſh monarchy were ſtruck at by the reduction of the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt and moſt important fort which his catholic majeſty held in the Weſt-Indies, after a ſiege of two months and eight days. About the ſame time the Hermoine, a large Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, valued at a million ſterling, was taken by three Engliſh frigates, and carried into Gibraltar. This was followed by the reduction of Manilla and the Philippic iſlands in the Eaſt-Indies, under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, with the capture of the Trinidad.

The new alliance by theſe dreadful ſhocks between France and Spain, were now convinced, that unleſs ſome methods could be taken to balance theſe advantages, a peace on any terms muſt be concluded. They accordingly opened their laſt reſource, which was an invaſion of Portugal, on the moſt frivolous pretences. As this kingdom had for a long time been under the peculiar protection of the Britiſh arms, there was a neceſſity for our defending it. This greatly embarraſſed the Britiſh miniſtry; but the forces ſent to that kingdom found no difficulty in repelling the troops ſent againſt it by the enemy. The only acquiſition France made during this year was that of Newfoundland, which was ſoon recovered by general Amherſt's forces, who made the French governor and the garriſon priſoners.

The negotiations for peace about this time were reſumed; and the enemy at laſt offered ſuch terms as the Britiſh miniſtry thought admiſſible. The defection of the Ruſſians from the confederacy againſt the king of Pruſſia, and his conſequent ſucceſſes, produced a ceſſation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majeſty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal, the ratifications were exchanged on the 10th of March at Paris; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, and received the approbation of a majority of both houſes, the peace was ſolemnly proclaimed on the twenty-ſecond of the ſame month at Weſtminſter and London.

The extenſive province of Canada, with the valuable iſlands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were, by this treaty, confirmed to Great-Britain, alſo the two Floridas, containing the whole continent of North-America, on the north ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, except the town of New Orleans, and a ſmall diſtrict round it. The iſlands of Grenada and and the Grenadillas were alſo ceded to the Engliſh; and the French and Spaniards quitted their pretenſions to the neutral iſlands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. The ſettlement of Senegal on the coaſt of Africa was alſo ceded by the French. On the other hand, the Havanah was reſtored to Spain. The iſlands of Deſirade, Martinique, Guadaloupe, and Mariegalante, were reſtored to France. The Engliſh gave up their claim to the neutral iſland of St. Lucia,

Lucia, granted the French the ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coaſt of Newfoundland, and returned the iſland of Goree, on the coaſt of Africa. The article relating to the Eaſt-Indies was dictated by the directors of the Eaſt-India company, and by it the French were put into poſſeſſion of all the places they enjoyed before the war, on condition that they erected no forts, nor kept any forces in the province of Bengal. The city of Manilla was alſo reſtored to the Spaniards; and they conſented that the Engliſh ſhould enjoy the liberty of cutting log-wood in the bay of Honduras, in America. The French reſtored the iſland of Minorca, and the Engliſh that of Belleiſle. At the ſame time it was mutually agreed, that a reciprocal reſtitution and oblivion ſhould take place with regard to Germany, and the various places that had been taken during the war, ſhould revert to their proper ſovereigns, or thoſe who poſſeſſed them before the troubles began. The ſame conduct was obſerved between the courts of Portugal, Spain, and France, every thing being placed upon the ſame footing as before the war.

Though the peace received the ſanction of a majority of both houſes of parliament, it was far from giving univerſal ſatisfaction to the people. And from this period various cauſes contributed to occaſion a ſpirit of diſcontent throughout the nation.

On April 30, 1763, the perſon and papers of John Wilkes, eſq. were ſeized by the king's meſſengers, on account of his being the author of the North-Briton, a periodical paper, which ſeverely arraigned the conduct of adminiſtration, and repreſented the earl of Bute as the king's favourite, and the perſon from whom meaſures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. The forty-fifth number contained ſtrictures on the king's ſpeech. He was forcibly carried before the ſecretaries of ſtate, by whom he was examined, and afterwards commited cloſe priſoner to the Tower, though he had objected to the warrant, as illegal, his name not being mentioned in it. He was proſecuted in the court of King's-Bench, for being the author of Number Forty-Five, which was alſo voted by parliament to be a falſe, ſcandalous, and ſeditious libel, and ordered to be burnt by the common hangman, the execution of which order met with great oppoſition from the populace, who wounded Mr. Harley, one of the ſheriffs, and obliged him to take ſhelter in the Manſion-Houſe. Mr. Wilkes was alſo proſecuted for cauſing to be printed an obſcene and profane poem, called "An Eſſay on Woman," though only twelve copies of this piece had been printed, and it did not appear intended for publication. He was ſoon after expelled the houſe; and was outlawed towards the end of the year 1764.

In the mean time earl Bute reſigned his office, and was ſucceeded by Mr. George Grenville, who framed and cauſed to be paſſed the Stamp-Act, which was productive of the moſt pernicious conſequences to Great-Britain, by laying the foundation of a fatal and ruinous war. The alarm in England, on hearing of the commotions in America, which this offenſive act occaſioned, was ſo great, that the king thought proper to diſmiſs his miniſters; and the marquis of Rockingham and his friends were appointed to the adminiſtration. In March 1766 the American ſtamp-act was repealed, but at the ſame time another act was paſſed for ſecuring the dependence of the American colonies on Great-Britain. On July 30, 1766, the miniſtry was again changed, the duke of Grafton being appointed lord-treaſurer in the room of the marquis of Rockingham; and Mr. Pitt, ſince created earl of Chatham, was made lord privy-ſeal.

In the year 1768, Mr. Wilkes, who had for a conſiderable time reſided in France, in order to eſcape the fury of his perſecutors, came over to England. The parliament having been lately diſſolved, he offered himſelf a candidate for London, but loſt his election; he afterwards offered himſelf for the county of Middleſex, and was elected by a great majority on March 28. In May following he ſurrendered himſelf up, and was committed to the priſon of the King's-Bench: on which account great diſorders enſued; and one William Allen, a youth, being ſingled out, was purſued by the ſoldiers, and ſhot near his father's houſe in a manner which the occaſion could in no reſpect juſtify. This affair made a great noiſe; and the odium of the tranſaction was rather increaſed than leſſened by the pains the miniſtry took to ſupport and vindicate the military. On the eighth of June Mr. Wilkes's outlawry was reverſed; and on the eighteenth of the ſame month he was ſentenced to pay a fine of 500l. and be impriſoned ten months, for re-publiſhing the North-Briton, Number Forty-Five, and alſo to pay a fine of 500l. and be impriſoned twelve months, to be computed from the expiration of the term of his former impriſonment, for publiſhing the Eſſay on Woman. He complained to the houſe, by petition, of the injuſtice and illegality of the proceedings againſt him; but his complaints were voted frivolous and groundleſs.

Mr. Wilkes's popularity increaſed ſtill more by the rigour of his proſecutions, and the ſpirit and firmneſs he diſplayed throughout. He had been choſen alderman of London before his expulſion; and on February 16, 1769, he was without oppoſition re-elected member for Middleſex. The houſe declared his election void, by reaſon of his expulſion; he was, however, immediately re-elected by the freeholders, and the election again declared void by parliament. A new election being ordered, colonel Luttrell, in order to recommend himſelf to the court, vacated his ſeat, and became a candidate for Middleſex, in oppoſition to Mr. Wilkes. The latter, however, notwithſtanding the whole weight of court-intereſt was againſt him, obtained a majority of near four to one, Wilkes having 1143, and Luttrell only 296 votes. The Houſe of Commons, however, two days afterwards, reſolved that Mr. Luttrell ought to have been choſen, and ordered the return to be amended, by eraſing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and inſerting that of Mr. Luttrell in its place. Theſe proceedings excited a general diſcontent, and loud complaints were every where made againſt them, as the rights of election were thought to be thereby groſsly violated; petitions were, therefore, in very ſtong terms, preſented to the throne, from different parts of the kingdom.

In 1771 the term of Mr. Wilkes's impriſonment was expired; he was then choſen one of the ſheriffs for London and Middleſex; and was afterwards again choſen member for the county of Middleſex, in the ſubſequent parliament, and permitted quietly to take his ſeat there; in the year 1775 he executed the office of lord-mayor of the city of London, and hath ſince been elected to the lucrative office of chamberlain of that city. In the year 1783, after the change of lord North's adminiſtration, on Mr. Wilkes's motions, all the declarations, orders, and reſolutions of the Houſe of Commons, reſpecting his election for the county of Middleſex, were ordered to be expunged from the journals of that houſe, "as being ſubverſive of the rights of the whole body of electors of this kingdom." It may be proper to mention here, that in conſequence of Mr. Wilkes's manly and ſpirited conteſts with the government, general warrants were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to ſuch warrants, and to the unlawful ſeizure, of an Engliſhman's papers, by ſtate-meſſengers.

The unhappy diviſions which had for ſeveral years ſubſiſted between Great-Britain and the American colonies commenced on account of an act of the Britiſh legiſlature paſſed in 1765, "for laying a ſtamp-duty on the Britiſh colonies in America." The firſt commotions were in the province of Maſſachuſet's-bay, and more particularly at Boſton, where the commiſſioners for enforcing the revenue acts, and collecting the monies ariſing therefrom, were ill received, and

and narrowly eſcaped with their lives. All perſons, directly or indirectly, belonging to government, were looked upon with a ſuſpicious eye; the cool and diſpaſſionate were ſilent, and the commonalty declared they would not be taxed by the Britiſh parliament without their own conſent, that is, without actual repreſentation. Some of the commiſſioners were compelled, upon oath, to renounce all concern with theſe taxes. The tax-gatherers were tarred and feathered; the ſhips, which carried over the ſtamps, were threatened with conflagration, unleſs they delivered up the exceptionable parts of their cargoes to be committed to the flames; and, in fine, anarchy ſucceeded amity, and mutual enmity uſurped the place of reciprocal concord. The inhabitants of Boſton, and ſome other parts of New-England, at length came to a determination, not to make uſe of any articles of Britiſh manufacture; and about the beginning of February 1768, the houſe of repreſentatives gave their ſanction to this reſolution.

The moſt acrimonious diſputes now took place between many of the inhabitants of New-England in general; moſt of the people of Boſton in particular on the one part, and governor Barnard, with the loyaliſts on the other. Aggravating things were ſaid, ill-natured actions done, and libels were publiſhed by both parties. Thus a war of ſentiments commenced before real hoſtilities; and the obſolete terms of Whig and Tory were revived.

In the middle of June 1768, the captain of a ſhallop wanting to run ſome wine, and ill-uſing the tide-waiter, the veſſel was ſeized, and for better ſecurity put along-ſide of the Romney man of war. This occaſioned a riot, when the comptroller and collector of the cuſtoms took refuge on board the ſaid man of war. Government, however, in order to conciliate matters as much as poſſible, repealed the ſtamp-act; but ſtill the Americans were diſſatisfied, for they inſiſted, that though the act itſelf was repealed, yet the ſpirit of it remained, while a revenue was demanded from the colonies; beſides which, other laws had been paſſed in England, one relative to quartering troops in the colonies, and another for ſuſpending the legiſlative powers of New-York, which gave the Americans great umbrage. Unlawful meetings were continued; riots were frequent, and intereſted perſons fomented diſputes. About the ſame time the governor directed the houſe of repreſentatives at Boſton to reſcind a reſolution concerning a circular letter to ſome of the other governments; but they refuſing on the third of Auguſt following, he diſſolved the aſſembly.

It was at length determined to coerce the Americans, and a body of troops arrived there for that purpoſe, from Halifax, September 30, 1768, eſcorted by ſome ſhips of war. But the riotous proceedings of the Boſtonians increaſing, more troops were ordered to Boſton, and a variety of altercations took place.

In the beginning of the year 1769 many perſons in the colony of New-York thought proper to adopt the ſentiments of the Boſtonians, and to engage in the political ſquabbles which were daily heightening in New-England. Other colonies ſoon after acceded to the combination, and in particular to the reſolutions for the non-importation of the Britiſh manufactures, and Eaſt-India goods; and thus the fire of diſſenſion increaſed with great rapidity.

The inhabitants of Boſton now ſummed up a variety of grievances, which were either denied, or palliated by the other party, by the plea of the military being compelled to act as they did, and to defend themſelves; and at the ſame time accuſations, equally atrocious, were brought againſt the people of New-England. Some perſons were tried for murders, but none executed. Sir Francis Barnard having returned to England, the animoſities and diſputes ſtill continued between the people and lieutenant-governor Hutchinſon, who remained in his room.

Affairs thus remained, when about the middle of December 1773, ſome ſhips laden with tea, being at Boſton (as a duty was to be paid) the people would not ſuffer it to be landed. The ſhips being refuſed a clearance by the governor, unleſs the cargoes were landed, and properly diſpoſed of, a mob, dreſſed like Mohawk Indians, entered the three ſhips, which contained the tea, and were commanded by the captains Hall, Bruce, and Coffin, and emptied their cargoes, conſiſting of 342 cheſts of tea, into the water. This and other outrages occaſioned the Boſton-Port Bill, paſſed April 4, 1774, by which the town of Boſton was proſcribed and blocked up.

The people of New-England now began to form themſelves into companies, practiſe the military arts, enter into ſolemn leagues and covenants, &c. Several other colonies followed the example, provincial aſſemblies were held, and a general congreſs eſtabliſhed, to which deputies from the ſeveral provinces were invited.

After many bickerings and animoſities between the royaliſts and provincials, and the martial parade of the latter, the next material tranſaction was the ſeizure of Fort William and Mary, near Portſmouth, in New-Hampſhire, by the provincial militia, in which they found 106 barrels of gunpowder, ſeveral cannons, ſhot, ſmall arms, &c.

General Gage being informed that a great quantity of military ſtores were in the poſſeſſion of the provincial troops, at the town of Concord, ſent a detachment of troops, under the command of lieutenant colonel Smith, and major Pitcairn, ſupported by another body, commanded by lord Percy, in order to ſeize or deſtroy them. This ſervice was effectually performed, after ſome ſkirmiſhes; but on April 19, 1775, the troops were attacked at Lexington, on their return towards Boſton, the provincials firing from behind ſtone-walls, hedges, buſhes, &c. The loſs of the king's troops on this occaſion amounted to ſixty-five killed, 170 wounded, and about twenty priſoners. The Americans were computed not to have loſt more than ſixty, including killed and wounded.

The provincials now inveſted the town of Boſton; and the people of New-York, hearing of the action at Lexington, and the affair of Concord, roſe in a tumultuous manner, entered the town-houſe, ſeized a great many ſtands of arms, appropriated to their own uſe the cargoes of two ſhips laden with military ſtores for general Gage, and then marched to the aſſiſtance of the Boſtonians. They alſo not only continued to block up the town of Boſton, but began to raiſe batteries on the heights of the peninſula of Charles-Town, in order to cannonade his majeſty's troops. This brought on the action of Bunker's-Hill; for on the 17th of June, 1775, a conſiderable body of troops, under the command of major general Howe and brigadier general Pigot, were ſent to diſlodge the provincials. This body of forces, with a proportionable quantity of artillery, made good their landing near Bunker's-Hill, under the protection of the ſhips of war, armed veſſels, floating batteries, &c. and being ſoon after reinforced by another detachment, a deſperate action commenced, in which the Britiſh troops were victorious, the provincial lines being forced, and themſelves compelled to retreat, leaving behind ſeveral pieces of cannon and other military ſtores. The loſs of the provincials in killed and wounded was very great; of the Britiſh troops, according to the return of general Gage, 226 were killed, and 828 were wounded, ſome of the latter dying ſoon after; and more than a proportional number of officers being included in both liſts.

The cannon at New-York were ſeized upon in the night of the 23d of Auguſt, 1775, by order of Congreſs, though the Aſia man of war, which lay in the harbour, tried to prevent it, by cannonading the town. At the ſame time general Carleton was inde-

fatigable, in putting the province of Canada into a proper ſtate of defence; and the earl of Dunmore, governor of Virginia, having thought proper to take refuge on board a ſhip of war, haraſſed the coaſt, and made frequent deſcents upon the laſt-mentioned province, laying waſte the country, carrying off or ſpiking up a great number of cannons, deſtroying vaſt quantities of military ſtores belonging to the provincials, &c. &c. But on the other ſide, Fort St. John ſurrendered to the provincial forces, on the 3d of November, and the garriſon became priſoners.

The regulars and provincials had a hot engagement on the 18th of November, near Savannah in Georgia, in which the latter were defeated; and on the 31ſt of December, in the ſame year, the provincial general Montgomery, who had for ſome time laid ſiege to the city of Quebec, attempted to take it by ſtorm. In this attempt, however, he was defeated and ſlain, with ſeveral of his officers, and about ſixty private men, and 300 were taken priſoners. On January the 4th, 1776, ſome ſhips of war deſtroyed the town of Norfolk in Virginia. While this dreadful havock was going forward in America, ſeveral attempts were made in the Britiſh parliament by the duke of Richmond, Mr. Burke, Mr. Hartley, Mr. Wilkes, and others, to adopt ſome meaſures for bringing about a reconciliation; but no ſchemes for that purpoſe obtained the countenance of the government; and it was ſtill hoped by the court and miniſtry, that the Americans might be ſubjugated by force. With this view, large bodies of Heſſian troops were taken into the pay of Great-Britain, and the war continued to be carried on againſt the Americans with great ardour.

General Gage having been recalled, general Howe, who ſucceeded in the command, thought proper to evacuate the town of Boſton, which he effected on the 17th of March, 1776, and made good his landing, and capture of New York. In June, a battle was fought in Canada, between the regulars, under general Carleton, and the provincials, at a place called Three Rivers, when the latter were defeated, many of them being killed and wounded, and about 200 taken priſoners. Alſo, an attempt was made on Charles-Town, South-Carolina, by Sir Peter Parker, at the head of a fleet of ſhips of war, and general Clinton, with a body of land forces, but it failed of ſucceſs; and on the 4th of July following, the Congreſs declared the colonies "Free and Independent States."

After the king's troops were in poſſeſſion of New York, many ſkirmiſhes happened between them and the provincials, but nothing deciſive, till Oct. 1776, when the latter were defeated, in an action, which, from the place where it was fought, was termed the battle of the White Plains.

In the diſpatches from general Howe, dated Nov. 30, 1776, beſides an account of a variety of ſkirmiſhes, we are informed of the taking of Fort-Waſhington, and Fort-Lee, by the Britiſh forces, together with a great variety of military ſtores, and many priſoners. In December 1776, Rhode-Iſland was taken by general Clinton; about the ſame time lord Cornwallis took poſſeſſion of Eaſt-Jerſey, and general Lee was taken priſoner by a patrole, conſiſting of thirty Britiſh dragoons, commanded by lieutenant-colonel (ſince lord) Harcourt. Volunteer reinforcements of gentlemen, merchants, farmers, tradeſmen, and labourers, joined general Waſhington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidſt ſnow, ſtorms, and ice, with a ſmall detachment, croſſed the Delaware, and ſurpriſed a brigade of the Heſſian troops at Trenton; he took upwards of 900 of them priſoners, with whom he repaſſed the river, having alſo taken three ſtandards, ſix pieces of braſs cannon, and near 1000 ſtand of arms.

In the beginning of the year 1777, ſeveral ſkirmiſhes happened in the Jerſeys, with various ſucceſs. On the 23d and 24th of March, a great quantity of proviſions, ſtores, &c. with barracks, ſtore-houſes, &c. belonging to the provincials, were deſtroyed by the king's troops at Peck's-Hill, upon the North River. The cruizers belonging to lord Howe, and commodore Hotham's fleet, continued to take many prizes. In Connecticut, on the 27th of April, 1777, the king's troops deſtroyed a great quantity of ſtores at Danbury.

General Burgoyne, with the northern army, proceeded to Ticonderago, and Fort Independence, which he took poſſeſſion of the 6th of July, and found in them great quantities of ſtores and proviſions, beſides what he deſtroyed of both at Skeneſborough; ſoon after, he took poſſeſſion of Fort-Edward, which the provincials abandoned, and then proceeded to Saratoga, where they were ſtrongly poſted.

On the 11th of September, the troops, under the command of general Howe, had an engagement with the provincials on the heights of Brandy-wine, in which many were killed and wounded on both ſides; 400 provincials were taken priſoners; but though the latter were defeated, and the action at firſt ſeemed of an indeciſive nature, yet it occaſioned Philadelphia to fall into the hands of the Britiſh troops. While general Howe was thus employed, an unſucceſsful attack was made by the provincials on Staten-Iſland, for they were repulſed; and much about the ſame time general Clinton ſtormed and took Fort-Clinton and Fort-Montgomery.

On the 16th of October, the provincials, under the command of general Gates, having ſurrounded general Burgoyne's army at Saratoga, the latter thought proper to enter into articles of capitulation, by which himſelf and his troops, after laying down their arms, were to have a free paſſage to Great Britain; but the Congreſs, under various ſpecious pretences, did not ratify the ſtipulation, but detained the men at Boſton: and general Burgoyne came to England on his parole of honour.

In the latter end of the year 1777, ſeveral forts were taken by the troops and ſhipping, and many ſkirmiſhes happened on the banks of the Delaware, in order to keep up the communication with the army at Philadelphia. The provincials likewiſe evacuated their entrenchments at Red Bank. The French court ſeems to have thought this a favourable opportunity for leſſening the power of Great Britain; the Americans, during ſome part of the war, received conſiderable ſupplies of arms and ammunition from France. Some French officers entered into the American ſervice; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris between the French king and the Thirteen United Colonies. The conduct of France towards Great Britain occaſioned hoſtilities to be commenced between the two nations, in which Spain afterwards took an active part againſt the Engliſh.

On the 17th of June, 1778, the Licorne and La Belle Poule, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel; and on the 27th of July, a battle was fought off Breſt between the Engliſh and French fleets; the former conſiſting of thirty capital ſhips, and the latter of thirty-two; of the Engliſh, 133 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; the loſs of the French is ſuppoſed to have been very great.

By a letter from general Howe, dated Philadelphia, May 11, 1778, that commander ſignified his intention to return to England, and to delegate the command of the Britiſh troops to general Clinton; he likewiſe informed the miniſtry of the ravages made by the Britiſh troops in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, and of their having ſeized or deſtroyed great quantities of military ſtores, proviſions, veſſels, &c.

On the 18th of June, general Clinton (Sir William Howe having previouſly departed for England) purſuant

ſuant to the inſtructions received from government, evacuated Philadelphia. He was attacked on his march by the provincials, whoſe principal object appeared to be the gaining poſſeſſion of the Britiſh baggage; but in this they were diſappointed, and every where repulſed, by means of the judicious manner in which general Clinton had diſpoſed his troops. This failure occaſioned a diſpute between the provincial generals, Waſhington and Lee.

The earl of Carliſle, Mr. Eden, and governor Johnſtone, having been ſent as commiſſioners from Great Britain, to treat of a pacification with America, did not meet with that ſucceſs which every true lover of both countries wiſhed for. The terms, which at an earlier period would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with diſdain; nor would the Congreſs enter into any treaty, unleſs the independency of the United States of America was previouſly acknowledged, and the Britiſh forces withdrawn. Perhaps the ſpeedy termination of this deſtructive war was in ſome meaſure impeded by the arrival of a French fleet in America, under the command of the count d'Eſtaing. This fleet, in concert with an army of provincials, attempted, in September 1779, the reduction of Rhode Iſland; but the Britiſh troops behaved ſo well on the land ſide, that the provincials were repulſed, and compelled to retreat; at the ſame time the French fleet meeting with a warmer reception than they expected, and finding that lord Howe, with his fleet, was approaching them, quitted their deſign upon Rhode Iſland, and attempted to eſcape. Lord Howe, however, compelled them to engage; but the two fleets being ſeparated by a ſtorm, the French ſquadron, with great difficulty, got into Boſton in a very ſhattered condition.

On the 4th of May, 1780, Sir Henry Clinton made himſelf maſter of Charles-Town, South Carolina; and on the 6th of Auguſt, earl Cornwallis obtained a very ſignal victory over general Gates in that province: but on the 10th of July, the French landed 6000 men, commanded by the count de Rochambeau, at Rhode Iſland. Soon after this, major general Arnold deſerted the ſervice of the Congreſs, and was made a brigadier general in the royal ſervice at New York. This officer had concerted a ſcheme, with general Clinton, for delivering up to him his troops, and the poſt he commanded; which if it had taken place, the deſtruction of the whole American diſciplined force, moſt of their beſt officers, with a loſs of artillery, magazines and ſtores, muſt have been the immediate conſequence. But the whole of this affair was detected by the capture of major Andre, in the American lines, on his return to New York, for which he ſuffered death, though the Americans would have exchanged him for general Arnold.

This year (1780) teemed with diſturbances at home of a very ſingular nature, which originated from an averſion to ſome indulgences lately granted by parliament to the Papiſts, by a relaxation of the penal laws. Hereupon an aſſociation was formed, at the head of which was lord George Gordon; and a petition was prepared, ſaid to be ſubſcribed by more than 100,000 perſons, to be preſented to the houſe, complaining of the repeal of thoſe laws. Lord George undertook to carry the petition; and accordingly gave the members of the Aſſociation public notice to meet him on Friday, June 2, in St. George's Fields, where near 40,000 people met his lordſhip, whom they accompanied, in martial parade, with blue cockades in their hats, to the houſe. The petition being poſtponed by the houſe of commons till another day, irritated the profligate and abandoned part of the multitude to ſuch a degree, that, dividing themſelves into parties, in the courſe of the day ſeveral members of parliament were groſsly inſulted and ill-treated by the rabble; and in the evening, the Romiſh chapel in Lincoln's-Inn-Fields, and another in Warwick-ſtreet, Golden-ſquare, were entirely demoliſhed. On Sunday they deſtroyed a Popiſh chapel in Ropemaker's-alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demoliſhed a ſchool and three dwelling-houſes in the ſame place, belonging to the Romiſh prieſts, with a valuable library of books, and a Maſs-houſe in Virginia-ſtreet, Ratcliffe-highway; they alſo deſtroyed all the houſehold furniture of Sir George Saville. On Tueſday evening they made a moſt daring and violent attempt to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to releaſe the five rioters who had been confined there; and the keeper refuſing to deliver up the keys, they ſet fire to his houſe, after burning his furniture in the ſtreet: ſoon after this, the priſon was in flames, and great part of it conſumed, by which means upwards of 300 priſoners eſcaped, many of whom joined the mob. The ſame night another party ſet fire to the houſe of lord Mansfield in Bloomſbury-ſquare, which was entirely conſumed, together with a collection of pictures of great value, and many of the ſcarceſt manuſcripts in the poſſeſſion of any private perſon in the world; beſides all his lordſhip's notes on great law caſes and the conſtitution of England, which was an irreparable loſs to the public: the houſe of Sir John Fielding, that of Juſtice Cox, and ſeveral other private houſes, were alſo deſtroyed about this time, beſides two other priſons. On Wedneſday they deſtroyed by fire the King's-bench and Fleet priſons. Two houſes, one at the bottom of Holborn, and the other near the Bars, belonging to Mr. Langdale, an eminent diſtiller, were ſet fire to and conſumed, as were the dwellings of many other perſons profeſſing the Roman Catholic faith; and, in ſhort, every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and diſorder, tumults and conflagrations. The rioters even made two attacks upon the Bank, and one upon the Pay-office, but were repulſed by the ſoldiery, who were now through extreme neceſſity introduced into the city, and by whom many perſons were on this occaſion killed and wounded.

Upwards of 130 of theſe people were tried for theſe outrages in London and Southwark, many found guilty, but only twenty-ſeven of the principal actors were executed. Lord George Gordon, having been taken into cuſtody, and committed to the Tower, as the inſtigator of theſe diſturbances, was on the 5th of February, 1781, tried in the court of King's-bench, at Weſtminſter, for high treaſon, and acquitted.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was diſturbed by theſe commotions, there appeared reaſon to apprehend an increaſe of its foreign enemies, by a rupture with Holland; loud remonſtrances were made by the Britiſh miniſter to the States-general, complaining that a clandeſtine commerce was carried on between their ſubjects and the Americans; that this was particularly the caſe at St. Euſtatius; and that the enemies of Great Britain were ſupplied with naval and military ſtores by the Dutch.

The war with Holland was commenced with great vigour: and that republic ſoon ſuffered a very ſevere blow in the loſs of the iſland of St. Euſtatius, which was taken by the Engliſh on the 2d of February, 1781.

On the 5th of Auguſt the ſame year, a very bloody engagement was fought between an Engliſh ſquadron of ſhips of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger-bank. Both the contending ſquadrons fought with great gallantry, and by both the victory was claimed.

While the war was carrying on at home with various ſucceſs, the French made themſelves maſters of the iſland of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Penſacola, and the whole province of Weſt Florida. On March 15, 1781, earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over general Green's army at Guildford in North-Carolina; but it was a hard fought battle, and the loſs on both ſides conſiderable. Some ravages were alſo committed in Virginia by the generals Philips and Arnold,

Arnold, who deſtroyed much ſhipping, and about 8000 hogſheads of tobacco.

The army of lord Cornwallis now amounted to above 7000, all excellent troops; but ſuch was their plundering and devaſtations on their route, and the order of the Americans, that his ſituation became at length very critical. Sir Henry Clinton was prevented from ſending thoſe ſuccours to him which he otherwiſe would have done by his fears for New York, againſt which he apprehended Waſhington meditated a formidable attack. This American general, by cauſing ſome letters to be intercepted, confirmed Sir Henry Clinton, in his opinion, who, by being continually amuſed and deceived, was prevented from giving any aſſiſtance to lord Cornwallis, and alſo from forming any ſuſpicion of the real deſigns of the enemy. At length, the Engliſh general receiving information that the count de Graſſe was expected every moment in the Cheſapeak, with a large fleet to co-operate with Waſhington, now ſeriouſly attempted to reinforce lord Cornwallis, but without ſucceſs. Preſently the moſt effectual meaſures were adopted by general Waſhington for ſurrounding lord Cornwallis's army; and on the 30th of September it was cloſely inveſted in York-town, and at Glouceſter on the oppoſite ſide of the river, with a conſiderable body of troops on one ſide, and a large naval force on the other. The intrenchments were opened in two attacks above and below York River, in the night between the 6th and 7th of October, with a conſiderable train of artillery. The works which had been raiſed by the Engliſh ſunk under the weight of the enemies batteries; the troops were much diminiſhed by the ſword and ſickneſs, and greatly enfeebled by conſtant watching and fatigue; when all hope of relief failing, lord Cornwallis, on the 19th of October, ſurrendered himſelf and his whole army, by capitulation, to general Waſhington, priſoners of war.

The capture of this army was too heavy a blow to be ſoon or eaſily recovered; it threw a cloud over the whole court and cabinet at home, and put a total period to the hopes of thoſe who had flattered themſelves with the ſubjugation of the colonies by arms. The ſurrender of the ſecond Britiſh army may be conſidered as the cloſing ſcene of the continual war in America. The immenſe expence of carrying it on ſo diſtant from the ſeat of preparations and power; the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effuſion of human blood it had occaſioned; the diminution of trade, and the vaſt increaſe of taxes, were evils of ſuch magnitude, ariſing from this conteſt, as could ſcarcely be overlooked. On which account the parliament, on the 1ſt of March 1782, requeſted the king, in an addreſs, to put a ſtop to any further proſecution of ſo offenſive a war againſt the American colonies. This application to the throne, with other concurrent cauſes, occaſioned a complete revolution in the cabinet, which was effected March 27, 1782, under the auſpices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury.

Meaſures were immediately taken by the new miniſtry for effectuating a general peace; and Mr. Grenville was accordingly inveſted with full powers to treat at Paris with all the powers at war, and directed to propoſe the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces in America in the firſt inſtance. A ſeries of loſſes ſtill continued to agitate the minds of the people, ſo that peace became every day more deſirable to the nation. January 18, 1782, the French took Nevis; on the 5th of February, the iſland of Minorca ſurrendered to the Spaniards: and on the 13th of the ſame month, the iſland of St. Chriſtopher's was given up to the French. On the 12th of April a moſt obſtinate engagement happened between the Engliſh fleet under admiral Rodney, and that of the French under the Count de Graſſe, in their way to join the Spaniſh fleet at St. Domingo. The battle laſted with unremitting fury from ſeven o'clock in the morning till half paſt ſix in the evening, when victory declared in favour of the Britiſh flag. The Ville de Paris of 110 guns (a preſent from the city of Paris to the French king) commanded by Count de Graſſe, with four others of the line, were captured, and another of the line ſunk in the action. The Cæſar, one of thoſe taken, was blown up, and the whole crew, among whom were fifty Engliſh ſeamen, periſhed. A few days after, two more of the ſame fleet, of ſixty-four guns each, were taken by Sir Samuel Hood's ſquadron. By this victory, the enemy's deſign againſt Jamaica was fruſtrated, and admiral Rodney's reputation and intereſt were greatly promoted: he received the public thanks of the Britiſh ſenate, and was further honoured by being created a peer of the realm. Unhappily the Ville de Paris, and moſt of the other ſhips taken by admiral Rodney, beſides two of our own ſhips of the line, where loſt at ſea before they could reach England.

The military operations after this, were few and of little conſequence. Negapatnam, a ſettlement in the Eaſt-Indies, and Trincomale, in the iſlands of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the Britiſh forces; but the French ſoon after receiving conſiderable ſuccours from Europe, took Cuddalore, retook Trincomale, forced the Britiſh fleet in ſeveral actions, but none deciſive, and enabled Hyder Alley to withſtand with various ſucceſs all the efforts of Sir Eyre Coote and his troops. On the 8th of May, the Bahama Iſlands ſurrendered to the Spaniards. But the credit of the Britiſh arms was well ſuſtained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot, the governor, and captain Curtis, who defeated the combined efforts of France and Spain. On the 13th of September at ten in the morning, the ten battering ſhips, or gun-boats, commanded by admiral Moſeno, were ſtationed as near the fortreſs as poſſible, covered by the combined fleet. All things being ready, a general attack began, and the heavy pieces from the gun-boats were diſcharged with great rapidity. But the deſign of this grand project (on which their hopes of ſucceſs principally depended) was ſoon rendered abortive. The brave general Elliot had cauſed furnaces to be made, in which having heated the balls till they were red hot, they were in that ſtate fired againſt the enemy. This produced the total deſtruction of the floating batteries, and moſt of the aſſailants in them; for the balls entering their ſides, ſet them on fire, and the whole blew up one after another, except three, which were burnt to the water's edge. Thus was this grand ſcheme totally fruſtrated by the diſtinguiſhed courage and military proweſs of the Britiſh commanders. The battering ſhips burnt before Gibraltar, carried 212 braſs cannon, &c. the proportion of men on board them was thirty-ſix for each of the guns in uſe, excluſive of officers, and marines for working the ſhips. The garriſon was in the month of October relieved by lord Howe, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though inferior twelve ſail of the line.

On the death of the marquis of Rockingham, which happened on the firſt of July 1782, lord Shelburne was, without the knowledge of his colleagues, appointed firſt lord of the treaſury. This gave great offence to Mr Fox, lord Cavendiſh, and others, who reſigned their places. However, the duke of Richmond, general Conway, and others, continued to act with lord Shelburne, till under his auſpices preliminaries for a general peace were ſettled.

By the preliminary articles of peace agreed on between the contending powers on the 20th of January 1783, Great-Britain ceded to France, of her poſſeſſions before the war, the iſland of Tobago in the Weſt-Indies, and the river of Senegal in Africa, with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few diſtricts in the Eaſt-Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry and Karical; it agreed alſo to reſtore

the iſlands of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and the iſland of Goree, with Pondicherry, Karical, Mahe, Chandernagore, and the Comptoire of Surat, in the Eaſt-Indies, which had been conquered from the French during the war. To prevent diſputes about boundaries in the Newfoundland fiſhery, it was agreed, that the French line for fiſhing ſhould begin from Cape St. John on the eaſtern ſide, and, going round by the north, ſhould have for its boundary Cape Ray on the weſtern ſide; and Great-Britain renounced every claim, by former treaties, with reſpect to the demolition of Dunkirk.—France, on the other hand, was to reſtore to Great-Britain the iſlands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Chriſtopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montſerrat; and guarantied Fort James, and the river Gambia, agreeing that the rum trade ſhould remain in the ſame condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each ſtate in the Eaſt-Indies were to be invited to accede to the pacification; but if they were averſe to peace, no aſſiſtance on either ſide was to be given them.

The articles of peace with Spain, ſpecified, that Great-Britain gave up Eaſt-Florida to that power, and alſo ceded Weſt-Florida and Minorca which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all cauſes of complaint and miſunderſtanding for the future, it was agreed that Britiſh ſubjects ſhould have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the diſtrict lying between the rivers Wallis or Ballize, and Rio Hondo, taking the courſe of the ſaid rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed alſo to reſtore the iſlands of Providence, and the Bahamas, to Great-Britain, in the ſame condition in which they were when conquered by the arms of Spain.

In the treaty with the United-States of America, the king of Great-Britain acknowledged New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſet's-Bay, Rhode-Iſland, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia, to be free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates, and for himſelf, his heirs and ſucceſſors, relinquiſhed all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the ſame, and every part thereof. To prevent all diſputes in future on the ſubject of boundaries between theſe ſtates and the remaining provinces to Great-Britain, lines were very minutely drawn, which were properly noticed, as well as delineated on the map of the United-States of America: and ſome favourable clauſes were obtained for the loyaliſts. The navigation of the Miſſiſippi to remain open and free to both parties, as alſo the Newfoundland fiſheries.

In the treaty with the Dutch, great difficulties aroſe, but at length it was ſtipulated that Great-Britain ſhould reſtore Trincomale in the iſland of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it, and that the Dutch ſhould yield to us the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies in the Eaſt-Indies, with liberty to treat for its reſtitution on the point of an equivalent.

Thus a period was put to a moſt calamitous war, in which Great-Britain loſt the beſt part of her American colonies, and many thouſand valuable lives, and expended or ſquandered nearly 150 millions of money. The addreſs of thanks for the peace was carried in the Houſe of Lords, by a majority of ſeventy-two to fifty-nine; but loſt in the Houſe of Commons, by a majority of 224 to 208. The terms of the peace were to many a ſubject of great regret, and reprobated as highly injurious to the dignity and intereſt of the nation; but had the war continued, it would have been neceſſary to have borrowed annually ſeventeen millions and a half, by which a million per annum would have been added to the taxes, and twenty-five millions at leaſt to the capital of the public debt, according to the uſual modes of funding. Conſidering, therefore, the true ſtate of the nation, and the unavoidable ruinous conſequences of protracting the war, the terms of the peace were advantageous and honourable.

A convention between his Britannic majeſty and the king of Spain was ſigned at London on July 14, 1786. It conſiſts of ſixteen articles, and grants full liberty to the Engliſh to cut and carry away logwood, mahogany, &c. from the Moſquito-Shore, belonging to Spain. And, a treaty of navigation and commerce was agreed to, and ſigned at Verſailles, on Sept. 26, 1786, between his Britannic majeſty and the moſt Chriſtian king. This treaty conſiſted of forty-ſeven articles, and the ſame was acceded to by the Britiſh parliament in 1787. And, on the 13th of Auguſt 1788, a definitive treaty of defenſive alliance was ſigned at Berlin between the king of Pruſſia and the king of Great-Britain. This treaty conſiſts of ſix articles.

In the year 1791, a diſagreeable affair occurred between Great-Britain and Spain, which had like to have been attended with very ſerious conſequences. A ſmall aſſociation of Britiſh merchants, reſident in the Eaſt-Indies, had, early in the year 1786, formed the project of opening a trade to the north-weſtern coaſt of America, for the purpoſe of ſupplying the Chineſe market with furs. The principal point towards which theſe expeditions were directed was Port Nootka, or King George's Sound; and the adventurers, being in ſome degree ſatisfied with their traffic, took meaſures, in the year 1788, to ſecure to themſelves a permanent ſettlement; at the ſame time that the ſhipping employed in this expedition was generally of two, and never exceeded the amount of four ſmall veſſels.

The Spaniards conceived ſome jealouſy of the intruſion of the Engliſh into a part of the world which they had long been deſirous of conſidering as their excluſive property; and, accordingly, a Spaniſh frigate of 26 guns was diſpatched from the province of Mexico, in order to put an end to this commerce. The Spaniſh frigate arrived in May 1789, and captured two veſſels in the following July, at the ſame time taking poſſeſſion of the little ſettlement which had been formed upon the coaſt. This tranſaction was firſt notified to the Engliſh government by the Spaniſh ambaſſador reſident at the court of London, who, at the ſame time, demanded that meaſures ſhould be taken by the Engliſh government to prevent Britiſh ſubjects from frequenting theſe coaſts, which were alledged to have been previouſly occupied by the ſubjects of Spain.

After much altercation reſpecting this buſineſs, and the preparation of an expenſive armament on the part of Great-Britain, the court of Spain agreed to the ſatisfaction and indemnification demanded by Mr. Fitzherbert, the Engliſh ambaſſador to the Spaniſh court. Accordingly diſpatches were ſent, from him to the Britiſh court, containing an account, that a convention for terminating the differences which had ariſen with that court, had been agreed upon by his excellency on the part of his Britannic majeſty, and by the count de Florida Blanca on the part of the Catholic king.

The royal proclamation on the 21ſt of May, 1792, againſt ſeditious writings, which was followed by orders for the embodying the militia of the kingdom, engaged a conſiderable ſhare of the public attention. It had the intended effect, and excited numerous addreſſes, teſtifying the loyalty of the people.

In the beginning of the year 1793, numerous aſſociations were formed throughout the kingdom againſt republican principles and theories. The controverſies occaſioned by the pamphlets of Meſſrs. Burke and Calonne, and particularly the writings of Mr. Paine, contributed to render the example of the French revolution in ſome degree contagious. But the diſaffected party was neither numerous nor reſpectable. The church, the ariſtocracy, and all the moſt opulent of the community, were averſe to any change or inno-

vation whatever. It was among the lower part of the middle claſs of ſociety, that democratical opinions were chiefly entertained. The violent proceedings of the French, however, had terrified the well-diſpoſed part of the people, and almoſt diſguſted them with the very name of reform. From the period of the fatal 10th of Auguſt, the converts from the French ſyſtem were numerous: the proſcription and perſecution of the emigrants rapidly increaſed the number; and the premeditated ill treatment and unjuſt death of the king almoſt entirely annihilated the ſpirit of republicaniſm in this country. The public wanted only to be excited to give the moſt forcible proofs of its attachment to a conſtitution which had ſo wiſely provided againſt the intolerable perſecutions of tyranny, and the leſs deplorable miſchiefs of faction.

The firſt diſpoſition manifeſted by Great-Britain to break with France, regarded the navigation of the Scheldt, which the French had determined to open for the benefit of Antwerp and the Netherlands.

The next exception which was taken by the Engliſh miniſtry was to the decree of fraternity, which was offered by the French convention to the revolting ſubjects of any monarchical (or, as they ſaid, tyrannical) government, and which was conſtructed into a direct affront to this country, and a plot againſt her peace.

The alien bill, which the French complained was an infraction of the commercial treaty, was the next cauſe of diſpute; and this offence was augmented by the prohibition to export corn to France, while it was freely allowed to the powers at war with that country.

At length, towards the end of January, M. Chauvelin was officially informed by the Engliſh court, that his character and functions, ſo long ſuſpended, had entirely terminated by the *fatal* death of the king of France; that he had no more any public character here, where his further reſidence was forbidden.

Mr. ſecretary Dundas, on the 28th of January, preſented to the Houſe of Commons a meſſage from the king, in which his majeſty expreſſed the neceſſity of making a further augmentation of his forces by ſea and land, for maintaining the ſecurity and rights of his own dominions, for ſupporting his allies, and for oppoſing views of aggrandiſement and ambition on the part of France.

On the 25th of March, 1794, lord Grenville and S. Comte Woronzow ſigned a convention at London, on behalf of his Britannic majeſty and the empreſs of Ruſſia, in which their majeſties agree to employ their reſpective forces in carrying on the war in which they were engaged againſt France; and they reciprocally promiſe *not to lay down their arms*, but by common conſent. Notwithſtanding this ſolemn treaty, Catharine took no active part whatever in the war. Another treaty was concluded between his Britannic majeſty and the king of Sardinia. A treaty was likewiſe concluded between his highneſs the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel and his Britannic majeſty.

On the 21ſt of January 1794, the two houſes met. The ſpeech from the throne enumerated with ſome degree of minuteneſs the advantages obtainted by the allies, and exhorted to a ſpirited proſecution of the war, and to a reliance on the reſources of the country, and the ſtrength of our allies, for ultimate ſucceſs. The addreſs to his majeſty, in which the parliament agreed to ſupport him in the continuance of the war, was carried in favour of miniſtry by a very great majority.

In March following, the receſſion of the king of Pruſſia from the great cauſe of the allies, agitated the political world for ſeveral weeks, when it was announced that the whole proceeded from his inability to ſupply his troops from the reſources of his own country. The parliament, influenced by the arguments which were advanced by the miniſter, voted the ſum of 2,500,000l. to be granted to his majeſty, to enable him to fulfil the ſtipulations of the treaty lately concluded with Pruſſia for the more vigorous proſecution of the war, and for ſuch exigencies as might ariſe in the year 1794. Notwithſtanding this freſh treaty, the Pruſſian monarch ſoon after entirely relinquiſhed the war, having found full occupation for himſelf and his troops in endeavouring to ſuppreſs the inſurrections in Poland.

On the firſt of June 1794, the Britiſh fleet under the command of admiral lord Howe obtained a ſignal victory over that of the French, in which two ſhips were ſunk, one burnt, and ſix brought into Portſmouth harbour.

On the 8th of December 1795, a meſſage from his majeſty was brought down to the Houſe of Commons, ſignifying a diſpoſition to enter into a negotiation with France, the government of that country having at length aſſumed ſuch a form as to render a treaty with it practicable. Mr. Wickham, the Britiſh plenipotentiary to the Swiſs Cantons, was appointed, in conſequence, to make ſome overtures, through the medium of Mr. Barthelemi, the French envoy at Baſle; but this feeble attempt at negotiation ſoon terminated without effect.

An apparently much more ſerious offer of this nature was made the following year. About the latter end of the month of September, 1796, through the intervention of the Daniſh miniſter at Paris, a paſſport was applied for and obtained, for a confidential perſon to be ſent to Paris from the court of London, commiſſioned to diſcuſs with the French government the means moſt proper for conducing to the re-eſtabliſhment of peace. Lord Malmeſbury was the perſon appointed by the Britiſh court to undertake this miſſion. His lordſhip accordingly repaired to Paris, where he continued about two months. It was propoſed, on the part of England, as the baſis of the treaty, that France ſhould reſtore the Netherlands to the emperor, and evacuate Italy; in which caſe England engaged to reſtore all the conqueſts made on that power in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies. The French directory replied that they could not conſent to propoſals contrary to the conſtitution, to the laws, and to the treaties which bind the republic. Thus ended this negotion.

The beginning of the year 1797 was diſtinguiſhed by as extraordinary an event as perhaps ever occurred in this or any other war—the invaſion of Great-Britain by a force of twelve hundred men without artillery, and almoſt without accoutrements. The alarm at firſt was general and great throughout the whole of Pembrokeſhire, on the coaſt of which the landing was made; but the men ſurrendered on the approach of a very inadequate force, and almoſt without reſiſtance. On inquiry, it appeared that they conſiſted entirely of galley ſlaves, and other criminals, from Breſt: and the object was ſuppoſed to be at once to create an alarm on the Britiſh coaſt, and to rid the French republic of a number of deſperate perſons: but whatever the intentions of the enemy might be, they met, on the whole, with a complete diſappointment; for, not only the expedition proved entirely fruitleſs, but, as two of the ſhips which diſembarked the men were returning into Breſt harbour, they were captured by the St. Fiorenzo and Nymph frigates.

The apprehenſions excited by this circumſtance had ſcarcely ſubſided, when a more ſerious cauſe of alarm occurred to agitate the minds of the public. The bank of England diſcontinued the iſſuing of ſpecie in their cuſtomary payments. A run (to ſpeak in the commercial phraſeology) had taken place upon ſome of the country banks; and the great demand for ſpecie from the bank of England induced the directors to lay the ſtate of their company before the miniſter; in conſequence of which an order of council was made on the 26th of February, prohibiting the farther iſſue of ſpecie from the bank. This order

was

was afterwards ſanctioned and ratified by an act of parliament, by which the reſtriction was continued to midſummer, and afterwards by another act continuing it to the end of the preſent war.

On the third of March, government received intelligence of an important advantage obtained by the Britiſh fleet, under the command of ſir John Jervis, over a Spaniſh fleet of much ſuperior force, on the 14th of February, off Cape St. Vincent. The Engliſh admiral, by a ſucceſsful manœuvre, ſeparated the rear of the enemy's fleet from the main body, and captured two ſhips of 112 guns, one of 84, and one of 74.

The ſeamen of England, however, who had ſo long been the defence and the glory of the nation, ſeemed ſuddenly to conſpire its overthrow. In the the middle of April a moſt alarming mutiny broke out on board the grand Channel fleet at Spithead, under the command of lord Bridport. The ſailors required an advance of their pay, and certain regulations to be adopted relative to the allowance of proviſions. They appointed delegates, two for each ſhip, who for ſeveral days had the entire command of the whole fleet, over which no officer had the leaſt authority. In this critical ſituation, government deemed it moſt expedient to promiſe a full compliance with all their demands; on which they cheerfully returned to their duty. But in a week or two afterwards, no act of indemnity having been offered in parliament for the ſecurity of thoſe concerned in the mutiny, they again roſe, deprived their officers of their authority, and the diſpute ſeemed to wear a more gloomy aſpect than before. A bill, ſecuring to the ſeamen what they had been promiſed, was therefore haſtily paſſed through both houſes, and lord Howe went down to Portſmouth to act as mediator. The delegates of the fleet declared themſelves ſatisfied, and harmony and good order was immediately reſtored.

The ferment, however, ſtill, remained in other parts of the navy; and ſoon after, the ſeamen of ſome ſhips lying at Sheerneſs began to mutiny, and behaved riotouſly; and ſo contagious was the ſpirit of inſurrection now become among the ſeamen, that almoſt all the ſhips of admiral Duncan's fleet at Yarmouth appointed delegates, and ſailed away to the Nore, to join the ſhips from Sheerneſs. New grievances were required to be redreſſed, and new and extravagant demands to be complied with; government was now convinced that to yield would only be to encourage a repetition of ſimilar proceedings; and every diſpoſition was therefore made to force theſe ſhips to ſubmiſſion. All communication between them and the ſhore was cut off, and no proviſions or water ſuffered to go to them. The mutineers, to ſupply themſelves with theſe, detained all veſſels coming up the river, and took out of them whatever they choſe, for which their delegates, the principal of whom was one Richard Parker, a man of ſtrong natural abilities, gave draughts on the treaſury, as taken for the uſe of the navy of England. At length being reduced to great want of water, and diſſenſions and diſtruſt prevailing among themſelves, ſeveral ſhips left the mutinous fleet, and ſurrendered themſelves at Sheerneſs. Some of theſe were fired upon by the others; but at length they all came in, and gave up their delegates; who, with a number of others that were conſidered as principals in the mutiny, were tried by a court-martial. Some of them were executed, others ſentenced to different puniſhments, and the reſt pardoned. Richard Parker, who had acted as commander of the fleet while in a ſtate of mutiny, was the firſt who was tried and executed. He diſplayed great preſence of mind, and ſuffered with the utmoſt firmneſs and fortitude.

As if to eraſe this ſtain from the annals of the Britiſh navy, the fleet of admiral Duncan, conſiſting principally of the ſhips which had been engaged in this unhappy and diſgraceful mutiny, ſailed ſoon after to watch the motions of the Dutch fleet in the Texel, where it remained for ſome time blockaded, till, on its venturing out, an engagement enſued, in which the Engliſh fleet obtained a complete victory, taking the Dutch admiral De Winter, the vice-admiral, and nine ſhips.

In conſequence of this ſignal victory, admiral Duncan was created viſcount Duncan.

In the courſe of this year, another attempt was made by the Britiſh cabinet to negotiate a treaty of peace with France. The preliminaries of a peace between the French republic and the emperor having been ſigned at Leoben, in the month of April, by which the Netherlands were given up to France; the difficulty which had broken off the laſt negotiation, appeared to be in ſome meaſure removed, and applications were again made to the French government for paſſports for a perſon who might enter into diſcuſſions relative to the baſis of a future treaty. Lord Malmeſbury was again appointed to this miſſion; but the French directory objected to his coming to Paris, and appointed Liſle for the place of the conference with commiſſioners they ſent thither for that purpoſe. What the Netherlands, however, had been in the former attempt to treat, the Cape of Good Hope and Ceylon proved in the preſent; and, after a ſtay of nearly three months, lord Malmeſbury, not being able to declare himſelf empowered to conſent to the ſurrender of all the conqueſts made from France or her allies, was abruptly ordered to depart, and on the 20th of September returned as before, not having effected the object of his miſſion.

This year very gloomy proſpects preſented themſelve in Ireland; in the northern parts of which, the peaſants roſe in large bodies, and committed ſuch depredations, that general Lake found it neceſſary, in the beginning of March, to publiſh a proclamation, ordering every perſon in the northern diſtrict to deliver up their arms of all kinds to the military, and declaring the whole diſtrict in a ſtate of inſurrection. The coercive meaſures adopted by government were ſtrenuouſly oppoſed in the Iriſh parliament, as tending to defeat the very purpoſes for which they were avowedly adopted; but as they were declared to be expedient, and even indiſpenſable, by a great majority in both houſes, they were purſued with the utmoſt vigour, and very diſaſtrous conſequences enſued.

The number of inſurgents inſtigated by a rebellious party, who had aſſumed the title of United Iriſhmen, increaſed in ſuch an alarming degree, that the whole kingdom of Ireland was put under martial law. Many actions took place between the king's troops and the rebels; which, though they terminated in general in favour of the loyaliſts, rather increaſed than diminiſhed the number of the diſaffected; and ſuch was the prevalence of party rancour and animoſity, that the inhabitants of this unhappy country were expoſed to the moſt ſhocking outrages, both from the military and the inſurgents. Several trials took place for treaſon and conſpiracies, ſome executions enſued, and other puniſhments were inflicted on convicted criminals; and in this perturbed ſtate was the ſiſter kingdom at the cloſe of the year 1797.

For the purpoſe of ſpreading an alarm throughout this country, the executive directory ordered, in the month of October, that an army ſhould forthwith be aſſembled on the French coaſts, to be called the "army of England," and to be commanded by general Buonaparte, for the deſign of invading England; and the merchants of Paris voluntarily offered to ſubſcribe to a loan, for the carrying the avowed deſign into effect.

The event however proved that the deſtination of this mighty armament was far more remote than was generally apprehended. Every preparation was made on the part of the Engliſh government, to counteract ſo wild a project: military aſſociations were formed, and

and the maſs of the people, waving all political prejudices, embarked moſt cordially in every meaſure for the defence of their country, againſt the attacks of the inveterate enemies of their civil and religious liberties. But the French directory meditated a plan of extending their arms to the wilds of Arabia, ſubjugating Egypt, and, as many conjectured, of purſuing their paſſage to Hindoſtan, in the Eaſt-Indies, where they indulged a vain expectation of ranſacking all the territories of the Engliſh Company, and returning home with an enormous addition to that plunder, which they had already amaſſed by the ſpoils of every place they had ſeized on by force of arms. All their towering hopes and expectations were, however, totally fruſtrated, by an event which remains to be related.

After receiving intelligence of the conqueſt of Malta, and the departure of the French fleet from that iſland, a ſquadron was diſpatched in queſt of them, by admiral lord St Vincent, from his fleet under the command of rear admiral Sir Horatia Nelſon, an officer of approved valour and experience. A long time elapſed before he fell in with them; and, in the interval, the public mind was univerſally agitated, for the reſult of an expedition ſo highly important to the intereſts of Great-Britain.

However, on the 1ſt of Auguſt, the enemy's fleet was deſcried from the maſt-head, a few leagues diſtant to the eaſtward, in the bay or road of Aboukeir. He inſtantly directed his courſe towards them, and found them at anchor, in a line extending from N. W. to S. E. They were at ſingle anchor, with ſprings on their cables, and riding head to wind, which was from the north weſt. To approach them it was neceſſary to ſail round an iſland, and a reef which projected from it, to the diſtance of ſeveral miles from the point on which the ſmall fort of Aboukeir ſtands. The wind was perfectly fair both for this and for approaching the fleet; but, unfortunately, in rounding the reef, the Culloden, the leading ſhip, commanded by the gallant Trowbridge, ran aground, and could not be got at all into action. After this accident Nelſon found himſelf with ten ſhips only (three having fallen ſeveral leagues aſtern) to fight thirteen of the enemy, and ſeveral of theſe of ſuperior force to any of his.

In this action, ſeven ſhips of 74 guns each, were taken; one of 80, and one of 74 were burnt, beſides a frigate of 36 guns, and another of the ſame force, that was ſunk. One ſhip of 80 guns, one of 74, one of 48, and one of 44 guns eſcaped.

This victory was the moſt ſplendid and deciſive of a ſeries, in which, in the courſe of five years, ſuch a number of French ſhips of the line were taken, as were ſufficient of itſelf to form a great navy, and had reduced the maritime power of France, from being the ſecond in Europe, below that of Ruſſia, and to a level with that of Sweden. This ſtupendous victory alſo ſpread the renown of Britiſh valour, and the terror of Britiſh arms, among the nations who were almoſt ignorant of the Britiſh name, as well as fruſtrated all attempts of invaſion, and fully defeated the chimerical project of the directory of France concerning Egypt. The gallant admiral obtained the reward he ſo juſtly merited in a peerage and penſion, and his name will be tranſmitted with honour to poſterity.

A Genealogical Liſt of the Royal Family of Great-Britain.

George III. king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, elector of Hanover, and ſon of Frederic-Lewis, was born June 4, 1738; ſucceeded his grandfather George II. on Oct. 25, 1760: married, Sept. 8, 1761, to the princeſs Charlotte of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, born May 16, 1744, by whom he has iſſue.

1. George, prince of Wales, born Aug. 12, 1762.
2. Frederic, duke of York, biſhop of Oſnaburgh, born Aug. 16, 1763; married, Sept. 29, 1791, Frederique Charlotte Ulrique Catherina, eldeſt daughter of the king of Pruſſia.
3. William-Henry, duke of Clarence, born Aug. 21, 1765.
4. Charlotta-Auguſta-Matilda, Princeſs Royal, born Sept. 29, 1766.
5. Edward, born Nov. 2, 1767.
6. Auguſta-Sophia, born Nov 8, 1768.
7. Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770.
8. Erneſt-Auguſtus, born June 5, 1771.
9. Auguſtus-Frederic, born Jan. 27, 1773.
10. Adolphus-Frederic, born Feb. 27, 1774.
11. Mary, born April 25, 1776
12. Sophia, born Nov. 3, 1777.
13. Amelia, born Aug. 7, 1783.

The King's Brother and Siſter.

1. Auguſta, ducheſs of Brunſwick, born Aug. 11, 1737.
2. William-Henry, duke of Glouceſter, born Nov. 25, 1743; married, Sept. 6, 1776, Maria, counteſs-dowager of Waldegrave, by whom he has one ſon and two daughters.

CHAP. XI.

WALES.

Boundaries and Extent, Climate, Produce, Rivers Inhabitants, Cities, Mountains, Trade, Hiſtory, &c.

THOUGH this principality is politically annexed to England, yet as it is diſtinct from it in language and manners, we have aſſigned it a ſeparate article. This country was formerly of much greater extent than it is at preſent; but the Saxons having conquered all the plain country, obliged the ancient Britons to retreat weſtward; and, ever ſince that period, Monmouthſhire and Herefordſhire have been reckoned part of England. Wales is bounded on all ſides by the ſea and the Severn, except on the eaſt, where it joins to the counties of Cheſter, Salop, Hereford, and Monmouth. Its length, from the ſouthermoſt part of Glamorganſhire, to the extremity of Flintſhire, is computed at 114 miles; and its greateſt breadth, from the river Wye, eaſt, to St. David's, in Pembrokeſhire, weſt, is about 96 miles. It is ſituated between 51 and 54 deg. north lat. and between 2,41 and 4,56 deg. weſt long. and contains 7011 ſquare miles.

The ſeaſons are pretty much the ſame in Wales as in the northern parts of England, and the air is ſharp, but wholeſome. The ſoil, eſpecially towards the north, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, producing large crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Vaſt herds of black cattle, for which this country is famous, ſheep, deer, and goats, are fed on the mountains. Their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Their horſes are remarkably ſmall, but can endure vaſt fatigue. Here are mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and ſome iron; quarries of free-ſtone, and abundance of coal-pits.

In Wales, there are upwards of thirty rivers; the principal are the Clywd, Wheeler, Dee, Severn, Elwy, and Alen, which furniſh Flintſhire with great quantities of fiſh. This country likewiſe abounds in lakes; the chief are Lhyn, Tigid, or Pimble Meer; and Lhyn Sauedhan, or Brecknock Meer; the latter of which is ſo full of fiſh, that the inhabitants ſay, two-thirds of it is water, and the reſt fiſh. At Holywell, a ſmall town in Flintſhire, is a mineral water, eſteemed

eſteemed ſalutary in many diſorders; it is an excellent cold-bath, and has been very beneficial to many who have uſed it.

The inhabitants of Wales are computed at about 300,000; and the land-tax, ſome years ago, brought in 43,752l. a year. The revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from this principality is about 8000l. per annum. The Welſh are, if poſſible, more jealous of their liberties than the Engliſh, and far more iraſcible; but their anger ſoon abates; and they are remarkable for their ſincerity and fidelity. They are fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the moſt remote antiquity; but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuſcripts, ſome of which they pretend to be co-eval with the incarnation: however, great part of their eccleſiaſtical hiſtory is certainly more ancient and better atteſted than that of the Anglo-Saxons. In moſt places of North-Wales, they continue the ancient method of entertaining the company who come to their inns with the Welſh harp; and the novelty of this reception, joined to the agreeable wildneſs of the muſic, renders it generally very acceptable to ſtrangers.

The Welſh clergy having refuſed to conform to the rites of the church of Rome, were all maſſacred by order of Auguſtine, who had been ſent by the pope into England, in the reign of Ethelbert, king of Kent, to convert the nation to Chriſtianity; and, after their paſtors were gone, the inhabitants were eaſily overcome. At preſent, the eſtabliſhed religion is conformable with that of the church of England, though there are many Romiſh ceremonies ſtill remaining, and numbers of families who yet profeſs that mode of worſhip. Moſt of the clergy are natives of the country, and, though they underſtand Engliſh perfectly well, yet the public worſhip is frequently performed in Welſh, except in thoſe towns where the Engliſh is the prevailing language. Moſt places in Wales are now bleſſed with free-ſchools, and the dark ignorance with which it was formerly over-run, is happily removed by the ſociety for propagating Chriſtian Knowledge. Among the many methods put in practice for this purpoſe, is the circulating ſchools, which conſiſt of perſons nominated ſchool-maſters, who are appointed to travel from place to place, inſtructing the poor, both old and young, in reading, prayer, and in the tenets of the Proteſtant religion. This laudable ſociety expends conſiderable ſums in bibles, common prayers, and other religious books, which are diſtributed gratis to the colliers, &c. The principality alſo contains great numbers of Proteſtant Diſſenters. At Trevecha, in South-Wales, the counteſs of Huntingdon inſtituted a ſeminary for training up ſtudents in divinity: here have been alſo ſeveral places of public worſhip erected, under that lady's patronage, where the reformed doctrines are preached both in Welſh and Engliſh.

This country was formerly famous for its poets and bards, among whom was Thalieſſin, who flouriſhed about the year 456, and part of whoſe works being repeated to Henry II. of England, were the means of diſcovering the burying-place of king Arthur and his wife. Learning ſuffered greatly in this country by the extirpation of the bards, whoſe poetical genius was ſuppoſed to raiſe in the inhabitants an enthuſiaſtic warmth for independency, which, according to ſome authors, induced Edward I. to make a general maſſacre of them. Numbers of learned men flouriſhed in Wales before the Reformation, particularly Giraldus Cambrenſis; and, ſince that period, it has been rendered conſpicuous by ſeveral divines and antiquaries. Among the former were Hugh Broughton, Hugh Holland, and Williams, archbiſhop of York, lord keeper in the time of Charles I. Among the latter were ſeveral gentlemen of the name of Llhuyd (Lloyd) particularly the author of the Archæologia; and Rowland, author of the Mona Antiqua. There is no doubt but learning was at a great height in Wales, when the Engliſh ſcarce knew the uſe of letters; though this is ſuppoſed to have conſiſted chiefly in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and hiſtory, of their own country; but the ſcene was afterwards changed, and ignorance took full poſſeſſion of the ancient Britons. Wickliffiſm took ſhelter in Wales when it was perſecuted in England; and, ſince the Reformation, this country has produced ſeveral excellent antiquaries and divines. Some of the Welſh at preſent make a conſiderable figure in the republic of letters, and many of their clergy are excellent ſcholars. The purity of the Welſh language will evidently appear from their Paternoſter, which here follows: "Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, ſancteidder dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mae yn y nefoed: dyro i ni heddyw ein bara beunyddiol; a maddeu i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddeuwn ni i'n dyledwyr; ac nae arwain ni i brofedigaeth, eithr gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn eos oeſoedd. Amen."

There are no cities or public edifices in Wales which are remarkable, either for populouſneſs or magnificence: we ſhall however, deſcribe ſome of the principal.

Beaumaris, the chief town of the iſle of Angleſey, has two good ſtreets, a handſome church, and a harbour. Denbigh is a good town, and Wrexham has a very handſome church. Cardigan has an elegant church, a county gaol, a public hall, and a good harbour. Caermarthen has a fine ſtone bridge over the Towy, and a very commodious quay. Pembroke has two handſome bridges over Milford-Haven, two churches, and a cuſtom-houſe. Caermarthen and Pembroke are eſteemed the two politeſt cities in Wales, and are inhabited by numbers of gentlemen and wealthy tradeſmen. Milford-Haven, in Pembrokeſhire, is ſuppoſed to be one of the fineſt harbours in Europe; but notwithſtanding many efforts have been made, and conſiderable ſums granted by parliament to render it uſeful, it ſtill remains neglected. Haverfordweſt is a handſome town, having three pariſhes, a commodious quay, a ſtone bridge over the Dougledye, a free grammar-ſchool, a charity-ſchool, a cuſtom-houſe, and an alms-houſe.

The copper-mine, which is now working to ſuch extraordinary advantage in Angleſea, is ſituated on an eminence called Paris Mountain, in the iſland of Mona, the ancient ſeat of the Druids in North Wales, at about eight miles diſtant from Holyhead road, and two miles inward. The ore found here is the richeſt and moſt abundant in its produce of any mine of this metal that our country ever produced. It is found ſo near the ſurface of the earth, with ſo little labour and expence, that the proprietors are enabled to underſel all other dealers in this uſeful article. We have been under the neceſſity of importing yearly an immenſe quantity of this metal from Sweden before this diſcovery was made, which was a conſiderable loſs to this country, the balance of trade being againſt us, by being obliged to purchaſe of the Swedes for ready money. The proprietors have ſeven veſſels of about 150 tons burthen, continually employed in conveying the copper, which is packed up in caſes, in ſheets, to a wharf they have below the Tower. All our men of war are ſheathed with this copper. Not only great part of Europe, but moſt other countries, are ſupplied with this article from Angleſey. The Eaſt-India-Company exported, in the year 1789, upwards of ſixty tons for China, and the demand has ſince increaſed. This celebrated mine is not only remarkable for its abundant produce, but for the ſuperior quality of the metal, being the pureſt of any upon the globe. The clear profit, upon an average for ſome years paſt, has heen between 80 and 90,000l. annually. The principal proprietor is the earl of Uxbridge, ſon of the late Sir Nicholas Bailey.

This principality, we may obſerve, was, in ancient

 times,

times, a far more populous and wealthy country than at preſent; and, though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old caſtles are ſo ſtrongly built, and advantageouſly ſituated, that they might be turned into ſtrong forts by a little expence.

Every part of Wales abounds in Roman and Britiſh camps, walls, caſtles, and other antiquities. In the iſland of Angleſey are ſeveral rude monuments, called by the inhabitants Cromlechen. They are formed of a number of rough ſtones, ſet up on an end, which ſerve as ſupporters to one of ſeveral tons weight, laid on the ſummit, It is uncertain what was the original intent of erecting them, but they are ſuppoſed to have been ſepulchres, either of the Druids, whoſe chief reſidence was in this iſland, anciently called Mona; or of princes and other diſtinguiſhed perſons. Rude monuments of the ſame nature are to be found in moſt of the counties in Wales, particularly in Brecknockſhire, of which the moſt remarkable are a pillar about ſix feet high, two broad, and ſix inches thick, called the maiden ſtone; on one ſide of which are the figures of a man and woman, very badly executed: and St. Eltut's Hermitage, which is formed of four rough ſtones, of which three are fixed in the ground, and the fourth laid on the top for a cover. Ancient coins, both Roman and Britiſh, of gold and other metals, are frequently found in this principality; and, in 1692, a golden turquoiſe, conſiſting of three or four bars, about four feet in length, twiſted together like a hatband, was dug up in a garden near the caſtle of Harlech, in Merionethſhire.

The prodigious mountains in Wales may be juſtly eſteemed natural curioſities. Among the moſt remarkable of theſe are Snowdon-Hills, Penmaenmawr, and Moel y Wydhva. Snowdon-Hills are properly diſtinguiſhed by their names, the tops being covered with ſnow moſt part of the year: one of theſe mountains has been found, by trigonometrical menſuration, to be 1240 yards in perpendicular height. Penmaenmawr projects over the ſea, to the great terror of the traveller, the high road being cut through the rock, and, though the ſide next the ſea is guarded by a wall, yet the large pieces of rock which ſometimes fall from the top, render it a very dangerous paſſage. From the ſummit of Moel y Wydhva may be ſeen, in a clear day, part of England, Ireland, and Scotland. Theſe mountains are called the Britiſh Alps, and produce many animals which are to be found only on them and the Alps in Italy. Caerphili caſtle is another curioſity. This building, from its ſize and ſtructure, is ſuppoſed to have been a Roman garriſon, and is, without exception, the fineſt piece of ruins now remaining in Britain. Its dimenſions ſeem to have been almoſt equal to thoſe of Windſor-caſtle; and one of the round towers, which overhangs its baſis above nine feet, is eſteemed as great a natural curioſity as the leaning tower of Piſa in Italy.

At Lhanfannam, in Flintſhire, on the ſide of a rock, is a cave, in which are 24 ſeats, known by the name of Arthur's round table. In this county is alſo the famous well, called St. Winifred's-well, the ſpring of which boils with vaſt impetuoſity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch ſupported by pillars, and the roof is moſt exquiſitely carved in ſtone: over the ſpring is alſo a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous ſtate. King James II. paid a viſit to the well of St. Winifred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a preſent which was made him of the very ſhift in which his great grandmother Mary Stuart loſt her head. The ſpring is ſuppoſed to be one of the fineſt in the Britiſh dominions, and, by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to fling about twenty-one tons of water in a minute: it never freezes, or ſcarcely varies in the quantity of water in droughts, or after the greateſt rains; after a violent fall of which, it becomes diſcoloured by a wheyiſh tinge. Near Caermarthen may be ſeen ſeveral vaſt caverns, ſuppoſed to have been copper-mines of the Romans. At the ſame place is a fountain, which, like the ſea, ebbs and flows twice in 24 hours: and on the coaſt of Pembrokeſhire is a pool called Baſharſton-Meer, which is ſuppoſed to be unfathomable; and, by its violent noiſe, to have a ſubterraneous communication with the ſea. The laſt curioſity we ſhall particularize is the dyke, near Knighton in Radnorſhire, which Offa, the Mercian, threw up as a boundary between his ſubjects and the Britons.

The Welſh, with reſpect to commerce and manufactures, are on a footing with many of the weſtern and northern counties of England. Their trade is moſtly inland, and they import numbers of black cattle, which afford excellent beef, into England. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ſhips, and its inhabitants carry on an extenſive trade. In Brecknockſhire are ſeveral woollen manufactures; and Wales carries on a great coal trade with England, and even Ireland. Denbigh is famous for gloves and tanned leather.

The tutelar ſaint of the Welſh is St. David, commonly called St. Taffy: his badge is a leek, worn in commemoration of him on the 1ſt of March, and for which various reaſons have been aſſigned. The arms of the prince of Wales differ from thoſe of England only by the addition of a label of three points: the motto is, "Ich Dien," I ſerve. His cap, or badge of oſtrich feathers, was occaſioned by a trophy of that kind which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poictiers.

HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF WALES.

THE ancient hiſtory of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. We are, however, certain, that the love of independence was ſo ſtrongly rooted in the breaſts of the Britons, that they defended their country during a long ſeries of years againſt all the force of the Romans; and even when the greater part of their country was ſubdued, and the ſoil drenched with the blood of its inhabitants, many of them retired to the mountains, where they bid defiance to the Roman arms.

The Saxons alſo attempted the conqueſt of this country, but penetrated no further than the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, which were afterwards conſidered as parts of England. The Welſh, however, were far from being ſubdued; they continued an independent people, and were ſtill governed by their own princes and their own laws.

The firſt blow to the liberties of the Welſh was given about the year 870, when Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three ſons; theſe diviſions were Demetia, or South Wales; Poveſia, or Powis-Land; and Venodotia, or North Wales. This diviſion gave riſe to many wars, during which the kingdom of Poveſia, or Powis-Land, was conquered, and part of it annexed to North Wales, and part to South; diviſions which ſubſiſt even to this day.

Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the borders of Wales, about the year 1112, hoping that they would ſoon form a barrier to England. But, though the Welſh were unable to drive the Flemings from their ſettlements, they reſiſted, with remarkable intrepidity, ſeveral attempts made by the Norman kings of England to deprive them of their liberty. At laſt, their old and infirm prince Llewellin put himſelf under the protection of Henry III. to whom he did homage for his kingdom, in order to procure the aſſiſtance of that prince againſt his ferocious ſon Griffin,

British Statute Miles
5 10 20 40 60 80

A New and Correct Map of IRELAND, from the latest Surveys of that KINGDOM.

11 10 9 8 7 6
56 55 54 53 52 51
10 West Longitude from 9 London 8 7 6

who had taken up arms againſt his father. This incident, which happened in 1237, furniſhed a pretence for conſidering Wales as a fief of England, and of making an entire conqueſt of that country.

On the death of that prince, his ſon Llewellin ſucceeded to the crown, who, diſdaining the homage to which old Llewellin had ſubmitted, Edward raiſed a formidable army at a prodigious expence, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and, taking poſſeſſion of the iſle of Angleſey, he drove the Welſh to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to ſubmit to pay a tribute. The Welſh, however, made ſeveral efforts under Llewellin; but at laſt, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was ſucceeded by his brother David, the laſt independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him moſt barbarouſly and unjuſtly hanged; and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to the crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman maſſacre of the Welſh bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not ſufficient to complete his conqueſts, he ſent his queen, in the year 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon-caſtle, that the Welſh, having a prince born among themſelves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always deſcended to the eldeſt ſons of the Engliſh kings. The hiſtory of Wales and England became now the ſame. The eldeſt ſons of the kings of England have not only ever ſince held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a preſident, was named by the crown, for the adminiſtration of all the affairs of the principality. This piece of policy was thought ſo neceſſary, that, when Henry VIII. had no ſon, his daughter Mary was created princeſs of Wales.

CHAP. XII.

IRELAND.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Produce, Rivers, Lakes, Inhabitants, Learning, &c.

THIS iſland is ſituated on the weſt ſide of England, between the parallels of 51 and 55 deg. 20 min. north lat. and 6 and 10 deg. weſt long. or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime, where the longeſt day is ſixteen hours and a half, and the twenty-fourth parallel, or the end of the tenth clime, where the longeſt day is ſeventeen hours and a half. This kingdom is 290 miles in length, 172 in breadth, and contains an area of 31,966 miles: it alſo contains 11,067,712 Iriſh plantation acres, which makes 17,227,864 acres of Engliſh ſtatute meaſure, and is ſaid to bear proportion to England and Wales as eighteen to thirty. It is bounded on the north by the Deucaledonian Sea; on the ſouth and weſt by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the eaſt by the Iriſh Sea, or St. George's Channel, which divides it from the weſtern ſhores of Great Britain. It is ſixty miles diſtant from Holyhead in Wales, but not more than twenty miles from the Mull of Galloway in Scotland. Its name is probably derived from a Phœnician or Gallic term, ſignifying the furtheſt habitation weſtward.

With regard to the diviſions of Ireland, even modern authors are not agreed, ſome dividing it into five circuits, and others into four provinces; but as the latter method is more generally followed, and at the ſame time more ancient, we have thought proper to adopt it. The provinces are, Leinſter, Ulſter, Connaught, and Munſter.

1. The province of Leinſter is ſituated on the eaſt, and contains twelve counties; viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Dublin	Dublin
Louth	Drogheda
Wicklow	Wicklow
Wexford	Wexford
Longford	Longford
Eaſt Meath	Trim
Weſt Meath	Mullingar
King's County	Philipſtown
Queen's County	Maryborough
Kilkenny	Kilkenny
Kildare	Naas and Athy
Carlow	Carlow

2. Ulſter province is ſituated in the north, and contains nine counties; viz.

Down	Down Patrick
Armagh	Armagh
Monaghan	Monaghan
Cavan	Cavan
Antrim	Carrickfergus
Londonderry	Derry
Tyrone	Omagh
Fermanagh	Enniſkillen
Donegall	Lifford

3. Connaught is ſituated in the weſt, and includes five counties; viz.

Leitrim	Carrick on Shannon
Roſcommon	Roſcommon
Mayo	Ballinrobe and Caſtlebar
Sligo	Sligo
Galway	Galway

4. Munſter is ſituated in the ſouth, and contains ſix counties; viz.

Clare	Ennis
Cork	Cork
Kerry	Tralee
Limerick	Limerick
Tipperary	Clonmel
Waterford	Waterford

The air of Ireland is nearly the ſame with that of England in the ſame latitude, except in ſome parts where it is rendered more groſs and impure by lakes, bogs, and marſhes. The climate, however, is more temperate, it being cooler in the ſummer, and warmer in the water than in England. It is more ſubject to violent winds, clouds, and rain, than to hard froſts in winter; and even in ſummer rain is very frequent, and often prejudicial to the fruits.

The ſoil is various; in ſome places it is ſo rich as to want no manure, and in others ſo barren, that no huſbandry can render it fertile. In the county of Roſcommon is a fine vale called Sheep-Walk, extending twenty-one miles in length, and remarkable for its fertility and fine paſture. The ſoil in many places is a blackiſh earth, in ſome a blackiſh clay, and in others a mixture of earth, ſand, and clay; but the red earth and chalky ground, ſo common in England, is not found in Ireland. In many parts of the kingdom, the upper ſtratum is good mould, but very thin, and nothing under it but ſtone. Theſe parts, however, produce conſiderable crops of corn. Where the lands are not naturally fertile, the inhabitants have ſpared no pains in manuring them with the dung of animals, aſhes of ſea-weeds, mud, and ſometimes lime, in order to enrich the ſoil. By theſe, and various other improvements lately made in agriculture, the lands in Ireland produce much larger quantities of corn, flax, artificial graſſes, culinary vegetables,

tables, &c. than formerly. This happy change is in a great meaſure owing to a ſociety eſtabliſhed at Dublin for the improvement of various arts and manufactures, among which huſbandry engages a very conſiderable ſhare of their attention. The premiums offered by this ſociety have introduced the cultivation of clover, trefoil, ſaintfoin, lucern, rye-graſs, and various other vegetables for the food of cattle. Many unprofitable bogs have alſo been drained, and rendered excellent land. Paſture-land abounds in Ireland, where vaſt numbers of black cattle, hogs, and ſheep, are reared and fed; and hence the inhabitants are able to ſupply the prodigious quantities of ſalt proviſions, butter, &c. annually ſhipped off at Cork, and other parts of the kingdom, to foreign markets, which are the ſtrongeſt proofs of the natural fertility of the ſoil. The Iriſh wool is very valuable, and great quantities of it are exported to England.

Among the uncultivated parts of Ireland are the large bogs, found in various parts of the kingdom. Some of theſe bogs are dangerous; they are generally covered with fine graſs, and the ſoil ſo very ſpongy, that it will bear neither man nor beaſt. Some of them ſhake under foot in an alarming manner, but they may be often croſſed with ſafety.

This country is greatly enriched with the numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, ſpacious bays, commodious havens, harbours, and creeks, with which it abounds. The Shannon is a very noble river, larger than any in England, but not navigable above fifty miles, on account of a ridge of rocks ſouth of Killaloe, and ſtopping all navigation further up; but this might be remedied by a ſhort canal, at the expence of ten or twelve thouſand pounds, and communications might alſo be made with other rivers, to the great benefit of the nation. This river runs from north to ſouth upwards of 300 Engliſh miles, ſpreading itſelf into many large and beautiful lakes of different extent, from five to fifteen miles, abounding with ſalmon, pike, &c. of a very large ſize; and ſome of the lakes are adorned with fertile and beautiful iſlands. The Lee riſes in the county of Cork, below which city falls into the ſea, after an eaſterly courſe of above twenty-ſix miles. The Liffey riſes in the county of Wicklow, and falls into the Iriſh ſea below Dublin. The Boyne riſes in the King's County, and falls into the ſea at Drogheda. The Barrow, Nore, and Suir, water the ſouth part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their ſtreams below Roſs, fall into the channel at Waterford-Haven. The Bann, famous for a pearl and ſalmon fiſhery, riſes in the county of Down, and falls into Lough-Neagh, in the county of Armagh.

Ireland contains a great number of lakes, or loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulſter and Connaught. Though thoſe loughs, in the main, have but few properties that are not common with the like bodies of water in other countries; yet they have given riſe to many fabulous accounts concerning the natives, which diſgrace their true hiſtory. The great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Some of the Iriſh lakes afford the moſt beautiful and romantic proſpects, particularly that of Killarney, which takes its name from a ſmall town in the county of Kerry. This lake, which may be divided into three, is entirely ſurrounded with mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immenſe declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with ever-greens, from near their tops to the lakes themſelves; among which are a number of rivulets tumbling over the precipices, ſome from heights of little leſs than 300 feet. On the top of one of the ſurrounding mountains is a ſmall round lake about a quarter of a mile in diameter, called the Devil's Punch Bowl. From the ſurface of the lake to the top of the cavity, or brim of the bowl, may be about 300 yards; and when viewed from the circular top, it has a moſt aſtoniſhing appearance. The depth of it is vaſtly great, but not unfathomable, as the natives pretend. The diſcharge of the ſuperfluous waters of this bowel, through a chaſm into the middle lake, forms one of the fineſt caſcades in the world, viſible for 150 yards. The echoes among the hills ſurrounding the ſouthern parts of the lake, which is moſtly incloſed, are equally delightful and aſtoniſhing. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmare, has placed ſome cannon in the moſt proper places, for the amuſement of travellers; and the diſcharge of theſe pieces is tremendous, reſembling moſt the rolling of a violent peal of thunder, which ſeems to travel the ſurrounding ſcenery, and die away among the diſtant mountains. Here alſo muſical inſtruments, eſpecially the horn and trumpet, afford the moſt delightful entertainment, and raiſe a concert ſuperior to that of a hundred performers. Among the vaſt and craggy heights that ſurround the lake, is one ſtupendous and frightful rock, the front of which towards the water is a moſt horrid precipice, called the *eagle's neſt*, from the number of thoſe birds which have their neſts in that place. Many of theſe lakes contain large quantities of fiſh.

Here are a great number of ſpacious bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coaſt, and render this country, beyond any other, the beſt fitted for foreign commerce. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinſale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kinmare, Dinglas, Shannon-mouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilley, and Lough-Foyle, beſides a great many barred havens, ſome of which have been much improved by act of parliament, particularly that of Dublin.

Many of the roads of Ireland are now the fineſt in Europe. They are carried ſeveral miles in ſtraight lines; to effect which, no expence has been ſpared to cut through mountains, and fill up vallies; in ſome places they are carried for many miles through the middle of bogs, which before were impaſſable. Add to this, that as there is no ſuch thing as a heavy waggon in the country, the roads are hard and ſmooth, in ſome meaſure reſembling the gravel walks in a garden.

The many rivers that water the plains of Ireland, render it very ſuſceptible of improvements, with regard to inland navigation; and the legiſlature, convinced of the great utility that muſt attend the communications between different places in the kingdom by means of canals, have, at different times, granted large ſums of money for carrying on theſe uſeful works. One of theſe canals is extended above ſixty miles, from the river Shannon to the Liffey near Dublin. By this artificial navigation, a communication is opened from the channel to the Atlantic Ocean. In ſurveying the grounds for this canal, it was found neceſſary to carry it through a bog twenty-four miles over, which greatly increaſed the labour and expence of the undertaking, in ſtrengthening the banks with additional works, to prevent them from falling in, to which they would otherwiſe have been very ſubject, from the ſpongy nature of the ſoil.

In this kingdom are ſeveral lofty chains, as well as high mountains; and the Iriſh have three words which expreſs the different degrees of their elevation and ſize, namely, knock, ſlieu, and bein or binn: knock ſignifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; ſlieu denotes a craggy high mountain, gradually aſcending, and continued in ſeveral ridges; a bein or binn means a pinnacle, or mountain of the firſt magnitude, ending in a ſharp or abrupt precipice. The two laſt are often ſeen and compounded together in one and the ſame range. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Down, are reckoned among ſome of the higheſt in the kingdom; of which Slieu Denard is calculated at a perpendicular

cular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, ſome of which contain veins of iron, lead, copper, minerals, coals, quarries of ſtone, ſlate, and marble.

In the mountains of Wicklow are alſo ſome of thoſe deep vallies called glyns, very beautiful and pictureſque, together with ſome grand and aſtoniſhing water-falls.

The chief foreſts in Ireland lie in Leinſter and Ulſter, the King's and Queen's counties, and in thoſe of Wexford and Carlow, Donegall, Fermanagh, along Lough-Earne, and in the north parts of the counties of Tyrone and Down, wherein is ſome good timber; and the oak is eſteemed as good as any of the Engliſh growth, and as fit for ſhip-building.

The vegetable and animal productions of Ireland nearly reſemble thoſe of England and Scotland. Some of the meadows are covered with excellent graſs; others yield plenty of turf and peat, which are very ſerviceable for firing. Great quantities of hemp and flax are raiſed in the northern parts of the kingdom. Bees abound here, and vaſt quantities of wild honey are found in caverns and trunks of trees. Wolves were formerly very numerous here, but have long ſince been deſtroyed by the wolf-dogs, which are much larger than maſtiffs, ſhaped like greyhounds, yet very gentle and governable. Their herds of black cattle, flocks of ſheep, hogs, and alſo rabbits, are amazingly numerous: one rabbit-warren is affirmed to be forty miles in length; they have geeſe and fowls of all kinds, and a ſpecies of excellent hawks. The fiſh on the coaſts of Ireland are in greater plenty than on thoſe of England, and ſome of them larger and more excellent in their kind. The aſſertion that venomous animals will not live in Ireland, begins to loſe credit, as numbers of toads are found in that kingdom.

Moſt of the mines of Ireland have been diſcovered in this century; ſome contain a mixture of ſilver and lead; thirty pounds of lead ore is ſaid to produce a pound of ſilver; but the richeſt ſilver mine is at Wicklow; two mines, one of copper, and another of lead, have been diſcovered at Tipperary. Iron mines are diſperſed all over the kingdom; here are alſo quarries of free-ſtone, ſome of a grey or aſh-colour, and others blue. There are quarries of fine ſlate and marble in moſt of the counties. There is a peculiar ſpecies of coal at Kilkenny, reſembling the canal-coal of Lancaſter; very hard, of a bright black, burns freely, and emits little or no ſmoke; theſe qualities, with the ſerenity of the air and gravelly ſoil in that county, have given riſe to the well-known proverb, that "Kilkenny contains fire without ſmoke, water without mud, and air without fog." There are few mineral waters in Ireland; the principal ſpring of this kind is ſituated on the banks of the Liffey, at the village of Leixlip, ſeven miles from Dublin.

From the accounts laid before the houſe of commons in 1786 (as returned by the hearth-money collectors) the number of houſes in Ireland amounted to 474,234, and if (upon a moderate computation) we allow eight perſons to a houſe, it will make the population amount to 3,793,872.

The firſt ſettlers of Ireland are ſuppoſed to have been emigrants from different parts of the globe, and at different times. The Iriſh, in general, are a ſtrong bodied people, nimble, active, of great ſoftneſs and pliancy in their limbs, bold, haughty, ready of apprehenſion, cunning, hoſpitable, credulous, vain, full of reſentment, and violent in all their affections.

The Papiſts, in conſequence of a blind ſubmiſſion to their prieſts, are ignorant and ſuperſtitious. At home they are not remarkable for bravery, probably owing to the many legal diſabilities they labour under, which lays a reſtraint both on their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the ſervice of foreign princes, they generally diſtinguiſh themſelves by their courage and fidelity. O or Mac, which ſignify grandſon and ſon, uſually precede their ſurnames, eſpecially of the better ſort.

Theſe people are too juſtly accuſed of hard drinking, and are not ſuppoſed to have made a perſon welcome at their houſe, who is ſuffered to leave it ſober. Some writers have accuſed the Iriſh of want of genius, and others have even gone ſo far as to call them a nation of blunderers; but it is plain they were either actuated by partiality, or ignorant of proper diſtinction; for it is well known that Ireland has produced ſeveral men of unqueſtioned abilities; and at preſent the politer part of that nation do not yield the palm in any one reſpect to the Engliſh, of whoſe manners, language, dreſs and cuſtoms, they are true copyiſts.

The old, or mere Iriſh, as they are termed by the Proteſtants, are indeed a miſerable race, inhabiting the moſt unpoliſhed provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught. Theſe poor people are without diſpute the moſt ignorant; but at the ſame time appear to be the moſt oppreſſed people in Europe; being in a manner denied all the benefits common to a civilized people. Subjected even to a ſtate of ſlavery by their tyrannic lords or leaſeholders, their only wealth conſiſts of a cow; ſometimes, but very rarely, of a horſe; a ſmall number of poultry, and a ſpot for potatoes. Their food is coarſe bread, potatoes, eggs, butter, milk, and ſometimes fiſh; but ſeldom taſte butcher's meat of any kind. They reſide in miſerable huts, termed by them cabins, built of clay and ſtraw, which are generally divided in the centre by a partition of the ſame materials. In one part the family live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being appropriated for the reception of a cow, and ſuch pieces of lumber as are not in immediate uſe. Their children, plump, robuſt, and hearty, ſcarcely know the uſe of clothes, and are not aſhamed to gaze upon ſtrangers, or make their appearance in that primitive manner, upon the roads.

In this idle and deplorable ſtate, many thouſands have been loſt to the community and to themſelves, who if they had been properly educated, and inſtructed in the real principles of Chriſtianity, and inured and encouraged to induſtry and labour, would have become uſeful members of ſociety, and alſo added conſiderable ſtrength to government.

The preſent inhabitants of Ireland are compoſed of three diſtinct claſſes of people; the old Iriſh, are poor, ignorant, and depreſſed, who inhabit, or rather exiſt, upon the interior and weſtern parts; the deſcendents of the Engliſh, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coaſt facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, ſcience, and more liberal and juſt ideas of the true God and primitive Chriſtianity; thirdly, the deſcendents of the Scots, who in the reign of James I. fled from that kingdom to avoid perſecution, and were the firſt who introduced the preſent great ſource of Iriſh wealth, the linen manufactory.

The gentry and better ſort of the Iriſh nation in general differ little in language, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, from thoſe of the ſame rank in Great-Britain, whom they imitate. Their hoſpitality is well known, but in this they are ſometimes ſuſpected of more oſtentation than real friendſhip. Their muſic is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a very melancholy ſtrain; though ſome of the lateſt airs are more lively, and, when ſung by an Iriſhman, extremly diverting. The old Iriſh is generally ſpoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where ſome of the old uncouth cuſtoms ſtill prevail, particularly their funeral howlings. They have a cuſtom of placing a dead corpſe before their doors, laid out upon a table, having a plate upon the body, to excite the charity of paſſengers. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more

often quarrelling among themſelves, is offenſive to every ſtranger; but, as we obſerved before, theſe cuſtoms are chiefly confined to the more unpoliſhed provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught, the common people there having the leaſt ſenſe of law and government of any in Ireland.

The eſtabliſhed religion of Ireland, is the ſame with that of England; but among the bulk of the people, in the moſt uncultivated parts, Popery is prevalent. The Iriſh Papiſts ſtill retain their nominal biſhops and dignitaries, who ſubſiſt on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But Proteſtantiſm makes a very rapid progreſs in the towns and communities. The inſtitution of the incorporated ſociety for promoting the Engliſh Proteſtant working-ſchools, in 1717, has been amazingly ſucceſsful, as have many inſtitutions of the ſame kind, in introducing induſtry and knowledge among the Iriſh; and no country in the world can ſhew greater public-ſpirited exertions than have been made by the government of Ireland, ſince that time, for theſe laudable inſtitutions; but many of the parliamentary grants of this kind have been unhappily trifled with and perverted. There are many ſectaries in Ireland; particularly Preſbyterians, Baptiſts, Quakers, and Methodiſts, all of whom are either connived at or tolerated.

There are four archbiſhoprics of the eſtabliſhed church in Ireland, viz. Armagh, Dublin, Caſhell, and Tuam: the biſhoprics are, Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Oſſory, Raphoe, Waterford, Kilmore, and Killala.

The Iriſh language is a dialect of the Celtic, and fundamentally the ſame with the Erſe uſed by the Scots Highlanders, and not remarkably different from the Welſh. But it is now greatly altered from its original ſimplicity by provincial alterations, and the introduction of foreign works; and it is probable that in a few centuries the Iriſh will be conſidered as a dead language. The common people have a diſagreeable tone in ſpeaking, which diffuſes itſelf even among the better ſort who do not underſtand Iriſh.

Ancient Iriſh hiſtorians tell us, learning flouriſhed in this country when the reſt of Europe was overwhelmed with the groſſeſt ignorance. The old natives of Ireland alſo diſpute the honour of the poems of Oſſian with the Scots Highlands, inſiſting that he was a native of Ireland: however this be, it is well known that the Iriſh ſtill repeat many parts of his poems, which have been tranſmitted by tradition, from father to ſon, for many generations. With regard to writers, ſince the revival of learning, the Iriſh are little inferior to thoſe of their neighbours. Archbiſhop Uſher does honour to literature itſelf, Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and ſatire. The ſprightlineſs of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama. And among the men of diſtinguiſhed genius whom Ireland has lately produced, may alſo be particularly mentioned ſir Richard Steele, biſhop Berkeley, Parnel, Sterne, and Goldſmith.

The only univerſity in Ireland is that of Dublin, denominated Trinity-College, which was founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth. It conſiſts of two ſquares, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings of eight rooms each. Three ſides of one of the ſquares are of brick, and the fourth is a very ſuperb library. The inſide is beautiful and commodius, and embelliſhed with the buſts of ſeveral ancient and modern worthies. The new ſquare, three ſides of which have been built within about twenty years, by parliamentary bounty, and from thence called Parliament-Square, is of hewn ſtone; and the front of it, near the city of Dublin, is ornamented with pilaſters, feſtoons, &c. The Provoſt's houſe has an elegant little front, entirely of Portland ſtone. The chapel, and the old hall, where college exerciſes are performed, are mean ſtructures; but the new hall, in which the members of the college dine, is a fair and large room.

This ſeminary originally conſiſted only of a provoſt, three fellows, and three ſcholars; it has from time to time been augmented to twenty-two fellows, ſeventy ſcholars, and thirty ſizers. The whole number of ſtudents is at preſent about 400, who are of three claſſes, fellow-commoners, penſioners, and ſizers or writers. Of the fellows, ſeven are called ſeniors, and the annual income of theſe is about 700l. The provoſtſhip is ſuppoſed to be worth 3000l. a year. Trinity-College has a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, maſters, and doctors in all the arts and faculties. The viſitors are, the chancellor or vice-chancellor, and the archbiſhop of Dublin. In the muſeum of this univerſity is a ſet of figures in wax, repreſenting females in every ſtate of pregnancy: they are done upon real ſkeletons, and are the labours of almoſt a whole life of a French artiſt.

In Ireland there are ſeveral free-ſchools for the inſtruction of youth, which are endowed both by public and private munificence. Many of theſe inſtitutions were founded by James I. and queen Elizabeth; one by the firſt duke of Ormond, and another by Eraſmus Smith, Eſq. in the year 1748, the free-ſchools in Ireland amounted to 168, in which 3006 children were educated. But the moſt extenſive and uſeful charity of this kind in Ireland, and perhaps in the univerſe, is the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh Proteſtant working-ſchools already mentioned. James I. made great efforts for this purpoſe; but this beneficial undertaking was not incorporated by charter till 1733, by George II. and the parliament of Ireland appropriates near 3000l. a year to the uſe of it, and the late king contributed 1000l. immediately, and 1000l. per annum towards its ſupport. There is alſo a charitable inſtitution in Dublin, termed a charter nurſery, where the infants of the poor are received, fed, clothed, inſtructed, and taken very great care of, by proper perſons appointed, till they are old enough to be ſent to ſome of the above-mentioned ſchools: and in different parts of the kingdom, there are other nurſeries of the ſame kind.

In Ireland, the natural and artificial curioſities are not ſo numerous as they are remarkable. The Iriſh goſ-hawks and goſ-falcons are celebrated for their ſhape and beauty: beſides the ſhape and faſhion of their body, they ſtand ſo erect, and delight the eyes with ſuch an elegant form, that they give as it were a grandeur to the diverſion of hawking. The Iriſh wolf-dogs, before mentioned, have been accounted preſents worthy the acceptance of monarchs. The caves, glyns, and cataracts, already noticed, certainly deſerve to be mentioned among the natural curioſities of this kingdom. But that which merits our greateſt attention is the Giant's Cauſeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Coleraine, which Dr. Pococke, a celebrated traveller and antiquary, has thus deſcribed: "I meaſured," ſays this learned writer, the moſt weſterly point at high water, to the diſtance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low water, it extended ſixty feet further upon a deſcent, till it was loſt in the ſea. Upon meaſuring the eaſtern point I found it 540 feet from the cliff; and ſaw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the eaſt, and is, like that, loſt in the water. The cauſeway is compoſed of pillars all of angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. The eaſtern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of the pillars, ſome of which are thirty-three feet and four inches high. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about one foot in thickneſs; and, what is very ſurpriſing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greateſt

A PROSPECT OF THE CITY OF DUBLIN
From the MAGAZIEN HILL in his MAJESTYS PHOENIX PARK

greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, and fitting in the exacteſt manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally conſiſt of about forty joints, moſt of which ſeparate very eaſily, and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water. But this is not the moſt ſingular part of this extraordinary curioſity; the cliffs themſelves being ſtill more ſurpriſing. From the bottom, which is of black ſtone, to the height of about ſixty feet, they are divided at equal diſtances by ſtripes of a reddiſh ſtone, that reſemble a cement, about four inches in thickneſs; upon this there is another ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum five inches thick of the red. Over this is another ſtratum ten feet thick, divided in the ſame manner; then a ſtratum of the red ſtone, twenty feet deep, and above that a ſtratum of upright pillars; above theſe pillars lies another ſtratum of black ſtone, twenty feet high; and, above this again, another ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not ſo high, and in others again above them; where they are called the chimneys. The face of theſe cliffs extends about three Engliſh miles."

The greateſt artificial curioſities in Ireland are the tall, ſlender, round towers, called Pharos, built of lime and ſtone, and diſperſed through various parts of the kingdom. They are ſuppoſed to have been erected by the Danes or Norwegians, as watch-towers or beacons.

Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is ſituated on the banks of the river Liffey, about three miles from the ſea, and at the bottom of a large bay of the ſame name. The whole extent of this city is about one-third of London, including Weſtminſter and Southwark; and one-fourth at leaſt of the whole has been built within theſe forty years; more than 4000 houſes having been erected in that ſhort period of time. Thoſe parts of the town that have been added ſince that time are ſubſtantially built, and the ſtreets in general well laid out, eſpecially on the north ſide of the river, where the moſt conſiderable additions have been made.

There are many ſpacious and regular ſtreets in the city, particularly Sackville-ſtreet, in the north-eaſt part of the town, which, with ſome alterations and improvements, would have been one of the fineſt, perhaps, in Europe. The moſt elegant, and beſt finiſhed piece of architecture in Dublin, is the lying-in-hoſpital. The view of Dublin from the top of any of their towers, is the moſt beautiful of any large city in the king's dominions, in a ſimilar point of view, from the neatneſs of the blue ſlating with which the houſes are univerſally covered. The bay below the city to the eaſt, with the adjacent country, adds greatly to the beauty of the proſpect.

The river Liffey, which runs through almoſt the centre of the city, from weſt to eaſt, and contributes much to its health, is but ſmall, not being more than one-fifth as wide as the Thames at London, conſequently cannot be ſuppoſed capable of bringing up to the town ſhips of very great burden. Over this river there are ſeven bridges, of which that called Eſſex-bridge is well built, and a new ſtreet is opened from the foot of this bridge to the caſtle, where the lord-lieutenant reſides, and adds greatly to the beauty and utility of the city. A ſpacious and elegant Exchange has been lately erected: it is a handſome ſtructure of white ſtone, richly embelliſhed with ſemi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments. It coſt 40,000l. and was ten years in building. There are two large and elegant theatres here, which are generally well filled, and ſerve as a kind of nurſery to thoſe in London. Here are ſummer entertainments alſo, in imitation of thoſe in London. Adjoining to the lying-in-hoſpital, and belonging to it, is a large ſquare piece of ground encloſed, and three ſides out of four very prettily laid out in walks, plantations of ſhrubs, trees, &c. the fourth being taken up with one of the fronts of the hoſpital. The ground on the ſide oppoſite the hoſpital, being much higher than the reſt, is formed into a fine hanging bank, with a ſlope of near thirty feet, on the top of which is laid out a grand terrace-walk, commanding a fine view of the hoſpital. On the upper ſide of this terrace, and nearly encompaſſed by the groves and ſhrubberies, is built a beautiful orcheſtra. This garden, the moſt agreeable about Dublin, is much frequented in fine ſummer evenings by the genteeleſt company in the city; and is calculated for muſical entertainments ſimilar to Vauxhall gardens near London.

In the neighbourhood of St Stephen's-green, a new and ſpacious ſquare is erected; the houſes are lofty, uniform, and carried on with ſtone as high as the firſt floor, which gives the whole an air of magnificence equal to any thing of the kind in Great Britain, except at Bath. The parliament-houſe is a very elegant ſtructure, and was finiſhed in 1739, at the expence of 40,000l. The front of this ſuperb pile is of the Ionic order, and highly eſteemed for its elegance: the portico, in particular, is perhaps, without a parallel. Nor are the internal parts deſtitute of beauties; and the manner in which the building is lighted, has been much admired. One of the greateſt and moſt laudable undertakings this age can boaſt of, is the erecting a ſtone wall about the breadth of a moderate ſtreet in thickneſs, of a proportional height, and three miles in length, in order to form a pier for ſheltering veſſels in ſtormy weather.

The linen-hall is a fine building, erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of ſuch linen cloths as are brought to Dublin for ſale. It is entirely under the direction of the truſtees for the encouragement of the linen manufacture of Ireland. By this national inſtitution all frauds are prevented in this capital branch of trade, which finds employment for many thouſands of the induſtrious poor, and is the ſource of ſuch vaſt riches to the kingdom.

The barracks are pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence near the river. They conſiſt of four large courts, in which four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horſe, are generally quartered. They are thought to form the largeſt and moſt complete pile of building of that kind in Europe, being capable of containing 3000 foot, and 1000 horſe. The caſtle and city guards are daily relieved from hence.

The greateſt defect of this large and populous city is, the almoſt total want of good inns for the accommodation of ſtrangers and travellers. There are not above two or three that are barely tolerable. This may in ſome meaſure be accounted for by the long and ſometimes dangerous paſſage from Cheſter and Holyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from viſiting that iſland; but as it is now propoſed to make turnpike-roads to Port-Patrick in Scotland, from whence the paſſage is ſhort and ſafe, the roads of Ireland may by this means become more frequented, and good inns opened, eſpecially when the rural beauties of that kingdom, which are wonderfully adapted to delight the imagination of the curious traveller, are more generally known. Dublin is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who has a handſome cathedral, and a chapter conſiſting of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, two archdeacons, and twenty-two prebendaries.

Among other eſtabliſhments for the good of this country, is the Dublin ſociety, which was incorporated in 1750; it has been of conſiderable benefit to the kingdom, by diſtributing premiums to a very conſiderable amount yearly, for encouraging and promoting huſbandry, and other uſeful arts and manufactures. Beſides the ſilk, woollen, and worſted manufactures carried on in that quarter of the ſuburbs, called the Earl of Meath's Liberty, and conſiderably

improved within theſe few years, other branches of uſeful manufacture are eſtabliſhing in different parts of the metropolis; and though the trade in Dublin has heretofore conſiſted chiefly in the importation of foreign commodities, yet now that the reſtriction of its woollen and moſt other goods are removed, it is hoped the daily enlargement of the export trade will cauſe a proportional increaſe of opulence. Dublin is remarkably well ſupplied with proviſions; with coals, chiefly from Scotland and Cumberland, and with water from the Liffey, by machines curiouſly conſtructed at Iſland-bridge on the north, and from a fine reſervoir on the ſouth. The Phœnix Park, at the weſt end of the town, was formerly part of the lands of the monaſtery of St John of Jeruſalem. It is an extenſive royal incloſure, ſeven miles in circuit, diverſified with wooland, champain, and riſing ground, and well ſtocked with deer; and, beſides the Hibernian ſchool, is adorned with the viceroy's beautiful villa, the ſeats of the principal ſecretary, and a few others. Two canals are begun on the oppoſite ſides of the river, with which they are immediately to communicate. The ſouthern navigation extends upwards of forty miles, to the river Barrow, which is navigable; and a branch of this canal is carrying on in a weſtern direction towards the Shannon. The northern canal has alſo for its object to communicate with that great river in the county of Longford, and, by a collateral cut, to unite with the Boyne navigation.

The chief magiſtrate, or mayor of Dublin, as in London, bears the title of Lord during his mayoralty. Every year the lord-mayor and twenty-four companies perambulate the city and its liberties. The rates of hackney coaches and chairs are fixed here, as in London, for the different diſtances, or ſet-downs, as they are called. But here are two ſorts of carriages peculiar to the place. The one is called a noddy, which is nothing more than an old caſt-off one-horſe chaiſe, or chair, with a kind of ſtool fixed on the ſhafts, juſt before the ſeat, on which the driver ſits, over the rump of the horſe, and drives you from one part of the town to another, at ſtated rates. Though this is neither a very ſafe nor eaſy vehicle, yet it is convenient for ſingle perſons, the fare being not much more than half that of a coach; and they will go to any part of the kingdom on reaſonable terms. The other is called a chaiſe-marine, and is little more than a common car with one horſe. They are uſed throughout the kingdom, for the conveyance of people on parties of pleaſure, by the genteel as well as the common, and for the carriage of goods and merchandize of every kind, hay, corn, ſtraw, dung, turf, &c. When uſed for parties of pleaſure, a mat is laid on the level part for the commonalty, and a bed for the genteeler ſort.

Beſides the lying-in-hoſpital already mentioned, here is another for lunatics, erected and endowed by the late celebrated Dr. Swift, a royal hoſpital for invalids, like that at Chelſea, beſides others for patients of every kind. Dublin has eighteen pariſh churches, eight chapels, three for French, and one for Dutch Proteſtants, ſeven Preſbyterian meeting-houſes, three for Methodiſts, two for Quakers, and eighteen Roman Catholic chapels. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are now rebuilding in a more elegant manner. The ſpirit of elegance and improvement has extended itſelf over this whole kingdom, as well as over England and Scotland, ſo that the works of ornament as well as public utility in Ireland, almoſt keep pace with thoſe erecting, great as they are, over the different parts of Great Britain. The number of inhabitants in this city are now computed at about 400,000.

Cork ſtands 124 miles ſouth-weſt of Dublin, contains about 8,600 houſes, and upwards of 70,000 inhabitants, and, next to the capital, is the largeſt, moſt opulent and populous in the kingdom; it is encompaſſed by walls, and likewiſe by the channel of the river Lee, over which it has bridges on all ſides. This city is an epiſcopal ſee, and a place of great trade, ſituated fifteen miles up the river. The large veſſels generally ride at a place called Paſſage; but the ſmaller come up to the quay. Its haven is deep and well ſheltered from all winds. The city, together with its liberties, makes a county, and is governed by a mayor, aldermen, and ſheriffs. It has the moſt trade of any town in the kingdom, particularly in beef, pork, butter, and tallow, of which great quantities are exported to France, Holland, Flanders, and the American provinces; and many ſhips bound to the Weſt Indies, put in here to victual. It formerly had ſeveral abbeys, and has now many handſome public ſtructures, particularly a cathedral, cuſtom-houſe, and two gates, one on the north, and the other on the ſouth. Five miles below Cork, the channel of the river is divided into two by an iſland on which are ſeveral villages. Cork is nearly as large as Briſtol, but infinitely better ſituated as to its navigation. The churches here are the neateſt and moſt ſuperb of any in the kingdom. There is likewiſe a very large and magnificent theatre, in which dramatic performances are exhibited by a company from Dublin, during the ſummer vacation at the capital. Many of the ſtreets are narrow; but the houſes in general are well built.

Waterford is ſituated on the river Sure, and was originally built by certain pirates of Norway. Moſt of the houſes are built with timber, and make a very indifferent appearance; but the cathedral is eſteemed a very noble ſtructure. The city carries on a very conſiderable trade, particularly with England, and ſhips of burden come up cloſe to the quay, which is excellently adapted to the purpoſe of loading and unloading goods. Waterford-haven extends near eight miles and a half from north to ſouth, almoſt in a ſtraight line, the water all the way very deep and clear, and but little incumbered with rocks or ſand. The city and its liberties make a diſtinct county. There is a citadel on the weſt ſide, and on the eaſt a block-houſe and ſtore-houſe. The number of inhabitants is about 35,000.

Limerick is a handſome, populous, commercial, ſtrong place, ſituated on both ſides the Shannon. It is a county of itſelf, and of late years has increaſed prodigiouſly by the addition of handſome ſtreets and quays. The number of inhabitants are upwards of 40,000.

Kinſale is a neat, populous, and ſtrong town, ſtands at the mouth of the river Bann, or Bandon, and is only inferior to Cork in point of trade. Prodigious quantities of proviſions are ſhipped off from hence to Flanders, Holland, France, and the Weſt Indies. The port is barred, but ſhips of any burden may enter the harbour at high water. There is a light-houſe on a point of land called the Old Head of Kinſale, to direct ſhips in the night to the mouth of the river.

Belfaſt, a town in the county of Antrim, and chief ſeaport in the north of Ireland, on the river Lagon, which opens into a bay or arm of the ſea, called Belfaſt Lough, or Carrickfergus Bay. In the year 1791, it contained 3107 houſes, and 18,320 ſouls. It is, with regard to ſize, the fifth, and with reſpect to commerce the fourth, if not the third town in the kingdom. There are upwards of ſeven hundred looms in it, employed in cotton, cambric, ſail-cloth, and linen; theſe manufactures, with others of glaſs, ſugar, and earthen-ware, the exports of linen and proviſions, and a conſiderable trade with the Weſt Indies, have rapidly increaſed its importance.

Galway is ſeated near a noble bay, which, running above thirty miles up into the country from the weſtern ocean, has many harbours and roads on every ſide, and is ſheltered by ſeveral iſles at its mouth, between which are broad and deep channels called ſounds. It is a very neat, ſtrong, and flouriſhing

town, and very advantageouſly ſituated for trade with France, Spain, and the Weſt Indies. The buildings, both public and private, are moſt of them of ſtone, and very elegant. The town is walled, and was once the ſee of a biſhop, but is now within the archbiſhopric of Tuam. It carries on a conſiderable herring and ſalmon fiſhery, in the former of which it employs upwards of 600 boats, and is the only place upon the coaſt (Sligo excepted) that has any foreign trade. The harbour is about two miles from the town, to which it is navigable for veſſels of large burden.

The other towns, though leſs conſiderable, are thus deſcribed: Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus) by ſome deemed the capital of the province, has a good harbour and caſtle, but little commerce. Downpatrick has a flouriſhing linen manufacture. Derry (or Londonderry ſtands in Lough-Foyl, and is a ſtrong little city, having linen manufactures, with ſome commerce and ſhipping.

All this extreme part of Ireland is ſituated ſo near to Scotland, that they are in ſight of each others coaſts.

Donegall (otherwiſe called Tyrconnel) the county town of the ſame name, is a place of ſome trade; as is likewiſe Enniſkilling. The laſt mentioned places, and many more leſs conſiderable ones, are chiefly and moſt induſtriouſly employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen thread, to the great benefit of the whole kingdom.

The places already mentioned are the principal fortifications in the kingdom; but beſides theſe there are Culmore-Fort, Duncannon, Roſs-Caſtle, Charlemont, Maryborough, and Athlone.

The commerce and manufactures of Ireland nearly reſemble thoſe of England. The Iriſh chiefly export linen cloths, cambricks, lawns, hemp, flax, coarſe rugs, frizes, fine ſtuffs, ratteens, yarn, wool, beef, pork, raw and tanned hides, calf ſkins dried, butter, cheeſe, tallow, candles, ox and cow horns, horſe hair, ox hair, ſome lead, copper ore, dried fiſh, ſalmon, herrings, otter ſkins, goat ſkins, and rabbit ſkins.

By the late laws paſſed in favour of the trade of Ireland, it is probable that the exports will be greatly increaſed. The principal manufactures of Ireland, and indeed the chief branch of its commerce, conſiſts of linen cloths, lawns, and cambricks, to which great encouragement is given by the Britiſh legiſlature. The manufacture of ſtuffs in Ireland is exceedingly beautiful, but the importation of them into England is prohibited.

Reſpecting the conſtitution and government of Ireland, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that as Scotland and England are now one and the ſame kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws: ſo England and Ireland are diſtinct kingdoms, and yet in general agree in their laws.

After the conqueſt of Ireland by king Henry II. the laws of England were received and ſworn to by the Iriſh nation, aſſembled at the council of Liſſmore; and as Ireland, thus conquered, planted, and governed, continued dependent on England, it was thought neceſſary that it ſhould conform to, and be governed by, ſuch laws as the ſuperior ſtate thought proper to preſcribe. But this ſtate of dependence being almoſt forgotten, and ready to be diſputed by the Iriſh nation, it was thought proper, ſome years ago, to declare how that matter ſtood: and therefore, by ſtatute 6 Geo. I. it is declared, "that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be ſubordinate to, and dependent upon the imperial crown of Great-Britain, as being inſeparably united thereto; and that the king's majeſty, with the conſent of the lords and commons of Great-Britain, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland."

This determination of the Britiſh parliament was, however, far from being cordially received by the Iriſh nation in general, many of whom diſputed, more than ever, the dependency of Ireland upon the parliament of Great-Britain. After many ſtruggles, perceiving their own ſtrength by means of their volunteer aſſociations, and encouraged and favoured by the ſeveral parties contending for the adminiſtration in England, the Iriſh, in the year 1782, obtained a formal repeal of the above ſtatute; which was conſidered as a renunciation, on the part of Great-Britain, of every claim of legiſlation over Ireland.

The conſtitution of the Iriſh government, as it ſtands at preſent, with regard to diſtributive juſtice, is nearly the ſame with that of England. The chief governor is at preſent generally ſtyled the lord-lieutenant. The appointment of this great officer is entirely in the king's power. His juriſdictions and authority are ample, and, in ſome degree, even royal; but, at the ſame time, they are modified by the terms of his commiſſion; being in ſome reſtrained, and in others enlarged, according to the monarch's pleaſure, or the exigencies of the times. The lord-lieutenant is uſually appointed for three years, but is often continued much longer. On his entering upon this great office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council-chamber; and, having taken the uſual oath before the lord-chancellor, the ſword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is ſeated in the chair of ſtate, attended by the lord-chancellor, the members of the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a ſerjeant at arms, and other officers of ſtate. He has a council compoſed of the great officers of the crown, viz. the chancellor, treaſurer, and ſuch of the archbiſhops, earls, biſhops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majeſty is pleaſed to appoint.

The parliament in Ireland, like that of England, is the ſupreme court, convened by the king's writ, and prorogued or diſſolved at his pleaſure. Till very lately they were continued for the king's life; but, ſince the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, Iriſh parliaments have been rendered octennial. It conſiſts, as in England, of a houſe of lords and commons, among the former of which are many Engliſh peers, and commons of Great-Britain; ſome few are Papiſts, who, being properly qualified, are allowed to ſit in this aſſembly; the number of commoners amount to about 300. The laws made by the parliament of Ireland are ſent to England for the royal approbation, when, if approved of by the king and council, they paſs the great ſeal of England, and are returned. Thus this parliament has power to make laws which are binding to the kingdom, raiſe taxes for the ſupport of government, and for the maintenance of an army of 16,000 men, who are placed in convenient barracks in different parts of the kingdom. The repreſentation of the people in the ſenate of Ireland, is ſimilar to that of England.

For the regular diſtribution of juſtice, there are in Ireland four terms held annually for the deciſion of cauſes; and four courts of juſtice, the chancery, king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high ſheriffs of the ſeveral counties were formerly choſen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord-lieutenant. From this general view, it appears that the civil and eccleſiaſtical inſtitutions are almoſt the ſame in Ireland as in England.

The revenues of Ireland are computed to exceed half a million ſterling, near 70,000l. of which is granted in penſions. The revenues are of two ſorts, public and private. The public revenues of that kingdom ariſe from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the truſtee, for applying it to particular uſes: but the private revenue is the unlimited property of the crown, and ariſes from the ancient demeſne lands; from forfeitures for treaſon and felony; priſage of wines; light-houſe duties; and a ſmall part of the caſual revenue, not granted by parliament. Beſides theſe, large ſums are annually raiſed by the legiſlature for the noble purpoſes of

improving their country. To their patriotic ſpirit the prodigious works carried on in that kingdom owe their origin. They have already conſtructed ſeveral noble canals for the benefit of inland navigation; built bridges, churches, and other public ſtructures; made roads; given premiums for improvements in huſbandry, and other uſeful arts; and largely aſſiſted the uſeful deſign of Proteſtant working-ſchools. At the ſame time it muſt be obſerved, that the money neceſſary for theſe, and many other noble purpoſes, is raiſed in ſo eaſy a method, that the people are hardly ſenſible of the impoſt; no taxes are laid on their land, and few on any of the branches of their trade; the foreign commerce is not clogged with innumerable duties, nor the neceſſaries of life burdened with heavy taxes. In conſequence of this, labour is cheap, and their manufactures are ſent to market at a moderate price. They are in no fear of being underſold by foreigners, nor of not being able to ſupply the orders of their correſpondents. In a country like this, manufactures muſt flouriſh; and it will give pleaſure to every ingenuous mind to know, that the linens of Ireland are not excelled by any manufactured in Europe.

The coins of Ireland, are the ſame as thoſe uſed in England, with this difference only, that one of our ſhillings paſſes there for thirteen-pence, other pieces in the ſame proportion.

The land-forces maintained in Ireland of late, has been very conſiderable, which has been gradually increaſed by the many volunteer aſſociated companies which have been lately formed in that kingdom. The moſt uncultivated parts contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little knowledge either of divine or human laws, conſequently regular forces are abſolutely neceſſary for keeping them in order; though it muſt be confeſſed that many of the common people of Ireland have laboured under great oppreſſions.

HISTORY OF IRELAND.

The hiſtory of this kingdom, has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may very juſtly be diſtinguiſhed into the legendary and authentic. Some of their writers have preſented us with a ſucceſſion of wiſe and learned kings, commencing a few years after the deluge: others have given an uninterrupted ſucceſſion of 197 kings of Ireland, to the year 1170; and even the more moderate Iriſh antiquaries carry their hiſtory up to about 500 years before the Chriſtian æra. But, as our limits will not petmit us to enlarge on the dark and conteſted parts of their hiſtory, we ſhall only obſerve, that it was about the middle of the fifth century that St. Patrick introduced the knowledge of letters, and planted Chriſtianity in Ireland. The ſoil was very friendly to religion, and afforded the monks at once a ſafe retreat, and ſufficient leiſure to purſue their ſtudies. The invaſion of the Danes and Norwegians, about the ſeventh century, deſtroyed the peace of this aſylum; and it is highly probable, that the greateſt part of the Iriſh coaſts were afterwards peopled by the Normans and Danes, commonly called Eaſterlings, who built the cities of Dublin, Limerick, Waterford, Wexford, and Cork, and reduced as much of the adjacent country as was convenient for their purpoſe. But, as the reſt of the kingdom offered nothing worth their contending for, the native Iriſh living moſtly in caverns, and a few wretched houſes made of hurdles, and covered with ſtraw and ruſhes, the Eaſterlings ſeemed ſatisfied with the ſea-coaſt, without attempting to extend their conqueſt to the inland parts of the country. Their numbers were indeed too inconſiderable to people the iſland, their manners too barbarous to civilize it, and their neceſſities too preſſing to be gratified with ſo unavailing an acquiſition.

It is, however, probable that theſe foreigners formed alliances with the natives, and reſembled them in their manners. The fertility of the ſoil, the temperature of the air, the convenience of its harbours, which to other nations are the ſource of riches, were to the Iriſh matters of reproach. The faireſt bleſſings of nature lav unimproved by ignorance, nouriſhed by pride. Their healthful vigour was impaired by inactivity, and they ſeem to have been equally void of the virtues as well as the vices of mankind.

There were five kings in Ireland, in the time of Henry II. of England. This prince, provoked at their piracies, and the aſſiſtance they gave his enemies, determined to ſubdue them. Accordingly, he applied to Adrian IV. who then filled St. Peter's chair, and obtained an ample bull for the conqueſt of Ireland. Soon after the pope's conſent was obtained, a fair pretence offered for carrying this deſign into execution. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinſter, one of the moſt oppreſſive tyrants Ireland ever knew, invaded the territories of all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of O'Ruork, king of Meath. Fired with this indignity, the injured prince formed an alliance with Roderic, king of Connaught, and Dermot was driven out of Ireland. Thus diſtreſſed, he paſſed over to England, in order to implore the protection of Henry II. This event happened in the year 1167, while the Engliſh monarch was in Normandy, and prevented from aſſiſting Dermot in perſon. He, however recommended the cauſe of the Iriſh prince to ſeveral of his barons, particularly to Strongbow earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Morris Fitz-Gerald. Strongbow was a nobleman of unbounded ambition and large poſſeſſions in Wales, where his tenants were numerous, and the ſituation of his eſtate very convenient for paſſing over to Ireland. Strongbow therefore readily undertook to aſſiſt Dermot in the recovery of his country, on condition that the latter ſhould give him his daughter in marriage, and leave him heir to his dominions. It was alſo agreed that Dermot ſhould cede for ever to Fitz-Stephens and Fitz-Gerald the town of Wexford, with the two hundreds adjoining. The treaty being finiſhed, the adventurers landed in Ireland, at the head of a ſmall body of forces, and ſoon reduced the city of Wexford; and the city of Dublin afterwards ſurrendered upon capitulation, by which it was agreed that the city ſhould continue in the poſſeſſion of Haſculf, the Daniſh prince.

Theſe ſucceſſes, which ought to have united, ſerved to divide the Iriſh. Diſſenſions, inſpired by revenge, envy, and avarice, prevailed among the chiefs, and Ireland fell a prey to the Engliſh; after a much leſs glorious ſtruggle indeed, but by the ſame vices and miſtakes which had before reduced Britain to a Roman province. Strongbow took the city of Waterford, drove the Daniſh prince from Dublin, and completed his marriage with Eve, the daughter of Dermot.

Henry, alarmed at theſe unexpected conqueſts in Ireland, and the death of Dermot, which happened ſoon after, reſolved to viſit that iſland in perſon. Accordingly he embarked his forces at Pembroke in Wales, on board 400 tranſports, in the autumn of the year 1171, and the next day landed in Ireland, about five miles from Waterford. All the Iriſh princes, except the king of Ulſter, immediately repaired to Henry, and ſubmitted to his government. Thus the king of England became maſter of Ireland, without ſhedding a drop of human blood, and in much leſs time than was ſufficient to travel over it. Henry kept a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the eſtates of Ireland among his followers, ſettled a civil adminiſtration

nearly

nearly reſembling that of England, planted a colony from Briſtol in that capital, and returned to England.

A few years after, Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his ſon John, who perſonally viſited that iſland in 1185, attended by a company of Norman knights. But John and his giddy courtiers made a very ill uſe of their powers, and, by their imprudent behaviour, incurred the hatred of the people. Richard I. was too much taken up with the cruſades to pay any great regard to the affairs of Ireland. King John, however, after his acceſſion to the crown, endeavoured to make amends for his former behaviour to the Iriſh. He enlarged his father's plan, and laboured to eſtabliſh a ſcheme of policy in that kingdom, upon the ſame footing as in England. For this purpoſe, he ordered ſterling money to be ſtruck at Dublin, according to the Engliſh ſtandard: he iſſued a proclamation to render that money current in both kingdoms: he divided the iſland into counties; appointed ſheriffs; ordered a fair copy of the Engliſh laws to be engroſſed, and depoſited in the exchequer at Dublin: he commanded the obſervance of the Engliſh laws and cuſtoms; erected courts of law on the ſame plan, and confined their proceedings to the ſame rules as thoſe in England. But, notwithſtanding theſe noble attempts to civilize the Iriſh, they were far from being ſufficient to anſwer the intended purpoſe: the original inhabitants in many parts of the iſland were ſtill governed by their own laws, and refuſed to conform to the cuſtoms of the Engliſh, or profit by their improvements. Their prejudices were greatly increaſed during the unſettled reign of Henry III. which gave them a very mean opinion of the Engliſh government; but during the life of his ſon Edward I. we have no account of their diſturbing the peace of their country.

During the reign of Robert Bruce in Scotland, the Iriſh ſeemed willing to transfer their allegiance from the Engliſh to the Scottiſh crown, and Bruce ſent his brother Edward, at the head of a conſiderable army, to aſſiſt them againſt the Engliſh. Edward defeated the enemy in ſeveral engagements, was actually crowned king at Dundalk, but miſcarried in his attempt upon Dublin, and was afterwards defeated and ſlain in battle by Birmingham, the Engliſh governor. After this deciſive action, the Iriſh ſubmitted, and Edward II. in order to gain their confidence, governed them with great moderation, and paſſed ſeveral excellent acts for the benefit of their country.

Several of the ſucceeding kings of England purſued the ſame conduct with ſucceſs; and many attempts were made to reduce the inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England, but without ſucceſs. Henry VIII. perſuaded that the title of king would have a more powerful effect on the Iriſh than that of lord, paſſed an act of parliament, by virtue of which Ireland was erected into a kingdom. He was not deceived: the Iriſh, who had ſo long refuſed to acknowledge the authority to a lord, very readily paid a perfect ſubmiſſion to a king. Even O'Neil, who pretended to be the ſucceſſor to the laſt paramount king of Ireland, ſwore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The dominion of the Engliſh over Ireland was however ſtill little more than nominal. The Iriſh princes and nobles, divided among themſelves, readily paid the exterior marks of obedience to a power they were not able to reſiſt; but, as no durable force was ever kept on foot to retain them to their duty, they often relapſed into their former ſtate of independence.

During the reign of queen Mary, the Iriſh ſeem to have been very quiet; but they proved thorns in the ſide of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual diſputes ſhe had with the Roman Catholics, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneaſineſs; and the pope and the houſe of Auſtria always found new reſources againſt her in Ireland. The Spaniards poſſeſſed themſelves of Kinſale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and defeated her favourite general, the earl of Eſſex, are well known. But what Eſſex did not, perhaps could not perform, was attempted with ſucceſs by lord Mountjoy, the firſt Engliſhman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by whoſe ſuggeſtions and aſſiſtance the flames of rebellion were kept up in that kingdom. Mountjoy totally defeated the combined forces of the Spaniards and Iriſh before Kinſale, and took Tyrone priſoner. But this happening at a time when Elizabeth was under dreadful apprehenſions from the Popiſh intereſt in Ireland, Tyrone was pardoned, in 1602, though ſhe had always intended to bring him to condign puniſhment.

The iſland was now entirely reduced to obedience; but a more difficult taſk ſtill remained, to civilize the inhabitants, to reconcile them to laws and induſtry, and to render their ſubjection durable and uſeful to the crown of England. James I. applied himſelf aſſiduouſly to this troubleſome, but neceſſary buſineſs. He formed a ſteady, regular, well-concerted plan; and in the ſpace of nine years made greater advances towards the reformation of that kingdom than had been done during the interval ſince the conqueſt was attempted. But ſuch was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to ſeize the caſtle of Dublin; but their plot being diſcovered, their chiefs fled beyond the ſeas. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608 they inſtigated Sir Calim O'Dagharty to a freſh rebellion, by promiſing him ſpeedy ſupplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was ſlain in the diſpute, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders of the Iriſh rebels, which paſſed in the reigns of Elizabeth and James, veſted in the crown 511,465 acres in the counties of Donnegal, Tyrone, Coleraine, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that Proteſtant plantation in the north of Ireland, which now, from the moſt rebellious province in the kingdom, is the moſt quiet and reformed. But thoſe prodigious attainders, though apparently juſt and neceſſary, operated fatally for the Engliſh in the reign of Charles I. The Iriſh Roman Catholics in general were influenced by their prieſts, to hope not only to repoſſeſs the lands of their forefathers, but to reſtore the Popiſh religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and moſt deteſtable conſpiracy for maſſacreing all the Engliſh Proteſtants in that kingdom. This infernal ſcheme was originally formed in the year 1641 by Roger More, a gentleman of narrow fortune, but deſcended from an ancient Iriſh family, and much celebrated among his countrymen for valour and capacity. Authors are not agreed with regard to the numbers who fell a ſacrifice to wanton barbarity, and frantic zeal.

However, the Iriſh did not long eſcape unpuniſhed; Cromwell retaliated the cruelties they had exerciſed on the innocent and peaceable Engliſh, on themſelves, broke their force and courage; and Ireton, his ſucceſſor, totally ſubdued the iſland. Five millions of acres, forfeited either by the Popiſh rebellion, or by their adherents to Charles I. were divided partly among the adventurers, who had advanced money to the parliament, and partly among the Engliſh ſoldiers, who had arrears due to them. Examples of a more ſudden and violent change of property are ſcarce to be found in hiſtory. The Iriſh having lately ſmarted ſo ſeverely, were quiet during the reign of Charles II. but ſoon after the acceſſion of James II. to the crown of England, the moſt violent and precipitate methods were taken to reſtore the Popiſh religion in Ireland. Tyrconnel was veſted with full authority, and carried over with him as chancellor, one Fitton, a perſon lately convicted of forgery and other crimes, but who compenſated for all his enormities by a headſtrong zeal for the

the Romiſh religion. The Catholics were alſo put in poſſeſſion of the council-table, of the courts of judicature, and of the bench of juſtices. The Proteſtant members were expelled from the parliament, and their places ſupplied by Catholics; it is therefore no wonder that this bigoted prince found ſhelter in Ireland, after he had abdicated the throne of England, and was even induced to hope that, by the aſſiſtance of his Popiſh ſubjects, he ſhould be able to recover the throne of his anceſtors. But the battle of the Boyne, where his whole army was totally defeated by king William, deſtroyed all theſe flattering ideas, and he was obliged to have recourſe to a foreign prince for protection.

Moſt of the large eſtates in Ireland were forfeited in conſequence of this defeat; and had the government diſpoſed of all the lands which fell into their hands, the greater part of Ireland muſt have been peopled with Britiſh ſubjects; but it was thought more prudent to endeavour to conciliate the minds of the Iriſh, than drive them to deſpair. It was alſo thought proper to preſerve a proper balance of intereſt between the Catholics and Proteſtants in that kingdom; and accordingly, after the friends to the Revolution and the Proteſtant religion were ſufficiently gratified out of the forfeited eſtates, the inſurgents, on a proper ſubmiſſion, were pardoned, and ſuffered to enjoy their fortunes, and the protection of the Britiſh government.

Theſe prudent and lenient meaſures have been attended with the deſired ſucceſs. Ireland is now a very reſpectable kingdom. Manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of linen, are carried on with ſpirit and advantage. Improvements are daily made in agriculture, and other uſeful arts. The inhabitants know their own intereſt and importance. The Catholics are greatly leſſened with regard to numbers; and the rays of learning have, in a great meaſure, diſperſed the clouds of ignorance, and diſſipated the fury of blind enthuſiaſtic zeal. Some acts of parliament have been made in their favour; ſalted beef, butter, pork, tallow, and other neceſſaries of life, are occaſionally permitted to be exported from Ireland into any of the ports of Great Britain. But notwithſtanding ſome laws and regulations had taken place in favour of Ireland, the inhabitants of that country were ſtill found to labour under conſiderable grievances, in conſequence of ſundry moſt unjuſt and unjudicious reſtraints of the parliament of England reſpecting their trade. In October 1779, both houſes of the Iriſh parliament preſented addreſſes to his majeſty, in which they declared that nothing but granting Ireland a free trade could ſave it from ruin.

The members of the oppoſition, in the Engliſh parliament very ſtrongly repreſented the neceſſity of an immediate attention to the complaints of the people of Ireland, and of a compliance with their wiſhes. The arguments on this ſide the queſtion were alſo enforced by the accounts which came from Ireland, that the volunteer aſſociations in that kingdom amounted to 40,000 men, unpaid, ſelf-appointed, and independent of government, well armed and accoutred, daily improving in diſcipline, and their number afterwards increaſed to 80,000. The Britiſh miniſtry appeared to be for ſome time undetermined what part they ſhould act in this important buſineſs: but the remembrance of the fatal effects of rigorous meaſures reſpecting America, and the very critical ſituation of Great Britain, at length induced the Britiſh miniſtry to bring in ſuch bills as were calculated to afford commercial relief to the people of Ireland. Laws were accordingly paſſed, by which all thoſe acts were repealed which had prohibited the exportation of woollen manufactures from Ireland, and other acts by which the trade of that kingdom to foreign countries had been reſtrained: and it was likewiſe enacted, that a trade between Ireland and the Britiſh colonies in America and the Weſt Indies, and the Britiſh ſettlements on the coaſts of Africa, ſhould be allowed to be carried on in the ſame manner, and ſubject to ſimilar regulations and reſtrictions, with that carried on between Great Britain and the ſaid colonies and ſettlements. Theſe laws in favour of Ireland were received with much joy and exultation in that kingdom.

The commercial advantages afforded the Iriſh by the acts above mentioned, have greatly contributed to promote the proſperity of their country; and, by the act repealing the ſtatute of 6 Geo. I. they are fully and completely emancipated from the juriſdiction of the parliament of Great Britain: the appellant juriſdiction of the Britiſh houſe of peers in Iriſh cauſes was likewiſe given up. In the year 1783, the government, the nobility, and the people of Ireland, vied with each other in countenancing and giving an aſylum to many families of the Genoeſe, who were baniſhed from their own country, and to others who voluntarily exiled themſelves for the cauſe of liberty, not willing to ſubmit to an ariſtocracy of their own citizens, ſupported by the ſwords of France and Sardinia. A large tract of land in the county of Waterford was allotted for their reception, a town was marked out, entitled New Geneva, and a ſum of money granted for erecting the neceſſary buildings. Theſe preparations for their accommodation were, however, rendered ultimately uſeleſs, by ſome miſunderſtanding (not fully comprehended) which aroſe between the parties; and the ſcheme accordingly fell to the ground.

The parliament of Ireland has extended liberal indulgences to the Roman Catholics of that kingdom, by eſtabliſhing the legality of intermarriage between them and the Proteſtants, by admitting them to the profeſſion of the law, and the benefit of education, and by removing all obſtructions upon their induſtry in trade and manufactures. A reciprocal preference in the corn trade with Britain has been eſtabliſhed. Further progreſs has been made in checking the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors; and ſome wiſe inſtitutions have been ordained for the regulation of charitable foundations.

In the year 1793, in conſequence of the conceſſions of government, a bill paſſed the legiſlature, by which the Roman Catholics, being freeholders, are entitled to vote for members to ſerve in parliament.

A ſecret committee of the houſe of lords was formed, to inquire into the riſe and progreſs of that ſeditious ſpirit which appeared in different parts of that kingdom. After ſome time ſpent in the inquiry, the ſecret committee made a report of their diſcoveries, in which they declared that ſeditious clubs and meetings had been held in various parts of the kingdom, and that ſeveral of theſe advocates for liberty had aſſumed the national cockade, appeared in arms, and committed various inſults upon the eſtabliſhed modes of government. The lord-lieutenant and council, therefore, iſſued a proclamation grounded on the above report, directing the magiſtrates and peace officers of the town of Belfaſt and the diſtricts adjacent to diſperſe all ſeditious and unlawful armed aſſemblies, and, if reſiſted, to apprehend the offenders.

The embodying of the militia in this kingdom, in the ſame year, created riots and diſturbances in different places. At Caſtle-reah, in particular, on the 28th of June 1793, ſeveral perſons were killed, and the mob withſtood a party of the military for ſeveral hours. Subſequent to that time, there have been various meetings of rioters and armed men, in the other parts of the kingdom; and, in attempting to quell them by the aſſiſtance of the military, many have been killed on both ſides.

The government of Ireland, apprehenſive of the conſequences, that might attend popular meetings, have paſſed into a law an act "to prevent illegal aſſemblies of the people.

Notwithſtanding the Catholics of Ireland had been reſtored,

reſtored, in ſome meaſure, to their civil rights, by the conceſſion of the elective franchiſe, it does not appear that either their own leaders or their parliamentary adherents were ſatisfied with what had been granted, or were likely to be contented with leſs than a total repeal of all remaining diſqualifications; and when in the beginning of the year 1795, earl Fitzwilliam was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, after the acceſſion of the Portland party to adminiſtration, they conſidered the point in diſpute as abſolutely conceded by the miniſtry. A committee was therefore appointed to bring forward a petition to parliament for a repeal of all remaining diſqualifications. Notice of this his lordſhip tranſmitted to the miniſter, ſtating at the ſame time his own opinion of the abſolute neceſſity of conceſſion, as a meaſure not only wiſe but eſſential to the public tranquility. To this no anſwer was received, and on the 12th of February Mr. Grattan moved for leave to bring in a bill for the further relief of his majeſty's ſubjects profeſſing the Roman Catholic religion; and after a feeble oppoſition, leave was given. By the intrigues, however, of another political party, at the head of which was Mr. Beresford, a gentleman who had united in his own perſon, or in that of his ſon, the important and diſcordant offices of miniſter—commiſſioner of the treaſury—of revenue—counſel to the commiſſioners—ſtore-keeper and banker—the meaſure was defeated, and lord Fitzwilliam ſuddenly recalled. His lordſhip left Dublin for England on the 25th of March, which day was obſerved in that city as a day of general mourning: the ſhops were ſhut; no buſineſs was tranſacted; and the citizens appeared in deep mourning. In College-green a number of reſpectable gentlemen, dreſſed in black, took the horſes from his excellency's carriage, and drew it to the water-ſide. His lordſhip wiſhed, as uſual on ſuch occaſions, to diſtribute money; but, with the nobleſt enthuſiaſm, the offer was rejected, even by a mob. The military had been ordered out, in expectation of ſome diſturbance; but nothing appeared among the populace but the ſerious emotions of ſorrow, and the utmoſt order and decorum.

Earl Camden, who was appointed to ſucceed his lordſhip, arrived in Dublin on the 31ſt of March, to aſſume the government. Some diſturbances took place on the evening of his arrival, but they were ſoon quelled by the interpoſition of the military. A ſyſtem of coercive meaſures has ſince been principally relied on; but theſe meaſures have only tended to render neceſſary the adoption of others ſtill more rigorous. The ſituation of the country, and the progreſs made by the principles of thoſe who ſtyle themſelves *United Iriſhmen*, have inſpired government with the greateſt alarm.

Their numbers increaſed to ſuch an alarming degree, that the whole kingdom was put under martial law. Several actions took place, in which the king's troops were, for the moſt part, ſucceſsful, which rather increaſed the number of the diſaffected, and was the occaſion of the moſt ſhocking outrages; inſomuch, that in the month of May, the Queen's County, as well as the County of Tipperary, was almoſt totally deſerted; and their emigration had come to ſuch a height, that in the latter county, a proclamation was iſſued, charging perſons with cowardice for leaving their houſes, and deſiring ſuch emigrants to return within eight and forty hours.

The king's troops, aided by the yeomen of Ireland, having in a great degree repreſſed the audacity of the rebels, their leaders perceived that their cauſe was loſing ground, and that they muſt either hazard an inſurrection or give up their hopes. The arreſt of the Leinſter provincial committee, and ſeveral other leading members of the union, on the ſame day, tended ſo much to diſcloſe the guilt of the party, and to weaken their organization, that the conſpirators reſolved, without delay, to make one deſperate effort. The outline of the plan was to ſurprize Dublin, the camp at Lehaunſtown, and the artillery ſtation at Chapelizod, on the ſame night. The inſurrection being commenced near the metropolis, (the ſignal for announcing which, was to be the detention of the mail coaches) it was expected that the north and ſouth would alſo riſe. The lord-lieutenant was to be ſeized, and all the privy council, ſeparately in their own houſes; and the night of the 23d of May was the time appointed for the execution of this horrid deſign.

The government, perfectly informed of the purpoſe of the conſpirators, cauſed, on the 19th and 21ſt of May, ſeveral of the leaders to be apprehended; and, on the 22d, the lord-lieutenant ſent a meſſage to both houſes of parliament, advertiſing them of the intended inſurrection. Notwithſtanding many military precautions, it took place in the neighbourhood of Dublin, on the night appointed, and every poſſible effort was made by the diſaffected within the town, to co-operate with thoſe without; the party in the provinces uſing, at the ſame time, every exertion, to bring the people there into action.

The meaſures taken in the metropolis prevented any movement whatever; but acts of open rebellion were committed in the counties of Dublin, Meath, and Kildare. About half paſt two, on the morning of the 24th, a regular attack was made by a rebel force upon the town of Naas, where lord Gosford commanded, with part of the Armagh militia, and detachments of the 4th dragoon guards, and Ancient Britons. The rebels conſiſted of about 1000 men, armed with muſquets and pikes, and they made their attack with great regularity, but were repulſed by the Armagh militia, with the loſs of near 200 men: they made another unſucceſsful attack the next day, and had again about the ſame number ſlain. There was alſo an attack made on a party of the 9th dragoons, which ſuffered much, but in the courſe of the day, general Dundas was enabled to come up with a conſiderable body of the rebels, near the hills of Kilcullen, where they were entirely routed, with very conſiderable loſs. There were, likewiſe, ſeveral bodies collected in the courſe of the night, in different parts near Dublin, which were attacked by the Rathfarnham cavalry, and by a detachment of the 5th dragoons, and diſperſed with ſome loſs; and ſome priſoners and horſes were taken. A rebel party, however, aſſembled at the border of the county of Dublin, near Dunboyne, overpowered ſome conſtables, and afterwards took the baggage of two companies, guarded by a ſmall party of fencibles; and, having committed many outrages, ſeveral of them were killed, but as the body remained undiſperſed, the lord-lieutenant, with the advice of the privy council, iſſued a proclamation, directing, that all perſons, acting, aiding, or in any manner aſſiſting in the rebellion, ſhould be puniſhed according to martial law.

Notwithſtanding all the meaſures adopted by government, the inſurgents appeared in the neighbourhood of Baltinglaſs, to the amount of 4 or 500; a party of the Antrim militia and of the 9th dragoons were ſent to attack them; and, at the ſame inſtant that theſe troops were advancing upon them, in the town of Stratford on Slaney, captain Stratford appeared at the other end of the town, with part of his corps, ſo that the rebels being attacked on both ſides, were compleatly routed, having between 100 and 200 killed, beſides many wounded, who made their eſcape. Near Hacketſtown 300 were left dead on the field, and about 400 to the north of Dublin, on the hill of Taragh, among whom was the commanding officer, in his uniform.

In the beginning of June the inſurrection broke out in great force in the county of Wexford, and the rebels aſſembled in ſuch numbers, that they cut off a party of 100 men of the North Cork militia, who

were ſent to meet them. Their number was ſtated to be at leaſt 4000, and many of them mounted. Colonel Campbell, at Athy, had partial engagements with the rebels; and many of them were defeated at Monaſtereven and Carlow, with very conſiderable loſs. Near Kildare 300, and near Newton-Ards 500 were ſlain, who had deſcended frem Vinegar Hill; and theſe ſucceſſes were followed by a victory obtained over them by Sir James Duff, who with infinite alacrity had opened the communication with Limerick, (that with Cork being already open) and arriving at Kildare, while the rebels had poſſeſſion of it, completely routed them, and took poſſeſſion of the place.

A proclamation was ſent forth at the ſame time by the principal Roman Catholic inhabitants, exhorting the deluded people to return to their duty and allegiance; and declaring their determination to ſtand or fall with the preſent exiſting conſtitution; in conſequence of which, the rebels on the Curragh of Kildare laid down their arms, and delivered up a number of their leaders.

Early on the 8th of June, major general Lake was attacked by the rebels in his poſition at New Roſs, and with great impetuoſity; but after a conteſt of ſeveral hours, they were completely repulſed, with a prodigious loſs. Lord Mountjoy fell in the beginning of the conteſt.

The inſurrection about this time broke out in the county of Antrim, having for its object the ſeizure of the magiſtrates, who were to aſſemble on a certain day, in the town of Antrim, of which they had taken poſſeſſion. But they were fruſtrated in their deſign; ſome of the magiſtrates having retired from the place, and others being officers of yeomanry, on permanent duty, did not attend the meeting. Major general Nugent, commander in chief in that quarter, ordered a body of troops to march with the utmoſt diſpatch through Liſburn to Antrim, which having been re-inforced by a party of the Monaghan militia, and the 22d dragoons, together with the Belfaſt yeomanry cavalry, made an attack upon the town; but being fired upon from the windows of the houſes, were obliged to retreat, with the loſs of three officers, and many privates killed and wounded, as well as two field pieces taken by the rebels. Colonel Clavering, on his arrival near Antrim, finding the rebels pouring into the town in great force, very judiciouſly took poſt on a hill, on the Liſburn ſide, and repreſented his ſituation to major general Goldie. In the mean time colonel Durham, with his whole detachment, proceeded within half a mile of Antrim; and after a cannonade of near an hour, drove the inſurgents completely out of the town, and retook the two field pieces, of which they had lately obtained poſſeſſion. The king's troops, in theſe rencounters, ſuſtained conſiderable loſs in killed and wounded, among whom were ſome officers of diſtinction; and particularly lord viſcount O'Neil, governor of the county, who died of a wound with a pike, from his own park-keeper.

A few days after their expulſion from Antrim, the inſurgents quarrelled amongſt themſelves, and out of 2000 who were in arms, the commander was able to retain with him only fifty; the reſt, partly through the perſuaſion of a priſoner, having left the camp, deſtroyed their arms, and declared that they never would again carry an offenſive weapon againſt his majeſty or his loyal ſubjects.

About the time when the laſt engagement happened in the north, general Needham was oppoſed to a great body of rebels, near Arklow. On the 10th of June they made their approach in two large columns, while the whole intermediate ſpace, embracing his entire front, was crowded by a rabble, armed with pikes and muſquets, and bearing down without any regular order. The general's poſition was very ſtrong: as ſoon as they were come within a ſhort diſtance, he opened a heavy fire of grape ſhot, which continued for two hours and a half, when the enemy fled in all directions.

Soon after, about forty rebels were killed at Ballinahinch, in lord Moira's wood, as they were beginning to aſſemble; and on the 12th of June, about 400 fell, in an action, in the ſame place. Their force, on the preceding day was ſuppoſed to be about 5000, but as many were preſſed into the ſervice, and were entirely unarmed, it was inferred, with great probability, that the number engaged was much leſs conſiderable.

On the 20th of June, marquis Cornwallis arrived in Dublin, in the capacity both of commander in chief, and lord-lieutenant of Ireland. The public virtues of this diſtinguiſhed nobleman; his military talents, and alſo the peculiar moderation and mildneſs of his character, are too well known to need any comment.

The following day, the great rebel camp at Vinegar Hill, near Wexford, was attacked by the king's troops, under colonel Moore, and vanquiſhed, after an action of an hour and a half. The rebels fled with precipitation, and left ſeveral pieces of cannon behind them. Colonel Moore, immediately after this victory, puſhed on to Wexford, which had been in poſſeſſion of the rebels, and entered it ſo opportunely, as to prevent its being laid in aſhes, and hinder the maſſacre of the remaining priſoners, by the rebels, who, on the preceding day, had murdered above ſeventy of them in cold blood, and thrown their bodies over the bridge.

The rebels having fled from Wexford, on the approach of colonel Moore, ſent a propoſal to general Lake, commander in chief of the king's troops, importing, that they were ready to lay down their arms, and return to their allegiance, provided their perſons and properties were duly guaranteed, on which conditions, they would uſe every influence in their power, to induce the people of the country to return to their allegiance. To this propoſal general Lake replied, that he could not attend to any terms offered by rebels in arms againſt their ſovereign; but, to the deluded multitude, he promiſed pardon, on delivering into his hands their leaders, ſurrendering their arms, and returning with ſincerity to their allegiance.

Various actions took place from this period to the cloſe of Auguſt, in ſome of which the king's troops experienced partial defeats, and in theſe they were in general taken by ſurpriſe; but, the rebel party, upon the whole, were routed, with great loſs in killed and wounded, inſomuch, that the leaders of the conſpiracy, ſo entirely deſpaired of their cauſe, that many of them conſented to make a full and voluntary confeſſion of all the circumſtances within their knowledge; and, it is from their own account, given on oath, that we are enabled to ſtate the riſe and progreſs of this horrid rebellion, and the correſpondence carried on with France. On condition of the full diſcloſure of what they knew, they were permitted to emigrate to ſome country to be agreed upon between them and government, giving ſecurity never to return to Ireland without permiſſion of his majeſty's miniſters; and thus this formidable rebellion was quelled in a conſiderable degree.

Much intereſting and important information was communicated by the principal leaders; as it appeared from the examinations of Dr. M'Nevin, Mr. Arthur O'Connor, Mr. Neilſon, and counſellor Emmet, that an executive directory of the Iriſh union was inſtituted at an early period of the diſcontents (1791,) of which lord Edward Fitzgerald, Dr. M'Nevin, Arthur O'Connor, and Mr. Emmet, were members; that in the year 1796, lord Edward Fitzgerald and Mr. Arthur O'Connor, ſet out for Paris, in order to negotiate with the executive directory of France, for the invaſion of Ireland by a French force; but that, fearful of a diſcovery of their intention, they proceeded no farther than the Rhine, where they

they met general Hoche, to whom they communicated the object of their miſſion; that that officer formed arrangements with the executive directory; that a fleet, with general Hoche and a formidable army on board, was, in conſequence of thoſe arrangements, ſent to Ireland in the month of December following; but not being expected by the directory of the union, till the ſpring of 1797, the people were not prepared to receive the enemy when they arrived at Bantry Bay. That Dr. M'Nevin afterwards went to France on a ſimilar miſſion, and ſucceeded in obtaining a promiſe from the directory, that another attempt ſhould be made; that a fleet was accordingly fitted out in the Texel, and ſeveral thouſand men embarked on board of it, for the purpoſe of invading Ireland; that the troops, after remaining ſome time on board, were diſembarked; that the fleet, which was under the command of admiral De Winter, put to ſea, without the troops (probably for the purpoſe of giving battle to the Britiſh ſquadron, and with the hope of clearing the way for the tranſports to come out;) and that the reſult was, the glorious victory atchieved by admiral Duncan on the memorable 11th of October. It appears alſo from the report, that the real object of the union had all along been the accompliſhment of a revolution, and the ſeparation of Ireland from Great-Britain; that parliamentary reform and catholic emancipation had been uſed as mere deluſive veils to cover their deſigns; that the French directory, between whom and the directory of the union a regular correſpondence for ſome time had been kept up, on being applied to for a loan to enable the promoters of the rebellion to effect the propoſed revolution, refuſed to comply with the requeſt, unleſs they were permitted to ſend an army of ſufficient force to take poſſeſſion of the country as a conqueſt to their arms; and, finally, that there was at that moment, an agent from the united Iriſhmen reſiding in Paris. Theſe were the leading points of the report of the ſecret committee, and which left no doubt of the real deſigns of the chief actors concerned in the rebellion.

In the month of September, about a thouſand French troops and general Humbert landed in Ireland, and ſucceeded ſo far as to take poſſeſſion of the town of Killala, and the palace of the venerable biſhop of the dioceſe, in which he and his family were confined as priſoners: but the French general was ſoon compelled to ſubmit to the king's troops under the command of general Lake, who obtained a complete victory over them in the battle of Ballinamuck, with a very trifling loſs; while that of the enemy muſt have been very conſiderable, as no leſs than twenty-four principal officers were taken priſoners, a great number of ſubalterns, and the whole amounted, according to the eſtimate of their own Chef de Brigade, to 844. The enemy in their retreat before the king's troops were compelled to abandon nine pieces of cannon, which they had taken in former actions with his majeſty's forces.

In the morning of the ſixteenth of the month above mentioned, a French national brig called the Anacreon, having on board general Rey, and the notorious James Napper Tandy, Chef de Brigade, appeared off the little town and iſland of Rutland, on the north weſt coaſt of the county of Donegal, a place ſo utterly unnoticed, ſave for its convenience for the herring-fiſhery, as not to be defended by a ſingle ſoldier. When the crew of the brig, who were for the moſt part Iriſh, made good their landing, they ſolicited information concerning the French army landed at Killala. Nothing could equal their dejection when they were told, not only that the whole French force had been deſtroyed; but that they had been joined by comparatively very few of their Iriſh rebel friends. The Anacreon was laden with many ſtands of arms to ſupply thoſe who ſhould join the French army; but ſuch was the caution or the terror of the country people, that as ſoon as the French appeared, they retired to the mountains; ſo that when Napper and his friends found that the good people of Rutland were not diſpoſed to further their deſigns; they deemed it moſt prudent to reimbark, and thus ended this raſh, frivolous and deſpicable attempt.

Fruſtrated in their plans of invaſion on the part of the French, and defeated in their own efforts to effect their rebellious deſigns againſt their king and country, the United Iriſhmen now ſeemed to look upon their cauſe as deſperate. They continued indeed to commit depredations and perpetrate their uſual cruelties; ſallying forth occaſionally, and ſkirmiſhing with parties of the king's troops, under a nefarious leader, called Holt; but being always repulſed in their attempts, their conſtant reſource was to flee to the bogs, mountains and faſtneſſes, and thereby eſcape the juſt vengeance of their purſuers. But all their hopes were daſhed at length, by the defeat and capture of a French fleet which had ſailed from Breſt, with a formidable armament for the purpoſe of a more powerful invaſion than had been previouſly attempted, and which, had a landing been effected, would no doubt have revived a rebellion.

The order of St. Patrick was inſtituted February 5, 1783, and the inſtallation of the firſt knights was performed on the 17th of March following. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and fifteen other knights companions. The lord-lieutenant of Ireland for the time being officiates as grand-maſter of the order, and the archbiſhop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbiſhop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick the regiſter of the order. The knights are inſtalled in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. Their robes are ſplendid, and the badge is three crowns united together in a croſs, with the motto round, *Quis ſeparabit?* "Who ſhall ſeparate?" 1783, faſtened by an Iriſh harp to the crown imperial. The coat is encircled with a ſtar of eight points. This is the only order of knighthood in Ireland.

CHAP. XIII.

THE ISLE OF MAN.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Climate, Air, Soil, Produce, Cattle, Inhabitants, Government, Towns, &c.

THIS iſland is ſituated in St. George's Channel, between England, Scotland, and Ireland, its diſtance from all three being nearly equal; a circumſtance to which, according to ſome authors, it owes its preſent name, which they derive from the Saxon word Mang, which ſignifies among. It was formerly diſtinguiſhed by ſeveral different appellations, as Mona, which ſeems to have been a generical name with the ancients for any detached iſland; Monoeda, Monabia, Menavia, Eubonia, and Manaw. Its length from north to ſouth is about thirty miles; its breadth from eaſt to weſt about twelve: the middle of the iſland lies in 54 deg. 16 min. north lat. and in 5 deg. 8 min. weſt long. It is divided into thirteen pariſhes, and has four towns, where the greater part of the trade of the iſland is carried on. The weather in this iſland is leſs variable than that of England, but the ſummers are ſhorter and cooler, and the winters more ſevere. The air is exceedingly pure and wholeſome, and the ſoil, in the hilly parts, barren; but in the vallies and champaign country very fruitful; theſe abound in corn, barley, oats, rye, hemp, flax, roots, pulſe, and fine paſture. It alſo abounds in a ſmall breed of black cattle, and on the mountains are great numbers of hogs and ſheep, which run wild, and are never houſed; the meat of both is excellent.

cellent. The horſes which are bred in this iſland are very ſmall, but ſwift and hardy. There are no foxes, badgers, otters, ſnakes, &c. and it is aſſerted, that a frog was not to be found in the place till ſome ſpawn was brought over from Ireland. Eagles, and a ſpecies of mottled hawks, inhabit the iſland; and, in a ſmall iſland called the Calf of Man, ſeparated from the Iſle of Man by a narrow channel, an infinite number of ſea-fowl harbour, among which are claik geeſe, or barnacles, and thoſe delicious birds called puffins, ſaid to breed in the holes of the rabbits, which for that time leave them to theſe ſtrangers. The old ones leave their young all day, and fly to the ſea, and, returning late at night with their prey, diſgorge it into the ſtomachs of their young; by which means they become almoſt an entire lump of fat.

A ridge of mountains, which runs almoſt the whole length of the iſland, furniſhes the inhabitants with excellent water, together with peat and turf for fuel.

The Iſle of Man contains about 20,000 inhabitants; who are in general very peaceable, hoſpitable to ſtrangers, and charitable to the poor. The lower claſs live in thatched huts, which they ſecure againſt the high winds, common to this place, by a contrivance made of ropes of ſtraw; but the gentry reſide in exceeding good houſes, built of ſtone, and roofed with ſlate. Their method of improving their lands is by manuring them with ſea-weed, lime, and marle, or ſometimes by folding their ſheep upon them, whereby they procure excellent crops of wheat, notwithſtanding which the common bread of the country is made of oatmeal.

The curioſities of this iſland conſiſt chiefly in Runic ſepulchral inſcriptions, written in the old Norwegian language; monuments of braſs and large white ſtones; daggers and other inſtruments of braſs, which have been found buried under ground, together with nails of pure gold.

Its trade conſiſts in black cattle, lamb's wool, fine and coarſe linen cloth, hides, ſkins, honey, tallow, and herrings, of which the inhabitants formerly exported twenty thouſand barrels annually to France and other foreign countries: and it is to be hoped that this fiſhery will now increaſe, the Britiſh parliament having latey given a very conſiderable ſum of money for the encouragement of that uſeful undertaking.

The language uſed by the natives, is radically Erſe, or Iriſh, with a mixture of Latin, Greek, Welſh, and Engliſh words. This compoſition is termed Manks: the New Teſtament and Common-Prayer have been tranſlated into this language. Strangers, being unacquainted with their laws and language, are forced to employ others to plead for them; and it is not long ſince they had any attornies.

The tenets of the church of England are profeſſed by the inhabitants. Chriſtianity was firſt planted here by St. Patrick, about the year 440. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Germain, who was the firſt biſhop of the Iſle. There are 17 pariſh churches in the Iſle of Man, and each of the market-towns has a chapel.

The biſhop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the ſpiritual rights and pre-eminence of other biſhops, but does not ſit in the Britiſh Houſe of Peers; his ſee never having been created into an Engliſh barony. One of the moſt excellent prelates who ever adorned the epiſcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilſon, biſhop of Man, who preſided over that dioceſe upwards of 57 years, and died in the year 1755, aged 93. He was eminently diſtinguiſhed for the piety and exemplarineſs of his life, his benevolence and hoſpitality, and his unremitting attention to the intereſts of the people intruſted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, eſtabliſhed ſchools for the inſtruction of the children of the inhabitants of the iſland, tranſlated ſome of his devotional pieces into the Manks language, to render them more generally uſeful, and founded parochial libraries in every pariſh in his dioceſe. His virtues were ſo numerous and conſpicuous, that he was a great bleſſing to the iſland, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had ſo much veneration for his character, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation ſhould ravage the Iſle of Man. The eccleſiaſtical courts are held by the biſhop either in perſon, or by his vicars general; the archdeacon in perſon, is his official. Eccleſiaſtical diſcipline is here maintained very ſtrictly according to the canons; and the better to ſecure it, the biſhop calls a convocation of his clergy, at leaſt once a year, in order to inquire how the diſcipline of the church has been obſerved, and to make ſuch conſtitutions as are neceſſary for its better government. In all the courts of this iſland, eccleſiaſtical and civil, both men and women, who are natives of the iſland, uſually plead their own cauſes. There are no Papiſts natives of this iſland, nor Diſſenters of any denomination, except Quakers. If the biſhop's tenant is found guilty of a capital crime, for which he may be tried in the biſhop's court, and by a jury of his tenants, he forfeits his lands to the biſhop, but his perſon and moveables are at the diſpoſal of the king.

The governor of this iſland reſides at Caſtle-Town, and is appointed by his majeſty. He has power over all officers, civil and military; and to him, as chancellor, there lies an appeal in matters of right and wrong, and from him to the king in council.

The Tingwald, or ſupreme court of the iſland, is held on a hill near the centre of the iſland, in the open air, and conſiſts of the governor, officers ſpiritual and temporal, the two deemſters, and twenty-four keys. The two deemſters are the temporal judges both in civil and criminal cauſes; and the twenty-four keys are perſons ſo denominated from ſolving, or as it were unlocking, the difficulties of the laws. Their buſineſs is to make new laws, aſſiſt the deemſters in interpreting them, and to decide all difficult caſes. In the tingwald every perſon has a right to preſent any uncommon grievance, and to have his complaints heard and redreſſed in the face of the whole country. All new laws, having firſt been agreed to by the governor, council, deemſters, twenty-four keys, and received the royal aſſent, are likewiſe publiſhed in this court.

The council of the Iſle of Man conſiſts of the governor, biſhop, arch-deacon, the two vicars-general, the receiver-general, the comptroller, the bailiff, and the attorney-general.

This iſland is divided into ſix ſheathings, each of which has its coroner, who, in the name of the ſheriff, is intruſted with the peace of his diſtrict, by ſecuring criminals, and bringing them to juſtice. A moar and a captain are likewiſe two officers belonging to every pariſh. The former of theſe, who are properly the king's bailiffs, are changed yearly, and obliged to be anſwerable for the rents in their reſpective diviſions. The captains have the care of the militia or trained bands.

In this iſland, if a ſingle woman proſecutes a ſingle man for a rape, and he is found guilty, the deemſter, or juſtice, delivers to the woman a rope, a ſword, and a ring, which gives her the choice of having him hanged, beheaded, or, by marrying him, ſaving his life.

The principal towns are Caſtle-Town or Caſtle-Ruſſin, Peele, Douglas, and Ramſea; all of which are ſituated on the ſea-coaſt.

Caſtle-Town is the metropolis of the iſland, and derives its appellation from a beautiful old, but ſtill entire caſtle, built of a coarſe kind of marble. Here the governor and chief officers reſide, the chancery is kept, and the aſſizes are held twice a year.

Peele was denominated Holm-Town by the Norwegians, from a ſmall iſland adjacent to it, wherein ſtands the cathedral, at this time in ruins, except the chancel, which is kept in repair by the biſhop. Thomas, earl of Derby, notwithſtanding this iſle was ſufficiently

ficiently ſtrengthened by nature, ſurrounded it with a wall, towers, and other fortifications. Of late the town of Peele has been much enlarged, ſeveral excellent houſes having been built by merchants ſettled there.

Douglas is the richeſt and moſt populous town in the whole iſland, has the beſt market, and enjoys the greateſt trade. The harbour, which has a fine mole extending into the ſea, is eſteemed one of the beſt in the three kingdoms. There is a free-ſchool, and noble warehouſes, vaults, and cellars belonging to the merchants.

Ramſea was formerly a very inconſiderable town, but its trade has increaſed conſiderably of late years. It is noted for a ſpacious bay, in which ſhips may ride ſafe from all winds, except the north-eaſt, and the harbour is tolerable.

HISTORY OF THE ISLE OF MAN.

THE Iſle of Man is a diſtinct territory from England, and is not governed by our laws; neither doth any act of parliament extend to it, unleſs it be particularly named therein, and then an act of parliament is binding there. Frequent mention is made in hiſtory of the kings of Man, but we can find no regular account of their ſucceſſion. This iſland was formerly a ſubordinate feudatory kingdom, ſubject to the kings of Norway; then to king John and Henry III. of England; afterwards to the kings of Scotland, and then to the crown of England; and at lengeth we find Henry IV. claiming the iſland by right of conqueſt; and diſpoſing of it to the earl of Northumberland; upon whoſe attainder it was granted, by the name of the Lordſhip of Man, to Sir John de Stanley, by letters patent, 7th Henry IV. In his lineal deſcendants it continued for eight generations, till the death of Ferdinando, earl of Derby, A.D. 1594, when a controverſy aroſe concerning the inheritance thereof, between his daughters and William his ſurviving brother; upon which, and a doubt that was ſtarted concerning the validity of the original patent, the iſland was ſeized into the hands of the queen (Elizabeth,) and afterwards various grants were made of it by James I. all which being expired, or ſurrendered, it was granted afreſh, in 7th James I. to William, earl of Derby, and the heirs male of his body, with remainder to his heirs general; which grant was the next year confirmed by act of parliament, with a reſtraint of the power of alienation by the ſaid earl and his iſſue male. On the death of James, earl of Derby, A. D. 1735, the male line of earl William failing, the duke of Athol ſucceeded to the iſland, as heir general by a female branch.

Though the title of king had been diſuſed for ſome time, the earls of Derby, as lords of Man, had maintained a ſort of royal authority therein, by aſſenting to, or diſſenting from laws, and exerciſing an appellate juriſdiction. Yet, though no Engliſh writ or proceſs from the courts of Weſtminſter was of any authority in Man, an appeal lay from a decree of a lord of the iſland to the king of Great-Britain in council; but the diſtinct juriſdiction of this little ſubordinate royalty being found inconvenient for the purpoſes of public juſtice, and for the revenue (in affording a commodious aſylum for debtors, outlaws, and ſmugglers) authority was given to the treaſury, by ſtat. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. to purſchaſe the intereſt of the then proprietors for the uſe of the crown; which purchaſe was at length completed in the year 1765, and confirmed by ſtatutes 5 Geo. III. c. 26. and 30. whereby the whole iſland, and all its dependencies, ſo granted as aforeſaid (except the landed property of the Athol family, their manorial right and emoluments, and the patronage of the biſhopric, and other eccleſiaſtical benefices,) are unalienably veſted in the crown, and ſubjected to the regulations of the Britiſh exciſe and cuſtoms.

CHAP. XIV.

THE ISLE OF WIGHT.

Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, Chief Town, Forts, &c.

THIS delightful iſland is conſidered as part of the county of Southampton, and within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. It is ſituated over-againſt the coaſt of Hampſhire, being ſeparated from it by a channel, which varies in breadth from two to ſeven miles. Its greateſt length, from eaſt to weſt, is nearly twenty-three miles; and its breadth, from north to ſouth, about thirteen. The purity of the air, the fertility of the ſoil, and the beauty and variety of the landſcapes of the iſland, have obtained it the appellation of the garden of England. In the ſouthern parts, the air is in general particularly healthy; the ſoil is various; but ſo great is its fertility, that it was long ago computed that more wheat was produced here in one year, than could be conſumed by the inhabitants in eight; and under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, its preſent produce is ſuppoſed to have more than kept pace with the increaſe of population. Through the middle of the iſland, a range of hills extends from eaſt to weſt, which afford fine paſture for ſheep. Every part of the iſland affords a great number of beautiful and picturеſque proſpects, not only in the paſtoral, but alſo in the great and romantic ſtyle; of theſe beauties, the gentlemen of the iſland have availed themſelves, as well in the choice of ſituation of their houſes, as in their other improvements; ſome of their country-ſeats are very elegant; in ſhort, the iſland itſelf is often viſited by parties of pleaſure on account of its delightful ſcenes. Domeſtic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; and from this iſland the outward-bound ſhips and veſſels at Spithead, the Mother-Bank, and Cowes, commonly furniſh themſelves with thoſe articles.

There are thirty pariſhes in the Iſle of Wight. Moſt of the farm-houſes are built of ſtone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each a little garden belonging to it. According to a very accurate computation, made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to 18,024, excluſive of the troops quartered there.

Newport, which may be conſidered as the capital town, ſtands nearly in the centre of the iſland. The three principal ſtreets extend from eaſt to weſt, and are croſſed at right angles by three others, all which are ſpacious, clean, and well paved. The river Medina empties itſelf into the channel at Cowes-Harbour, diſtant about five miles, and, being navigable up the river, renders it commodious for trade.

There are ſeveral forts in this iſland, which were all erected about the thirty-ſixth year of Henry VIII. when many other forts and blockhouſes were built in different parts of the coaſt of England. Cariſbrooke-Caſtle has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a priſoner, from November 1647, to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this caſtle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, died in it.

CHAP. XV.

THE iſlands of Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark, in the Britiſh Channel, are all ſubject to England, and within the dioceſe of Wincheſter.

They lie in a cluſter in Mount St. Michael's Bay, between Cape La Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany, Sark being four, Guernſey ſeven, and Alderney nine leagues from Jerſey.

The iſland of Jerſey, which was known to the Romans, and by them called Cæſarea, is ſituated in 49 deg. 26 min. weſt lon. eighteen miles weſt of Normandy, and eighty-four miles ſouth of Portland. It is about twelve miles in length, and eight in breadth. The rocks on the northern ſide form a natural and inacceſſible fortification; but to the ſouth the iſland is almoſt level with the water. The air is very ſalubrious; and the ſoil, particularly in the vallies, rich, fruitful, and well-cultivated; but there is no wood for firing. The higher land is generally appropriated for orchards, and great quantities of excellent cyder are made there. There are animals in this iſland which are not found in England, but it is well ſtocked with black cattle and ſheep. Fiſh and wild fowl of every kind abound there, and ſome of theſe are peculiar to the place. The Jerſey honey is eſteemed very delicious.

The whole iſland is divided into twelve pariſhes, and its capital town is St. Holier, which contains a number of exceeding good houſes, and make an elegant appearance. The people, who are about 20,000 in number, employ themſelves in cultivating their orchards, and a manufacture of knit ſtockings and caps, wherein their commerce chiefly conſiſts, though they carry on a conſiderable trade in fiſh to Newfoundland and the Mediterranean. Their language is French, but moſt of them intermix it with Engliſh words. The religion here, and likewiſe in the other three iſlands, is that of the church of England. The governor is appointed by the king, but the civil adminiſtration is veſted in a bailiff, aſſiſted by twelve jurats.

The property of this iſland formerly belonged to the Carterets, who were originally Normans; and Jerſey, being the chief remains of the duchy of Normandy, depending on the kings of England, ſtill preſerves the ancient feudal forms, particularly the aſſembly of ſtates, which is, as it were, a miniature of the Britiſh parliament, as ſettled in the reign of Edward the Firſt.

GUERNSEY, which is likewiſe part of the ancient Norman patrimony, is thirteen miles and a half from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and twelve and a half where broadeſt, eaſt and weſt. It has an harbour, at St. Peter le Port, guarded by two forts, one called the Old-Caſtle, the other Caſtle-Cornet. The iſland is divided into ten pariſhes, to which there are but eight miniſters, four of the pariſhes being united; and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernſey, having one apiece. Though this is a much more deſirable ſpot, it is not ſo populous as Jerſey, and conſequently not ſo valuable, becauſe leſs cultivated. It abounds, however, in cyder, and in moſt other reſpects reſembles the iſland laſt deſcribed; but want of firing is the greateſt inconveniency that both iſlands labour under. The number of inhabitants in this, and the iſlands of Alderney and Sark, are computed at 20,000; they ſpeak the French language.

Alderney is ſeparated from Normandy, by a narrow ſtreight, called the Race of Alderney, from the prodigious velocity of the current; otherwiſe it is ſafe, and has depth of water for the largeſt ſhips. This iſland, which is about eight miles in compaſs, has nothing in it remarkable but a fine breed of cows, many of which have been brought into England, where they are known by the name of Norman cows. It has a healthy air, and fruitful ſoil.

Sark is a very ſmall iſland depending upon Guernſey, from which it does not differ in any thing material; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy, from the products of nature, all the conveniencies of life; their number is about 300.

The Iſles of Scilly, anciently called the Silures, are a cluſter of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about thirty miles from the Land's-End, in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part. Some of theſe iſlands are well inhabited, and have large and ſecure harbours. Theſe rocks being ſituated between the Engliſh Channel and St. George's Channel, many ſhips and lives have been deſtroyed by them.

CHAP XVI.

THE NETHERLANDS.

Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Rivers, Animals, Produce, Population, Trade, Language, Learning, Religion, &c.

THESE provinces, which are ſeventeen in number, obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pais Bas, or Low Countries, from their ſituation in reſpect of Germany. They were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium, or Burgundy, in the German empire. Their ſituation is between 2 and 7 deg. eaſt long. and between 49 and 54 north lat. and extend, from north to ſouth, 350 miles; the breadth, from eaſt to weſt, is 300. Their boundaries are, the German Sea, on the north; the Britiſh Channel, on the weſt; Germany, on the eaſt; and Lorrain in France, on the ſouth.

The United Provinces are, properly ſpeaking, eight; viz. Holland, Overyſſel, Zealand, Frieſland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one ſovereignty, they are always conſidered as ſeven.

The United Provinces are ſituated between 3 and 7 deg. eaſt long. and 51 and 54 north lat. being 150 miles in length, and almoſt the ſame in breadth. They are bounded by the German ſea, on the north and weſt; by Weſtphalia, on the eaſt; and by Flanders, Brabant, and the duchy of Cleves on the ſouth.

Theſe Provinces, which are about ninety miles diſtant from the Engliſh coaſt, lie very low, having neither mountains, riſing grounds, nor foreſts, to diverſify the ſcene; and the country, when viewed from a tower or ſteeple, has the appearance of a continued marſh or bog, drained at certain diſtances by innumerable ditches.

The climate in the ſouthern parts, does not differ materially from that of England, but in the northern, the winter is generally very ſharp, and the ſummer ſultry hot; neither the exceſſive heat or cold, however, laſts above a month or ſix weeks. The air is foggy, moiſt, and would be very unwholeſome, if not purified by the froſt in winter, when the eaſt wind uſually blows for about four months, during which ſeaſon their harbours are entirely frozen up. The ſoil is by nature unfavourable to vegetation, an obſtacle which the induſtry of the inhabitants has in a great meaſure ſurmounted, in making canals, &c. to drain their lands; which, by this method, are rendered fit for paſture, and in many places for tillage.

The principal rivers are, the Rhine, one of the largeſt and fineſt rivers in Europe; the Maeſe, the Scheldt, and the Vecht. There are many ſmaller rivers that join theſe, and a vaſt number of canals. There are few good harbours in the provinces. The beſt are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and Fluſhing. The harbour of Amſterdam, though one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large veſſels cannot paſs, without being lightened. Haerlem, the only lake in this country, has a communication, by means of canals with Amſterdam and Leyden.

The animals are much the ſame as thoſe in England. The inhabitants buy lean cattle in Denmark and

A Map of the NETHERLANDS.

GERMAN OCEAN

COUNTRY OF ARTOIS

HAINAULT

COUNTRY

COUNTRY of WAES

BAILL of BERG

BAILL of BOURBOURG

CHATELLANY of CASSEL

BAILL of BAILLEUL

CHAT of LISLE

BAILLIAGE of DOUAY

BAILLIWICK of DOUAY

BAILLIWICK of COURTRAY

CHAT of YPRES

CHATELLANY of COURTRAY

CHAT of OUDENARD

BURGRAVIAT of GHENT

Segnurie of Dendermd

Eng.h Miles

Cadsand Is.
Grode
Zande
Boudelloo
Doel
Blankenburg
Vendune
S.t Paul
Rains
Capelle
Hoek
Dydzele
Vosklerke
Ardenburg
Waterlict
Waterdyc
Hulst
Warrybrouck
Ostend
Marie Kerke
Houthove
Dam
Sas Ghent
Lembeke
Maldeghem
Adeghem
Moersgnye
F.S Jean
Woorhoute
S Gilles
Culput
Beveren
Nieukerck
Antwerp
Bruges
Oedelem
Oostcamp
Eertvelde
Stroope
Stecken
Middelkerck
Westende
Snaeskerck
Oudenburg
Snellegham
Zedelgham
Eeneghem
Waerchil
Knessclare
Ysede
Lovendegen
Mandelone
Sinay
Rupelmonde
Loderen
Waesmunster
Bornhem
Ruysbouck
Dunkerken
Oost.
Coxie
Wulpen
Lecke
Bernem
S.Joris
Mensberger Vierstchaire
Boggaer
Altere
Mariendorf
Destelbrug
Overmere
Furnes
Batshocke
Dixmude
Beast
Eedewalde
Tourhoute
Haenken
Bouchoute
Eeghem
Thielt
Pouderoy
Nevele
Vinckt
Lotteham
Melle
Dendermd
Manekerk
Vilbergen
Appels
Schenebeke
Dixegheim
Zippe
Hofstade
Meere
Alost
Opwick
Merchem
Wolverthem
Rassen
Wemmel
Dunkirk
Vieil Mardick
Temaux
Grimeer
Gravelin
Groot Sinten
Francois
Waulhem
Hontscote
Woormen
Knock
Merken
Loo
Sarren
Desme
Machelen
Oosterzele
Wurste
Oombergne
Paulathem
Herzele
Ereghem
Ockegham
Ouitre
Justice
de Boucheut
Hekelghem
Zelhick
Jaerbeeck
Brussels
St George
Berg S Winox
Steene
Bourbourg
Dringham
West Cap
Bissinzelle
Herweghe
Proosdye
Milham
Ravensberg
Bronzelles
Walte
Buscure
Cassel
Doneberg
Bovanchove
Oostvleteren
Stavele
Elverding
Broveria
Wallet
Langemarck
Rombeck
Chau
Ochten
Nieuwenhove
Darlick
Petegham
Reckegheim
Ypres
Zonnebeck
Couruay
Getuvelt
Bisseghem
Lettuve
Hollebeck
Comines
Warneton
Houlle
Wervicq
Vlemickchove
Bertene
Warnezele
Proprique
Tatinghen
S Omer
Abinghem
le Barne
Warrans
Steenbec
Blaebrouck
Schouten
Haven
New Berker
Steenwerk
Upen d'Aval
Aire
Estaire
Svenay
Engumegate
Lizare
Bomy
Robeck
Flarbous
Sailly
la Gorgue
Enquelleres
Richebourg
Illies
Petuber
Basimbes
le Basse
Lestrem
Merquin
Orca
Lamain
Cerfs
Vieil Louze
Fautenoy
Wames
Ramilly
la Plaigny
Rocou
Pomeroel
Conde
Yppecello
Waters
Wingne
Anzin
Valenciennes
Lens
Harnes
Henin Liegard
Conteville
Conieres
Perele
Bersee
Orches
Beauny
Rozat
Gelles
Annaulin
Hersmies
Monsen
Thelemain
Phelin
Lequin
Ruche
Moudin
Lannoy
Fromelles
Sailly
Robaux
Baileul
Bilmont
Boudegnies
Haguegnies
Timogles
Becleres
Lezine
Ath
Lessines
Wannebec
Meaux
Rebay
Bourignies
Towerck
Musin
Herdlingen
Brage
Gramont
Jerbeld
Mogrbke
Lemeke
S Quintin
Plesenbeeck
Xinoven
Michelbeck
Apelare
Herne
Berhem
Kerchen
Rouse
Vadeq Ogy
Hubermont
S Antoine
Dercneau
Espierre
Vacq
Houplines
Ysenghem
Deulemont
Roubaix
Tourcoing
Wasquehal
Croix
Wambrechies
Marcq
Lille
Fives
Hellemmes
Lomme
Haubourdin
Emmerin
Loos
Seclin
Templeuve
Orchies
Pont à Marcq
Carvin
Libercourt
Douay
Esquerchin
Flers
Courchelettes
Somain
Aniche
Pecquencourt
Auby
Sin le Noble
Lambres
Arleux
Oisy
Bouchain
Denain
Haspres
Famars
Valenciennes
Anzin
Conde
Condé
Mortagne
Pont à Chin
Vicogne
Maulde
Bruyelle
Rumegies
Orcq
Camain
Templeuve
Willems
Cysoing
Bachy
Genech
Bouvines
Tournay
Leers
Estaimbourg
Mouscron
Herseaux
Wervicq
Comines
Warneton
Houlle
Armentieres
Frelinghien
Quesnoy
Deulemont
Roubaix
Tourcoing
Wasquehal
Croix
Wambrechies
Marcq
Lille
Fives
Hellemmes
Lomme
Haubourdin
Emmerin
Loos
Seclin
Templeuve
Orchies
Pont à Marcq
Carvin
Libercourt
Douay
Esquerchin
Flers
Courchelettes
Somain
Aniche
Pecquencourt
Auby
Sin le Noble
Lambres
Arleux
Oisy
Bouchain
Denain
Haspres
Famars
Valenciennes
Anzin
Conde
Condé
Mortagne
Pont à Chin
Vicogne
Maulde
Bruyelle
Rumegies
Orcq
Camain
Templeuve
Willems
Cysoing
Bachy
Genech
Bouvines
Tournay
Leers
Estaimbourg
Mouscron
Herseaux
Wervicq
Comines
Warneton
Houlle
Armentieres
Frelinghien

and north of Germany, which they fatten to a prodigious bulk; and the horſes are larger than thoſe of any other nation. They have a good breed of ſheep, whoſe wool is highly valued; and it is ſaid that in ſome places they have wild boars and wolves. Storks build and hatch in their chimnies; but, being birds of paſſage, they leave the country, together with their young, about the middle of Auguſt, and do not return till February. The fiſh found in the ſeas and rivers there, are the ſame as ours, though larger; they have no herrings on their coaſts: but there are many excellent oyſter beds about the iſlands of the Texel.

Very little corn is produced in theſe provinces; but in ſome parts they grow madder, tobacco, and a little fruit. Vaſt quantities of the latter are ſent yearly from England, together with all kinds of roots and garden-ſtuff, particularly cauliflowers The provinces, however, in general, abound with rich paſtures, fine groves of trees, vegetables, &c. though not in ſuch perfection as thoſe of England.

The Seven United Provinces contain, according to the beſt accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1,400 villages, and about two millions of inhabitants, who are diſtinguiſhed by the general appellation of the Dutch. They are uſually tall and ſtrong built; the women have good ſkins and tolerable features, but both ſexes are very clumſy in their ſhapes, to which their dreſs contributes greatly, for the men wear coats without plaits, and their long pockets reach nearly to their arm-pits: the women have their petticoats, of which they wear a great number, no lower than the middle of their legs; their waiſts are exceſſively ſhort, and on their heads they ſometimes wear a plain round-ear cap, but frequently only a black ribband, tied in a particular manner: this, however, is not to be underſtood of the higher ranks of people, who imitate the French greatly in their method of dreſs and living. The manners of the people differ according to their ſituations in life. The gentry are polite and hoſpitable. The tradeſmen are no otherwiſe honeſt than the law, or the diſcernment of the perſons they deal with, obliges them to be ſo; for whenever they can evade the one, or impoſe upon the judgment of the other, they ſeldom fail to do it. The boors or huſbandmen are exceedingly dull of underſtanding, impatient if treated harſhly, but eaſily guided by gentle methods, and yielding to the conviction of plain reaſoning, if they are allowed time to comprehend it. The ſeamen are a plain, rough, ſurly, ill-mannered people, ſeldom making uſe of more words than is neceſſary about their buſineſs. Every claſs, however, agrees in being exceedingly induſtrious and frugal, never ſpending the whole of their income, let it be ever ſo trifling. They are naturally phlegmatic, and ſeldom in a paſſion, except heated by liquor, or provoked by any one acting contrary to their intereſt, which is dearer to them than life; in every other reſpect, they are quiet neighbours, and peaceable ſubjects. Though a Dutchman, when drunk, is guilty of every act of brutality, and though they have been known to exerciſe the moſt ſhocking inhumanities abroad, from lucrative views, yet in their own country they are in general quiet and inoffenſive. They are ſeldom ſeen to expreſs any great emotions of joy or ſorrow, and the paſſion of love is a thing talked of, but ſcarce ever felt by either ſex; for they are ſo ſimilar, that in diſplaying the diſpoſitions of the men, thoſe of the women are likewiſe delineated. The Dutch drink great quantities of ſpirituous liquors, wine, &c. and both men and women ſmoke tobacco. They are remarkabe for cleanlineſs: and nothing can exceed the neatneſs of their houſes, which is greatly owing to the neceſſity they are under of perpetually rubbing and ſcouring, from the moiſture of the air, which cauſes metals to ruſt, and wood to mould, more than in any other country.

The nobility, magiſtrates, and rich merchants, who have retired from trade, endeavour to rival each other in the beauty of their equipages, and the elegance of their houſes and furniture. Among the middling ranks of people, there is ſcarce any diſtinction between maſters and ſervants, and it would be difficult for a ſtranger, at firſt ſight, to know the one from the other. There is no country where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midſt of a multitude of taxes and contributions, ſuch as no other country experiences, they flouriſh and grow rich. From this ſyſtematic ſpirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the moſt obſtinate perſeverance, they ſucceeded in the ſtupendous works of draining their country of thoſe immenſe deluges of water that had overflowed a conſiderable part of it during many ages, while at the ſame they brought under their ſubjection and command the rivers and ſeas that ſurround them, by dykes of incredible thickneſs and ſtrength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and ſafety of their territories againſt the incurſions of an enemy. To this end, they have covered their frontiers and cities with innumerable ſluices; by means of which, at the ſhorteſt notice, the moſt impetuous inundations are admitted, ſo that they become in a few hours inacceſſible.

Their remarkable frugality and perſeverance have alſo enabled them, though labouring under the greateſt difficulties, not only to throw off the Spaniſh yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the moſt tender parts, by ſeizing her rich galleons, and forming new eſtabliſhments in Africa, and the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, at the expence of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a deſpicable province, a moſt formidable enemy. The riſe of their military and marine eſtabliſhments was alſo equally wonderful, ſince, in their celebrated contention with Louis XIV. and Charles II. of England, they maintained no leſs than 150,000 forces, and upwards of eighty-ſhips of the line. But a ſpirit of frugality is not now ſo univerſal among the Dutch as it was formerly: the rich traders and mechanics begin to adopt Engliſh and French luxuries in dreſſing and living; their nobility and high magiſtrates, who have retired from trade, rival thoſe of any other part of Europe in their tables, buildings, furniture, and equipages; and gaming is likewiſe practiſed among many of their faſhionable ladies.

The ſummer diverſions of the Dutch differ little from thoſe of the Engliſh; and in winter they ſhoot wild geeſe and ducks: they delight in ſkaiting, at which they are very expert; and it is amazing to ſee with what inconceivable velocity both men and women dart, or rather fly along upon the ice, having perhaps at the ſame time a load on their heads.

The uſual way of paſſing from town to town, is by covered boats, called treckſcuits, which are dragged along the canals by horſes on a ſlow uniform trot, ſo that paſſengers reach the different towns where they are to ſtop, preciſely at the appointed inſtant of time. This method of travelling is exceedingly convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap, but at the ſame time extremely dull and diſagreeable. The principal people travel on the ice in ſledges, which a man, placed behind, puſhes along with great ſwiftneſs.

Almoſt every town of the United Netherlands, enjoys the benefit of a navigable canal, which is now become the principal method of communication between one town and another. Among the many benefits derived from theſe canals may be reckoned that of ſending goods into various parts of Germany and the Auſtrian and French Netherlands, from the principal trading towns of Holland, at a very ſmall expence: ſome of the canals communicate with the Rhine, others with the Maeſe, and others with the Ems. Hence a very extenſive inland commerce is carried on throughout this country; and the goods imported from foreign ſtates, by the great trading towns of Rotterdam, Amſterdam, &c. are diſperſed into various parts in large quantities; ſo that theſe

provinces

provinces may be conſidered as one large mart of trade. The canals are lined for ſeveral miles together with elegant neat country-houſes, ſeated in the middle of gardens and pleaſure-grounds intermixed with figures, buſts, ſtatues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge: genteel families, in fine weather, ſpend much of their time in theſe little temples, ſmoking, reading, or viewing the paſſengers, to whom they appear to behave with complaiſance and politeneſs. A treckſcuit, in which goods are conveyed on theſe canals, is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruim; the firſt for gentlemen, and the other for common people, who may eat, drink, read, or converſe with people of various nations, with great facility.

The United Provinces for commerce and manufactures are the grand magazine of Europe, and goods may be purchaſed here ſometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. Their Eaſt-India-Company, which is the moſt opulent and powerful of any in the world, have had the monoply of the fine ſpices for more than 100 years, and, till the late war with England, was extremely wealthy and powerful; but their commerce hath greatly ſuffered ſince that period. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is ſaid to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Aſia. Here the viceroys appear in greater ſplendor than the ſtadtholder; and ſome of the Dutch ſubjects in Batavia ſcarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother-country. Their India ſettlement on the Cape of Good Hope, being the grand rendezvous of the outward and home-ward-bound ſhips of all nations, is extremely pleaſant, healthful, and uſeful.

In Holland, the manufactures conſiſt in fine linen, table damaſks, woollen-cloths, ſail-cloth, paper, delft-ware, pots, tobacco-pipes, refined ſalt, ſugar-works, oil-mills, cotton, ſilk, wax-bleaching, leather-dreſſing, hemp, and ſtarch. Vaſt ſums are amaſſed annually by their mills for ſawing timber, uſed in building ſhips and houſes; and great wealth is acquired by the herring, whale, and cod-fiſheries, which they have wreſted from the native proprietors, and in theſe the provinces of Holland and Zealand are chiefly concerned, and employ a vaſt number of ſhips; in the two firſt only, about 850 ſail. The herrings cured there are preferable to thoſe of any other nation; and, in a good ſeaſon, the profits on this branch of trade only are ſaid to amount to 2,000,000 of Holland guilders yearly, clear of all deductions.

The principal trading company in Holland is that to the Eaſt-Indies incorporated in 1602. About the year 1660 the Dutch divided 40 per cent. and afterwards 60; the dividends are at preſent much reduced; but, in 124 years, the proprietors, on an average, divided yearly above 24 per cent. and, ſo late as in 1760, they divided 15 per cent. The Dutch Weſt-India-Company was incorporated in 1621, and, in the year 1760, divided only two and a half per cent. The bank of Amſterdam is immenſely rich, and under an excellent direction. According to Mr. Anderſon, the caſh, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which is kept in the vaults of the ſtadthouſe, amount to thirty-ſix millions ſterling, though others ſay only thirty millions.

The conſtitution of the United Provinces is a very intricate article. They all, indeed, form a general confederacy; and the ſtatutes made in the aſſembly of the ſtates, after they have acquired the neceſſary ſanctions, become binding on all the inhabitants of the United Provinces. But, notwithſtanding this particular, each province has a ſeparate internal government, wholly independent of the others; but as theſe independent governments conſidered ſeparately, could not defend themſelves againſt the attempts of a foreign enemy, they are formed into one collective body, by a certain number of deputies, or repreſentatives, choſen by each, who conſtitute the legiſlative power, and are termed the States-General. Their power is, however, in ſome reſpects, limited; for, when a reſolution is taken by the States, it has not the force of a law till it has received the approbation of every province, every city, and every republic in that province; nor are even a majority of voices in theſe different and ſubordinate aſſemblies ſufficient, it muſt be unanimouſly approved, one diſſenting voice being ſufficient to render the whole abortive. But theſe tedious formalities are uſually laid aſide in times of imminent danger, when the approbation of the States-General is allowed to be ſufficient.

The council of State, which conſiſts of deputies from the ſeveral provinces, is next in authority to the States-General. It is compoſed of twelve perſons, of whom Holland ſends three, Guelderland one, Zealand two, Utrecht one, Frieſland two, Overyſſel one, and Groningen two. In this council they do not vote by provinces, as in the States-General, but by perſonal voices, and every deputy preſides in his turn. When the votes happen to be equal, the ſtadtholder has a deciſive voice. The buſineſs of this council conſiſts in preparing eſtimates, finding out ways and means for raiſing the public revenues, and other matters neceſſary to be laid before the States-General.

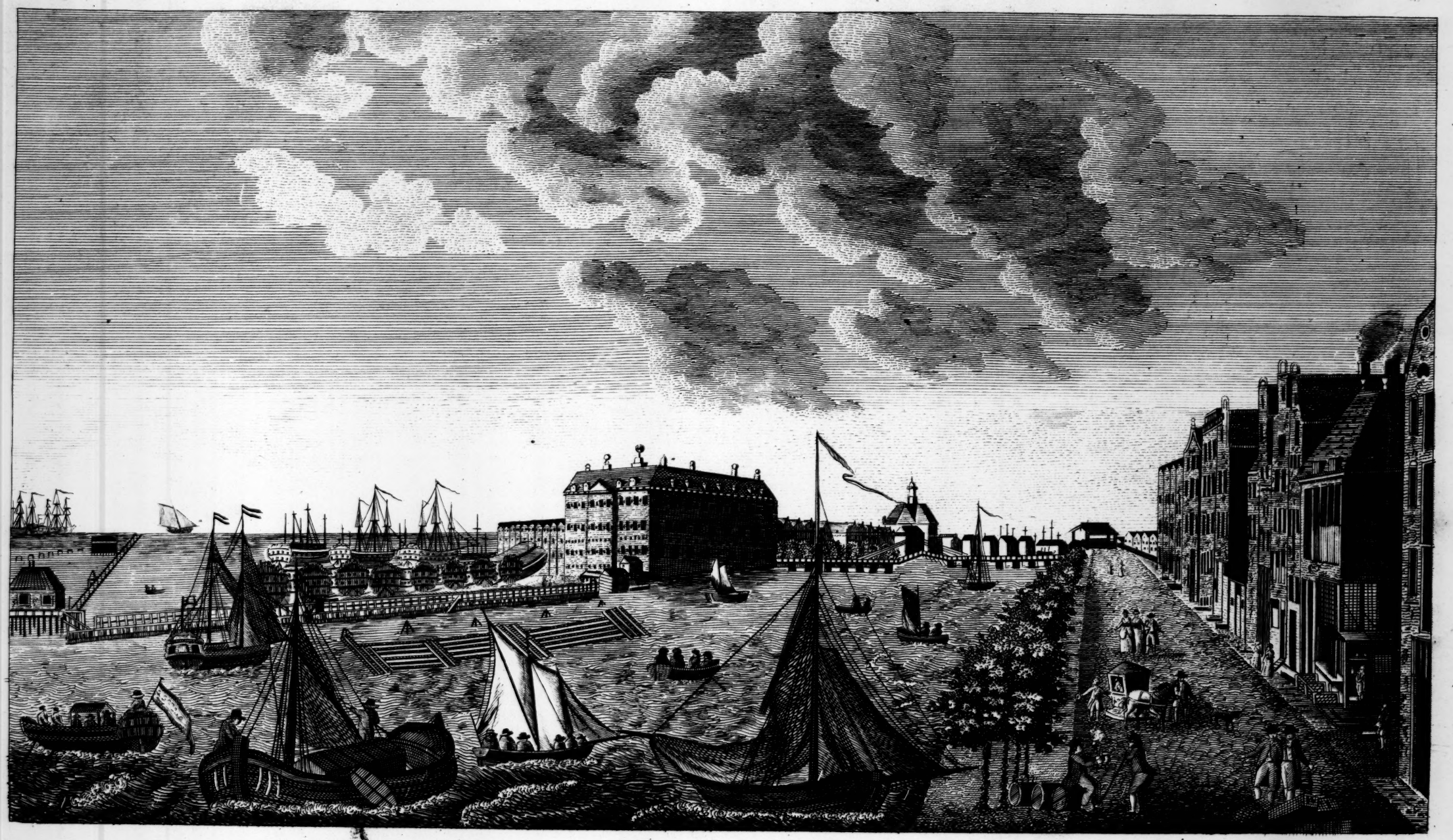
The chamber of accounts is ſubordinate to theſe two bodies, which is likewiſe compoſed of provincial deputies, who audit all public accounts. The admiralty forms a ſeparate board, and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Frieſland. In Amſterdam, which takes the lead in all public adminiſtrations, the magiſtracy is lodged in thirty-ſix ſenators, who are choſen for life; and every vacancy among them is filled up by the ſurvivors. The ſame ſenate alſo elects the deputies to repreſent the cities in the province of Holland, in which the people neither chooſe their repreſentatives nor their magiſtrates.

The power of the ſtadtholder is very limited, except when he appears at the head of an army. He is indeed preſident of the ſtates of every province, and can, by his influence, procure ſuch deputies to be ſent to the aſſembly of the States-General as are friends to his intereſt, and may change the deputies, magiſtrates, and officers, in every province and city. To his office are annexed certain prerogatives, which vary in different provinces; but they may all be changed by the authority of the States-General. The appointment of the ſtadtholder from the States is 100,000 guilders, or 9,500l. ſterling, beſides which he has ſeveral principalities and large eſtates of his own.

The States of the provinces are ſtyled Noble and Mighty Lords, but thoſe of Holland Noble and Moſt Mighty Lords; and the States-General, High and Mighty Lords, or, the Lords the States-General of the United Netherlands, or, their High Mightineſſes.

Juſtice is ſaid to be no-where diſpenſed with more impartiality than in this country. Every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal caſes, appeals lie from all the petty and country courts. The ſtadtholder has the power of pardoning condemned malefactors.

In the eighth century, chriſtianity was firſt introduced into the Netherlands by St. Winifred. After that period, Popery continued to be preferred till the Reformation, when many of the people embraced Proteſtantiſm; which giving umbrage to the king of Spain, he iſſued orders to puniſh with death all thoſe whom the church of Rome declared heretics. This occaſioned the total alienation of the ſeven Dutch provinces, the eſtabliſhed religion of which, at this time, is the Preſbyterian or Calviniſm; but all perſuaſions and ſects are tolerated; and the inhabitants of Holland live together as citizens of the world; their



A Perspective View of the ADMIRALTY OFFICE DOCK YARD STOREHOUSES &c. at Amsterdam

their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are aſſociated together by the common ties of humanity and the bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the ſtate, with equal encouragement to arts and induſtry, and equal freedom of ſpeculation and inquiry. The Papiſts and Jews are very numerous; none but Preſbyterians are admitted into any office or poſt in the government, except the army.

The language of theſe provinces is Low Dutch: it is compounded of the Teutonic, or ancient German, with ſeveral French and Latin words The ſound of this langnage, to thoſe who are ignorant of it, is harſh and unpleaſing; but this is greatly ſoftened by the accent and pronunciation of the more learned and polite. Engliſh and French are ſpoken by the higher ranks of the people. Many of the Dutch have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their learning, and ſome even by their wit and ingenuity. They are famous for controverſial divinity, which at one time inſinuated itſelf ſo much into the ſtate, that it had nearly proved fatal to the government. They boaſt of excellent writers in all branches of medicine, and numerous commentators upon the claſſics. Their Latin poems and epigrams are very common, and, about the year 1747, Van Haaren publiſhed ſome poems in favour of liberty. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and ariſe chiefly from their employments in the church, univerſities, or ſtate. The city of Haarlem diſputes the invention of printing with the Germans; and the magiſtrates keep in their town-houſe the firſt book printed by Coſter, about the year 1440. Among the principal of the Dutch writers, are, Eraſmus, Grotius, Boerhaave, Grævius, Burmann, and Van Haaren.

In the United Netherlands, there are five univerſities, viz. Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Francker. Leyden is the oldeſt and largeſt in theſe provinces, and was founded in 1575. It enjoys many privileges, has a library well furniſhed, particularly with manuſcripts; a phyſic-garden ſtocked with all kinds of plants, many of which have been brought from the Cape of Good Hope and the Eaſt-Indies; an anatomy-hall, and an obſervatory. The profeſſors, who are uſually men of eminence, read public lectures four times a week, gratis; but every perſon who attends a courſe of private lectures, which laſts a whole year, pays about three guineas: the lectures are always in Latin. The profeſſors wear gowns only when they preſide at public diſputations, read public lectures, or meet in the ſenate: their ſalaries are from one to two hundred pounds per annum. The ſtudents do not lodge in the univerſity, but where they pleaſe in the town: they have no diſtinct habit, and all wear ſwords. The univerſity of Utrecht was founded in 1636, and is in a very flouriſhing ſtate, though it does not enjoy the privileges of moſt other univerſities, being entirely ſubordinate to the magiſtrates of the city. The number of ſtudents are computed at 2000. The univerſity of Groningen was founded in 1615, and well endowed out of the revenues of the ſuppreſſed monaſteries. The univerſity of Harderwicke was only a *Schola illuſtris* till 1648, when it acquired its preſent title. The univerſity at Francker was founded in the year 1585, and has a fine phyſic-garden. The external appearance of theſe univerſities is rather mean, and the buildings old; but theſe defects are amply compenſated by the variety of ſolid and uſeful learning taught in them.

In theſe univerſities, no oaths or religious teſts are impoſed; ſo that Roman Catholic parents, and even Jews, ſend their children here with as little ſcruple as Proteſtants. Theſe ſeminaries of learning have each three or four divinity profeſſors, as many of phyſic, and two or three of law; beſides others of hiſtory, language, and eloquence, or the belles lettres; and others of philoſophy, mathematics, the Greek and Roman antiquities, and the Hebrew and Oriental languages. There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry, from moſt countries in Europe, at theſe ſeminaries of literature; and, as every one may live as he pleaſes, without being obliged to be profuſe in his expences, or ſo much as quitting his night-gown for weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be ſeen here.

At theſe ſeats of learning, the force of example is ſtrikingly exhibited; for frugality in expence, order, a compoſed behaviour, attention to ſtudy, and aſſiduity in every thing, being the characteriſtics of the natives, ſtrangers who continue among them ſoon adopt their manners and method of living. And, though the ſtudents are under no reſtraint, yet they are in general remarkable for their ſobriety and good manners, and the diligence and ſucceſs with which they apply themſelves to their reſpective ſtudies.

Amſterdam is the capital of all the United Netherlands. Its ſituation is on the river Amſtel, and an arm of the ſea called Wye. It is in 52 deg. 20 min. north lat. and 4 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. and erected in a moraſs, on ſtrong and extenſive piles, in the form of a creſcent. The ſtadthouſe alone hath upwards of 130,000 ſtrong piles of wood for its foundation.

The city of Amſterdam, next to London, is thought to be the moſt extenſive city in Chriſtendom. It is one of the greateſt trading ports, and not perhaps inferior to any city for riches. It is ſurrounded with brick walls, and a large ditch, and the gates are built with free-ſtone. The walls are high, kept in good repair, and flanked with twenty-ſix baſtions.

The houſes of Amſterdam, in general, are handſomely built, either with brick or ſtone. The ſtreets are ſpacious, well paved, embelliſhed with trees, and have canals paſſing through them. Here are eleven Dutch Calviniſts, one high Dutch, two French, and three Engliſh churches; but only the Calviniſts have the privilege of uſing bells. The Roman Catholics have twenty ſeven chapels, and a kind of cloiſter, the nuns of which, however, are allowed to go abroad, and to marry if they pleaſe. The Jews, Arminians, Anabaptiſts, &c. have likewiſe places of worſhip.

This city has a great ſhare not only of the trade carried on in Europe, but in all the reſt of the world; and in particular, it is in poſſeſſion of one half of that vaſt commerce carried on by the Dutch to the Eaſt-Indies, and governs the whole.

This city cannot properly be ſaid to be adorned with any ſquares: the principal place ſo called is the dam, which is very irregular, and has no capital building but the ſtadthouſe, which is a noble oblong edifice of free-ſtone, 282 feet in length, 235 in breadth, and 116 in height.

The new church of St. Catherine is a magnificent edifice, and contains many curious pieces of ſculpture, painted windows, &c.

The admirality houſe is an old building, having been formerly a nunnery. The arſenal is a fine ſtructure, 200 feet long and 22 broad. Near the arſenal is the dock, which is 508 feet in length, and has the ſtore-houſes, ſhip carpenters houſes, &c. contiguous. The Eaſt-India Houſe is a very large building, and contains a prodigious quantity of various articles. The India company hath likewiſe a magazine or arſenal independent of that juſt mentioned.

Amſterdam contains many hoſpitals, which together maintain and relieve great numbers of both ſexes. Beſides theſe, here are many places where people may have diet and lodging for life, on advancing a certain ſum of money, which is not very conſiderable. At many parts of the city poor boxes hang on chains, being locked up and ſecured by the overſeers of the poor, who every quarter diſtribute the money. The play-houſes pay half their profits to the uſe of the poor. All who entertain people at fairs are obliged to contribute a third of their profit;

and all who paſs through pay a penny for the ſame purpoſe.

The number of inhabitants is computed at about two hundred thouſand, of which a great part are Papiſts and Jews. The greateſt diſadvantages this city labours under are the want of good air and water.

Rotterdam is ſituated at the conflux of the Maes and Rotter, from the latter of which, and Dam, its name is formed. It is 12 miles from the Hague, and 28 from Amſterdam. The ſtreets are ſpacious, adorned with lofty trees and beautiful canals; by ſome of the laſt of which ſhips of the greateſt burden are brought into the very heart of the city. Over the Maes, which is very broad, is a bridge, on which is placed a braſs ſtatue of Eraſmus. The Haaring-Vliet, and the Boom Quay, are noble ſtreets; the latter lies along the Maes; and on one ſide has a magnificent row of trees and houſes, or rather palaces, extending above half a mile; and on the other the river, where ſhips are continually ſailing up and down, or at anchor. The principal buildings in the town are the exchange, the Eaſt and Weſt-India houſes, the bank, the arſenal, and the great church, or that of St. Laurence.

Leyden is one of the largeſt, pleaſanteſt, and moſt magnificent cities in Holland. It is ſituated ſix miles eaſt from the ocean, and 19 ſouth of Amſterdam. It was erected on the ancient channel of the Rhine, which paſſes through, interſects, and divides it into ſeveral iſlands, that meet again about the white Gate. It has 8 gates, 24 wards, ſubdivided into 90 leſſer parts, 50 iſlands, of which 31 may be ſailed round by boats, 180 ſtreets, 145 bridges, and 42 towers on the walls. The ditches are broad, deep, and circumſcribed by a quickſet hedge. The eſplanade is adorned with rows of trees, and has the rampart on one ſide, and gardens or meadows on the other. The houſes are magnificent and neat, the ſtreets broad and clean, and the canals regular and agreeable. In the middle of the town is a round ſtrong tower, called the Burgh, which meaſures 610 feet in circumference, and has an aſcent of 50 ſteps, and a fine proſpect from its ſummit. The great church is a noble ſtructure, with a lofty roof, large windows, and three rows of elegant pillars on each ſide of the choir. This, as well as the other churches, contains ſeveral remarkable monuments, and other curioſities. Among the reſt, in the church of Notre Dame, is the monument of the celebrated Joſeph Scaliger. Here are many hoſpitals, which are kept with that remarkable neatneſs peculiar to the Dutch. The orphan-houſe only, maintains 900 children. The ſtadthouſe is a capacious building, with a handſome ſtone front. In the burgo-maſter's chamber is a fine piece of painting, by Luke of Leyden, repreſenting the Laſt Day of Judgment.

The univerſity belonging to this city is its greateſt glory. It was founded, A. D. 1573, by the ſtates-general, as ſome recompence to the inhabitants for the great hardſhips they had undergone, and loſſes they had ſuſtained, when they were beſieged by the Spaniards.

Utrecht is a handſome, large, and rich city, ſituated on the ancient Rhine. The principal ſtreets are cut through with canals, two of which run through the whole city, namely, the Vaert, and the new Gracht, over which there are thirty-five bridges. Theſe are the principal canals of the town, and the buildings on the banks of the new Gracht are magnificent. The market-place is very large, and the centre of ſeveral handſome ſtreets. The houſes are of brick, and many of them ſtately. Without the town there are beautiful rows of trees, to which the Engliſh have given the name of the Mall, by reaſon of their having ſome reſemblance to St. James's Park. There is a public library, well ſtocked with books in all branches of learning. The town-houſe is a very noble building. The painters' hall abounds with fine pieces; they have alſo a phyſic-garden, but of no great note. Utrecht gave birth to pope Adrian VI. whoſe houſe they always ſhow to foreigners, and to the celebrated Ann Mary Schurman, ſo admired in the laſt century for her learning; it is eighteen miles S. S. E. of Amſterdam.

The Hague, though but a village, is one of the moſt conſiderable places in Holland, and is ſaid to contain about 40,000 inhabitants: it is exceedingly beautiful, and ſituated upon the higheſt ground in the whole country, ſo that the air is more ſalutary than that of the other cities. It has neither gates nor walls, but is ſurrounded by a moat, over which there are a number of draw-bridges; and, being the reſidence of the ſtadtholder, it is likewiſe that of foreign miniſters, and the reſort of all perſons of diſtinction who viſit Holland. The ſtreets and ſquares are ſpacious, particularly de Plaats, which is an open, airy place, in form of a triangle, and adorned with elegant buildings. An eminence, called the Vyverberg, is laid out into ſeveral fine ſhady walks, and, at the bottom, is the Vyver, a large baſon of water. But the moſt celebrated part of the Hague is the Voorhout, which conſiſts of a mall, and three ſpaces on each ſide for coaches, the whole being in much the ſame taſte as St. James's-Park. Here people of diſtinction take the air in their coaches.

Middleburg is at preſent a large and handſome city, and has the firſt ſeat in the aſſembly of the ſtates of Zealand. The town-houſe is a magnificent building, ornamented with a great number of ſtatues of the comtes and comteſſes of Holland and Zealand. The fortifications of Middleburg are very ſtrong and regular, having been much augmented by the Dutch ſince they became maſters of it. They have eight gates, and twelve baſtions to defend the walls and ramparts, with large and deep ditches filled with water; beſides which its ſituation is ſuch as to enable the inhabitants to lay the country about it under water when they pleaſe. The number of inhabitants is about 26,000.

Leuwarden, the capital of Friefland, ſtands ſixty miles north-eaſt of Amſterdam. It is a large, well-built, and populous town: the ſtreets are clean, the houſes ſplendid, the bridges well paved, and the gardens pleaſant: the churches, governor's palace, and the ſenate-houſe, are fine ſtructures. This city and Francker chooſe their own magiſtrates.

Groningen, twenty-ſeven miles from Leuwarden, and eighty from Amſterdam, is the capital of the province of the ſame name. The town is large and populous, being the ſeat of the high colleges, containing twenty-ſeven ſtreets: here are many fine houſes, beſides churches, three ſpacious market-places, and ſeveral public ſtructures. Ships of conſiderable burden can come up to this city, by which means it enjoys a pretty good trade.

Deventer, the province of Overyſſel, ſtands forty-four miles from Utrecht: it is a neat, populous, well-built, and ſtrongly-fortified city, containing ſeveral churches belonging to different ſects. Five annual fairs are held here. Along the river ſide is a fine quay, adorned with rows of trees.

Nimeguen, in the province of Guelderland, is fifty-two miles diſtant from Amſterdam. It is a large ancient city, ſtrongly fortified, and pleaſantly ſituated. On the eaſt ſide of it ſtands an old caſtle, and it alſo contains ſeveral churches belonging to different ſects. The peace between the French and confederates was concluded here in 1678.

Amersfoort, in the province of Utrecht, ſeventeen miles diſtant from the city of that name, is an ancient and large town, but of no great ſtrength, being commanded by a neighbouring hill. The buildings are in general very neat. They have three churches here, one of which is a large and ſtately fabric. They have

have likewiſe a public ſchool, where ſeveral eminent perſons have had their education.

There are but few natural and artificial curioſities in theſe provinces. In Overyſſel, there are ſtones, the enormous ſize of which cauſe an equal aſtoniſhment in the ſpectator with thoſe of Stonehenge upon Saliſbury-Plain; and near Maeſtricht, under a hill, there is a ſtone quarry, which is worked into a kind of ſubterraneous palace, ſupported by pillars twenty feet high. In Frieſland, they have a ſpecies of bituminous earth, that takes fire in a ſurpriſing manner: and, in the ſixteenth century, according to ſome hiſtorians, burnt the length of two leagues before it could be extinguiſhed. Among the chief artificial curioſities may be placed the prodigious dykes, ſeventeen ells thick, with the mounds and canals, made to protect them from thoſe dreadful inundations from which they ſuffered greatly in the laſt century: theſe ſtupendous works excite the admiration of every beholder. Several muſeums, containing valuable antiquities and curioſities, are to be found in this country, particularly in the univerſity of Leyden, where is to be ſeen a ſhirt made of the entrails of a man; alſo two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity, with all the muſcles and tendons of the human body, curiouſly ſet up. In the city of Nimeguen are many Roman antiquities; and, in the church at Gouda, there are ſome exquiſite paintings upon glaſs. At Saardam (famous for being the place where Peter the Great ſerved his apprenticeſhip to ſhip-building, and laboured at that trade) the town-houſe is adorned with paintings; and there is a remarkable clock and dial, which coſt 150,000 guilders.

The taxes in theſe provinces are ſo heavy, eſpecially in Holland, that it is not without reaſon that a certain author aſſerts, that the only thing that has eſcaped taxation there is the air they breathe. Thoſe taxes conſiſt of an almoſt general exciſe, a land-tax, a poll-tax, and hearth-money, ſo that the ordinary revenues of the republic are computed at between two and three millions ſterling annually. Out of 100 guilders, the province of Holland contributes 58, and, conſequently, above one-half of the whole public expences. For the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandize are ſaid to be exceeding low. Notwithſtanding the number and greatneſs of the taxes, every province is ſaid to labour under very heavy debts, eſpecially Holland, and the public credit is not in the moſt flouriſhing condition.

With reſpect to their land-forces in time of peace, they ſeldom exceed 40,000, and very often fall ſhort of that number. They employ a great many foreigners, eſpecially Swiſs and Scots, in their ſervice; and, in time of war, hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is veſted in the ſtadtholder, under whom is the field-marſhal-general. In 1756, the expences of the army only amounted to 9,765,004 guilders. No nation in the world can fit out a more formidable fleet than the Dutch, having always vaſt quantities of timber prepared for building of ſhips, and ſuch numbers of ſhip-carpenters and mariners: however, in time of peace, they uſually have no more than thirty in commiſſion, for the protection of their trade in the Mediterranean, and to convoy their homeward-bound Indiamen, &c. By the laſt accounts, their navy conſiſts of one ſhip of 76 guns, three of 70, four of 68, five of 60, eight of 56, four of fifty, five of 44, nine of 40, and ten of 36 (forty-nine in all) beſides veſſels of inferior force: they have alſo many ſhips upon the ſtocks.

Every province being a ſovereignty in itſelf, has conſequently the right of coinage; but all the money muſt be of the ſame intrinſic value. The coins are as follow: a deut, worth about half a farthing; a grot Flemiſh, two farthings; a ſtiver, equal to a penny Engliſh; a dubbekin, to two-pence; a ſchilling, to ſix-pence; but there are alſo ſchillings worth only five-pence halfpenny; a guilder, tweny-pence; a thaler, or dollar, thirty-pence; a lowen-thaler, or lion-dollar, forty-two pence; a rix-thaler, or rix-dollar, fifty-pence; a ducatoon, ſixty-three pence. The gold ducat is worth about eight ſhillings and eight-pence; and the ruyder is almoſt equal to a guinea. Beſides theſe, there are half and three guilder pieces, and half and quarter rix-dollars.

One of the moſt ancient as well as powerful orders of Europe was that of the Teutonic knights, which is now divided into two branches; the firſt for Papiſts, and the other for Proteſtants. This branch have a houſe at Utrecht, where they tranſact their buſineſs. The enſign is a croſs pattie, enamelled white, ſurmounted with another, black; above the croſs is a ball twiſted, white and black. It is worn pendant to a broad black watered ribband, which is worn about the neck. The ſame croſs is embroidered on the left breaſt of the upper garment of each knight. The nobles of Holland, if they propoſe a ſon to be a knight, enter his name in the regiſter, and pay a large ſum of money to the uſe of the poor maintained by the order, and the candidate ſucceeds in rotation, if he brings with him proof of his nobility for four generations on the father's and mother's ſide.

With reſpect to the arms or enſigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, they are, Or, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlaſs, and with the other a bundle of ſeven arrows cloſe bound together, in alluſion to the ſeveral confederate provinces, with the following motto, *Concordia res parvæ creſcunt*, i. e. "Small things increaſe by concord."

The hereditary ſtadtholder, William V. of Orange-Naſſau, captain-general and admiral of the Seven United Provinces, was born in 1748, married in 1767, the princeſs Frederica of Pruſſia, born in 1751. Their children are, Frederica-Louiſa, born 1770; William-Frederic, hereditary prince and count of Buren, born in 1772; William-George, born in 1774. Wilhelmina-Carolina, born in 1743, and married to the prince of Naſſau-Weilburgh, is ſiſter of the ſtadtholder.

The hiſtory of the United Provinces will be given in that of the Auſtrian and French Netherlands.

CHAP XVII.

THE AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Soil, Productions, Mountains, Mines, Rivers, Commerce, Manufactures, Cities, Inhabitants; their Manners, Cuſtoms, Religion, Language, Learning, Government, Revenues, Forces, Hiſtory.

THESE Netherlands are ſituated between the 2d and 7th deg. eaſt long. and between the 49th and 51ſt of north lat. being 200 miles in length, and as many in breadth, containing the following provinces, viz. 1. Brabant. 2. Antwerp. 3. Malines. 4. Limburg. 5. Luxemburg. 6. Namur. 7. Hainault. 8. Cambreſis. 9. Artois. 10. Flanders.

Theſe provinces are bounded by the United Netherlands on the north; by Germany on the eaſt; by Lorrain, Champagne, and Picardy in France, on the ſouth; and by another part of Picardy, and the Engliſh ſea, on the weſt. This country belongs to the Auſtrians, French, and Dutch, and the particular provinces and towns appertaining to each ſtate will be found in the following diviſions.

1. *Province*

1. *Province of Brabant.*

Subdiviſions.	*Chief Towns.*	
Dutch Brabant	Boiſleduc	N.
	Breda	N.
	Bergen-op-Zoom	N.
	Grave, N. E.	
	Lillo	N. W.
	Steenbergen	N. W.
Auſtrian Brabant	Bruſſels, E.	
	Louvain	In the middle.
	Vilvorden	In the middle.
	Landen	In the middle.

Antwerp and Malines are provinces independent of Brabant, though ſurrounded by it, and ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria.

4. *Province of Limburg, S. E.*

Chief Towns	Limburg, ſubject to Auſtria.	
	Maeſtricht	Subject to the Dutch.
	Dalem	Subject to the Dutch.
	Fauquemont, or Valkeuburg	Subject to the Dutch.

5. *Province of Luxemburg, S. E.*

Auſtrian Luxemburg	Luxemburg.	
French Luxemburg	Thionville	S. E.
	Montmedy	S. E.

6. *Province of Namur, in the middle, ſubject to Auſtria.*

Chief Towns	Namur, on the Sambre and Maeſe.	
	Charleroy, on the Sambre.	

7. *Province of Hainault.*

Auſtrian Hainault	Mons	In the middle
	Aeth	In the middle
	Enguien	In the middle
French Hainault	Valenciennes	S. W.
	Bouchain	S. W.
	Candé	S. W.
	Landrecy	S. W.

8. *Province of Cambreſis, S. W.*

Subject to France	Cambray.	
	Crevecœur, S. of Cambray.	

9. *Province of Artois, S. W.*

Subject to France	Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe.	
	St. Omer, E. of Boulogne.	
	Aire, S. of St. Omer.	
	St. Venant, E. of Aire.	
	Bethune, S. E. of Aire.	
	Terouen, S. of St. Omer.	

10. *Province of Flanders.*

Dutch Flanders	Sluys, N.	
	Axel, N.	
	Hulſt, N.	
	Sas Van Ghent, N.	
Auſtrian Flanders	Ghent, on the Scheldt.	
	Bruges	N. W. near the ſea.
	Oſtend	N. W. near the ſea.
	Newport	N. W. near the ſea.
	Oudenarde, on the Scheldt.	
	Courtray	On the Lys.
	Dixmude	On the Lys.
	Ypres, N. of Liſle.	
	Tournay, on the Scheldt.	
	Menin, on the Lis.	
French Flanders	Liſle, W. of Tournay.	
	Dunkirk, on the coaſt, E. of Calais.	
	Douay, W. of Arras.	
	Mardike, W. of Dunkirk.	
	St. Amand, N. of Valencien.	
	Gravelines, E. of Calais.	

In the inland parts of theſe Netherlands, the climate is much more ſettled than ours, but their winters are uſually more ſevere. The air is better than that of the United Provinces, except on the coaſts of Brabant and Flanders, where it is exceedingly unwholeſome. The ſoil differs according to the ſituation; for in ſome parts it is a deep rich mould, while others exhibit nothing but barren ſands. The animal productions of theſe are the ſame as in the United Provinces; and the vegetable conſiſt in corn, fruits, garden-ſtuff of all kinds, paſture, and prodigious quantities of flax, in the cultivating of which the inhabitants have rendered even the barren parts of their country profitable. This country in general is remarkable for breeding black cattle; and the province of Luxemburg abounds in corn, great part of which is ſent to foreign markets.

In the province of Limburg, there are a few inconſiderable mountains; excepting which, the whole country is a flat, interſperſed with ſome riſing hills; which are generally covered with wood. Formerly there were ſeveral very large foreſts in this country, of which Ardennes was the principal, but now great part of them are turned into arable lands.

In the provinces of Luxemburg, Limburg, and Liege, are mines of iron, copper, lead, brimſtone, and quarries of various kinds of marble; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a ſpecies of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with a great plenty of foſſil nitre.

The principal rivers are the Maeſe, Scheldt, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The moſt conſiderable of theſe, and into which all the reſt fall, are the Maeſe and the Scheldt. The Scheldt has already been mentioned in the United Provinces. The principal canals are thoſe of Bruſſels, Ghent, and Oſtend. The firſt of theſe extends to the Scheldt, which is fifteen miles.

With reſpect to the trade and commerce of the Auſtrian Netherlands, we have to obſerve, that in ancient days theſe countries were the centre of the woollen manufactures, which are now the manufactures of Great-Britain, originally derived from the Flemings, whoſe country was thereby rendered immenſely rich and populous.

One of the principal branches of manufacture at preſent carried on in theſe provinces, is the lace known by the name of bone-lace, of which the fineſt and beſt of the kind in Europe is made at Bruſſels. The variety of it is very great; and we are told of lace made in that part of the country, which has been ſold at from 30l. to 50l. ſterling a yard: by which extraordinary improvements they have ſo far ſurpaſſed the French and Italians, and even the Venetians themſelves, that thoſe laſt have very little trade for their lace, though they were once juſtly famed for the fineſt in the world. The principal places for this manufacture are, Mechlin, Bruſſels, Louvain, Valenciennes, Antwerp, and the adjacent towns; and it employs a great number of people, eſpecially women and children.

Fine thread is another of their manufactures, the great quantity of fine lace cauſing a great demand for fine thread, as their linens require a proportional quantity of linen yarn; and both theſe together conſtitute another manufacture of no little concern to the people.

Their manufacture of linen is very conſiderable, and conſiſts of two ſorts chiefly, viz. cambricks and lawns. Their cambricks are made ſo fine, as to have been ſold at from twenty to thirty ſhillings per yard in theſe countries. They were formerly made only in the provinces of Artois and Cambreſis, from which laſt they had their name of Cambricks; but the demand for them being ſo great of late years, the whole country has been ſcarcely large enough to carry on this

this manufacture, eſpecially that part of it bordering on France, together with the great cities of Douay, Liſle, Mons, Ypres, Ghent, and Bruges, and all the cities upon the Lower Scheldt; which manufacture alſo is of a magnitude greater than can be eaſily repreſented.

Another manufacture in which the Flemings are employed, is that of the woollen, which includes the tapeſtry made at Arras, Dourlens, Douay, and the adjacent country; alſo ſome druggets and fine ſtuffs, made at Liſle, and in the country near it: moſt of which are, however, conſumed amongſt themſelves, though ſome go to France.

The exports of their manufactures are ſo conſiderable, that very good judges have eſtimated them at no leſs, in fine ſiſter-thread, bone-lace, and linen (including their lawns and cambricks) than to the value of two millions ſterling a year, from thoſe provinces called the Auſtrian Netherlands, including part of the conquered provinces, as well as the diſtrict called Walloon Flanders, and the province of Artois. Nor in this account are there included their exports of tapeſtry or woollen ſtuffs; of all which they export large quantities into France and Germany.

The Flemings have of late years much improved in the manufacture of ſilk; for they not only make at preſent ſufficient for their own uſe, but for exportation. Thoſe ſilks they make now chiefly at Liſle, Bruſſels, and Antwerp; and this manufacture was greatly encouraged by the public, inſomuch that the Flemings, in the year 1725, began to caution the Eaſt-India Company, then attempted to be eſtabliſhed at Oſtend, to bring no more ſilks into the country, leſt it ſhould prove the means to ſupplant and deſtroy their own manufacture of ſilk, which employed ſo many thouſands of their people.

Ship-building is a great article of trade; not that the Flemings, who have but two ports, can be ſuppoſed to build abundance of ſhips; but by ſhips here is meant only galliot, hoys, lighters, bilanders, and ſuch like veſſels, all of which they call ſchips. Of thoſe they have ſuch great numbers, that there muſt be abundance of hands employed in building them, and eſpecially in the conſtant repairing and refitting, which they are always wanting. In time of war it has been frequent to have ſeven or eight hundred of them brought together for carrying proviſion, military ſtores, ammunition, and the like; and it is likely that they have not fewer than twenty thouſand of this ſort of veſſels in the ſeveral provinces. All thoſe are built within themſelves; and it is no little trade they are obliged to carry on, for the ſupply of deals, timber, planks, maſts, yards, anchors, iron work, and other materials for this buſineſs; beſides pitch, tar, oil, hemp, &c.

When theſe things are conſidered, we need not wonder how all this great multitude of people, who inhabit theſe provinces, are employed and maintained. The carrying on ſuch valuable manufactures muſt employ innumerable hands; and the quantity of goods they export muſt bring great returns home, as well in goods as money, by which the Flemings are far from being poor. On the contrary, they are generally well circumſtanced, there being but few hands among them but what can earn their bread; the very children, even from five years old, being ordinarily employed.

Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are found in many parts. In 1607 ſixteen hundred gold pieces were found at Dendermonde, and proved to be a collection of ancient medals of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus. The other curioſities conſiſt chiefly in their public edifices and churches, in many of which the paintings are exquiſitely fine. Formerly there was not one of theſe but deſerved a particular deſcription, and volumes have been filled with this ſubject only.

At preſent their noble fortifications, pubic buildings, and trade, are greatly gone to decay. The following are now the moſt conſiderable.

Bruſſels gives name to the territory, and is the capital not only of Brabant but of the Netherlands, though only the ſecond in rank. This city is well built and populous, and carries on a conſiderable trade all over Europe in camblets, laces, and tapeſtries, which are manufactured here. The public buildings in general, particularly the palaces and courts of the ſeveral princes, counts, and other perſons of diſtinction, together with the churches and cloiſters, are large and magnificent. The inns or eating-houſes here are equal to any in the world: a ſtranger may dine any time between twelve and three, on ſeven or eight diſhes, for leſs than a ſhilling Engliſh. The wines alſo are very good and cheap; and, for ſixpence Engliſh by the hour, you may have a coach to carry you to any part of the city.

Ghent, is the capital of Flanders, and one of the largeſt cities in Europe, being ſeven miles in compaſs within the walls. It abounds in monaſteries, churches, hoſpitals, and market-places. The ſtadthouſe and cathedral are grand ſtructures; and under the latter is a noble crypta, or ſubterraneous church.

Antwerp is a large well built city, containing twenty-two ſquares, and above two hundred ſtreets, which are all exceedingly ſpacious. Moſt of the houſes are of free-ſtone, very high, with courts before, and gardens behind. The churches are exceedingly magnificent, particularly the cathedral, which has one of the fineſt ſteeples in the world: moſt of the pictures with which they are adorned are painted by Rubens, and Quintin Maſſeys, the famous blackſmith. The ſtadthouſe is very elegant, as is alſo the Exchange, which coſt the city 300,000 crowns building. This town, from being once the emporium of the European continent, is now almoſt deſtitute of trade; the Dutch, ſoon after they threw off the Spaniſh yoke, having ſunk veſſels loaded with ſtone in the mouth of the Scheldt, and thereby ſhut up the entrance of that river to ſhips of large burden: the reader need not be informed by what motives this avaricious people were inſtigated by that cruel act.

Louvain, the capital of the Auſtrian Brabant, was formerly exceeding populous, but now there are meadows, vineyards, and gardens within the walls. The public buildings are very beautiful, particularly the ſtadthouſe, the church of St. Peter, that belonging to the Jeſuits, and the Engliſh convent for ladies. The great trade once carried on in this city is inconceiveable; but at preſent it is only famous for brewing excellent beer.

The inhabitants of theſe Netherlands are ſuppoſed to amount to about a million and a half, and are diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of Flemings. They are in general a heavy, blunt, honeſt people, and exremely indelicate in their manners. They differ, however, according to the ſituation of the places wherein they reſide. Thoſe which border on France reſemble that people in their behaviour, dreſs, &c. while thoſe who live near Holland imitate the Dutch. The Flemings were known formerly to fight deſperately in defence of their country; they make, however, no great figure at preſent. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants.

The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Roman Catholic, but every ſect may live peaceably, and enjoy the free exerciſe of their perſuaſions, though not in a public manner. The inhabitants on the frontiers of Holland ſpeak Dutch; as thoſe who reſide in the provinces ſubject to France uſe a very bad French; the reſt are a mixture between both, and their language is a different dialect of the German from that of the Dutch.

They have three Univerſities, viz. Louvain, Douay, and St. Omer. The firſt was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges, granted to it at different times by the dukes of

that country and the popes. It conſiſts of above forty colleges, and in the hall where the public exerciſes are performed, are three ſpacious rooms, where lectures are read every morning in divinity, law, and phyſic, to which the ſtudents in every college may reſort.

The archbiſhoprics are Cambray, and Malines, or Mechlin; the biſhoprics are, Antwerp, Bruges, Ghent, Tournay, Arras, Ypres, Namur, Ruremonde, and St. Omer.

Very little can be ſaid with reſpect to learning in theſe provinces. The moſt celebrated geniuſes of theſe Netherlands were produced among the Jeſuits, and their works treated chiefly on theology, the civil and canon law, and Latin poems and plays. Strada is celebrated as an excellent hiſtorian and poet. But the Flemings have long excelled in painting and ſculpture, witneſs the works of Rubens and Vandyke; and Fiamingo, or the Flemiſh models for heads, particularly thoſe of children. Their painters and ſculptors form a ſchool by themſelves.

The Auſtrian Netherlands were conſidered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal houſe, as being ſovereign of the whole, was the ſole director and ſummoning prince. This circle contributed its ſhare to the impoſts of the empire, and ſent an envoy to the diet, but was not ſubject to the judicatories of the empire. At preſent they muſt be conſidered as annexed to France, and under the ſame conſtitution and government.

Theſe revenues aroſe from the demeſne lands and cuſtoms: but ſo much was the trade of Auſtrian Flanders reduced, that they are ſaid not to have defrayed the expence of their government. The French Netherlands brought in a conſiderable revenue to the nation.

The arms of Flanders are, *Or*, a lion ſable, langued gules.

HISTORY OF THE NETHERLANDS.

THE ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands were anciently called Gallia Belgica, and the greater part of them conquered by the Romans, in whoſe poſſeſſion they continued till the northern nations broke into Italy, and put an end to the weſtern empire. After being deſerted by the Romans, they were poſſeſſed by the Goths, and other northern people, and the country divided into ſmall governments, independent of one another. In this ſtate they continued for ſome years; but at laſt, partly by marriage, and partly by conqueſt, they became annexed to the dominions of the duke of Burgundy.

About the year 1543, the emperor Charles V. united the ſeventeen provinces into one body, and ordered that they ſhould for ever continue under the ſame prince, without being in the leaſt ſeparated or diſmembered. Purſuant to this order, and at the unanimous requeſt of the ſtates of all the provinces, he publiſhed a perpetual and irrevocable edict, by which it was enacted, that in order to keep all thoſe provinces under the ſame prince, the right of ſucceſſion ſhould always take place, both in a right and collateral line, notwithſtanding the common laws of ſome provinces to the contrary. Charles even attempted to incorporate the Netherlands with the Germanic body, and to form them into a circle of the empire, under the the title of the circle of Burgundy, in order to engage the princes of the empire to intereſt themſelves in the preſervation of theſe provinces. But the inhabitants of the Netherlands, always jealous of their liberty, were far from being pleaſed with their incorporation, and when ſummoned to pay their ſhare of the expences of the empire, they refuſed the order; and the German princes, in return, declared they would take no part in the wars of Flanders, but would, for the future, conſider thoſe provinces as no part of the Germanic body.

As Philip of Auſtria and his ſon Charles were both born in the Netherlands, they entertained for theſe provinces that natural affection which moſt men have for their native country; and knowing how remarkably tenacious the inhabitants were of their liberties, and of the privileges granted them by former princes, they took care to preſerve them, and even ſuffered the ſtates, who are the proper guardians of the liberties of the people, to ſhare, in ſome degree, the ſupreme authority with them. Happy had it been for both prince and people, if this generous conduct had been obſerved by ſucceeding princes; but Philip II. ſon to Charles V. had not the ſame affection for the Netherlands; nor did he poſſeſs thoſe generous ſentiments, with which his father laboured to inſpire him. Born in Spain, he had no affection for the country of his anceſtors; and when he removed from the Netherlands to take poſſeſſion of the crown of Spain, he left the government in the hands of a weak woman, aſſiſted by the proud and haughty cardinal de Glanville. This gave occaſion to continual conplaints; but Philip was deaf to their remonſtrances; and, inſtead of making uſe of the mild and moderate meaſures of his anceſtors, he had recourſe to the moſt violent and cruel proceedings. The Spaniards whom he ſent thither, being born and educated under a deſpotic government, jealous of the liberties, and envious of the riches of the people, trampled on their privileges, and treated them like ſlaves.

Exaſperated at theſe proceedings, and preferring death to the loſs of liberty, a general inſurrection enſued, and the inſurgents were headed by the prince of Orange, and the counts Hoorn and Egmont. The reformation of Luther was at that time gaining ground apace in many of the provinces, and all his diſciples joined the malcontents. Alarmed at the progreſs of this rebellion, and determined, if poſſible, to cruſh the reformation in its birth, Philip eſtabliſhed a kind of inquiſition in the Netherlands, and many thouſands of innocent perſons were put to death.

Several battles were fought between the contending parties, in one of which the malcontents were totally defeated, and the counts Hoorn and Egmont taken priſoners and beheaded. The prince of Orange had the good fortune to eſcape, and, retiring into Holland, prevailed upon that and ſeveral of the adjacent provinces to form a league for their mutual defence; and the treaty was accordingly ſigned at Utrecht in the year 1579. And though theſe revolters were at firſt thought ſo deſpicable as to be termed beggars by the court of Spain, yet their enemies ſoon perceived their miſtake: a brave and hardy people, fighting for every thing that is dear to them, are never a deſpicable enemy. Headed by their own princes, and aſſiſted by Elizabeth, queen of England, they defeated their tyrants, and forced the crown of Spain, about the year 1609, to declare them a free people, and they were afterwards acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent ſtate, under the appellation of The United Provinces.

Since that period they have been conſidered as a powerful republic; and during the uſurpation of Cromwell, and the reign of Charles II. their naval force was nearly equal to that of England, and far ſuperior to that of any other power in Europe. When the houſe of Auſtria, which for ſome ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable; and when the jealouſy of the public was excited againſt the Bourbon family, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had diſpoſſeſſed the prince of Orange of the ſtadtholderſhip; the ſpirit of the people was ſuch, that they revived it in the perſon of the prince, afterwards William III. king of Great-Britain; and during

GERMANY
Divided in its CIRCLES.

BURGUNDY
LOWER SAXONY
UPPER SAXONY
WESTPHALIA
LOWER RHINE
UPPER RHINE
SWABIA
FRANCONIA
BAVARIA
AUSTRIA
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
SILESIA
POLAND
PART OF POLAND
PRUSSIA
BRANDENBURG
POMERANIA
MECKLENBURG
HOLSTEIN
BRUNSWICK
MAGDEBURG
ANHALT
THURINGIA
HESSE
WETTERAW
WESTERWALD
MARK
BERG
JULIERS
TREVES
LORRAIN
LUXEMBURG
PALATINATE
BADEN
WURTENBURG
HOLACH
ONSPACH
BAYREUTH
SAXE GOTHA
SAXE ALTENBURG
MISNIA
LUSATIA
ALSATIA
HUNGARY
BALTIC SEA
DENMARK
Sleswick
Hamburg
Bremen
Lubeck
Rostock
Stralsund
Dantzic
Berlin
Hanover
Brunswick
Frankfort
Cologne
Amsterdam
Leyden
Rotterdam
Antwerp
Brussels
Liege
Namur
Luxemburg
Metz
Treves
Coblentz
Mentz
Worms
Spire
Manheim
Philipsburg
Darmstat
Wurtzburg
Bamberg
Nuremberg
Ratisbon
Augsburg
Ulm
Stuttgard
Munic
Vienna
Prague
Egra
Olmutz
Breslaw
Glogan
Posna
Gnesna
Frankfort
Dresden
Leipzig
Magdeburg
Hamburg
Lubeck
Embden
Groningen
Zuyder Zee
Rhine R.
Weser R.
Elbe R.
Oder R.
Danube R.
Rhine R.
Main R.
Neckar R.
Moselle R.
Sambre R.
Meuse R.
Lech R.
Inn R.
Ens R.
Drave R.
Save R.
Theiss R.
Vistula R.
Warta R.
Netze R.
Notec R.
Pregel R.
Memel R.
Niemen R.
Bug R.
Dniester R.
Pruth R.
Moldau R.
Eger R.
Iser R.
Morava R.
Waag R.
Gran R.
Raab R.
Leytha R.
Drave R.
Save R.
Theiss R.
Vistula R.
Warta R.
Netze R.
Notec R.
Pregel R.
Memel R.
Niemen R.
Bug R.
Dniester R.
Pruth R.
Moldau R.
Eger R.
Iser R.
Morava R.
Waag R.
Gran R.
Raab R.
Leytha R.

during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy againſt Louis XIV. king of France, whom they at length humbled.

The other provinces of the Netherlands were not ſo fortunate, but were reduced by the duke of Alva to the obedience of Spain, by whom they were, however, in a great meaſure, reſtored to their ancient privileges; every province was allowed its great council or parliament, whoſe concurrence was neceſſary in making laws, or raiſing money for the uſe of the government.

Ten of theſe provinces, generally called the Low Countries, remained in poſſeſſion of the Spaniards, till the duke of Marlborough, general of the allied army, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in the year 1706; in conſequence of which, Bruſſels, the capital, and great part of theſe provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. for their ſovereign; and his daughter the late empreſs queen, by virtue of the pragmatic ſanction, enjoyed the poſſeſſion of them till the year 1741, when the French conquered them all, except part of the province of Luxemburg. They were, however, reſtored to their former ſovereign by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, the French retaining only Artois, the Cambreſis, part of Flanders, part of Hainault, and part of Luxemburg.

The late differences between the States-General and the emperor of Germany, may probably be attributed to their ſeparation from Great Britain. The emperor complained of a violation of treaties ſubſiſting between the ſtates and his anceſtors, and repreſented to them, that the ſhutting up the Scheldt had long been a ſubmiſſion not obligatory on the Auſtrian Low Countries; which right his Imperial majeſty inſiſting on, a ſhip was ſent out by his order, the captain and crew of which were expreſsly forbidden to ſubmit to any detention or examination from any ſhips of the republic it might meet with on the Scheldt, or to make the leaſt declaration at any of their cuſtom-houſes on that river. This ſhip, with another afterwards ſent, were ſtopt in their paſſage up the Scheldt to Antwerp; which conduct the emperor conſidered as inſulting his flag, and as equivalent to a declaration of war on the part of the republic: he thereupon recalled his miniſter from the Hague, and made the neceſſary diſpoſitions for aſſembling an army of 80,000 men in the Low Countries.

The Dutch, by their manifeſto, pleaded, that by Art. XIV. of the treaty concluded at Munſter, Jan. 30, 1648, it was agreed that the Scheldt ſhould remain ſhut by their High Mightineſſes. They likewiſe referred to ſeveral other treaties in vindication of their conduct, and particularly a convention, reſpecting Art. XVII. of the barrier treaty, ſigned Dec. 22, 1718, in which the ceſſion of the lands and diſtricts pertaining to the poſſeſſion of the Scheldt was ſpecially and expreſsly confirmed and made clear; and inſiſted, that they had, to the great detriment of the republic, fulfilled the engagements they had entered into for the preſervation of the pragmatic ſanction, and had aſſiſted the houſe of Auſtria with all their forces. The manifeſto, among other matters, alſo repreſents, that notwithſtanding their High Mightineſſes had often replied to ſeveral pretences alledged againſt them, it was inſiſted on the part of his Imperial majeſty, in April 1784, that the guardſhip belonging to the republic, which had been ſtationed off Lillo ſince the peace of Munſter, 1648, that is 136 years, ſhould be removed, his majeſty pretending that the Lower Scheldt, as far as Saltingen, belonged to him.

The negotiations between theſe two powers not producing the deſired effect, and the republic avowing their determination to ſupport what they deemed to be their incontrovertible right, great preparations were made for immediate hoſtilities againſt the Dutch; and ſeveral hundreds of the Imperialiſts, with ſome field-pieces, advancing towards the counterſcarp of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered the ſluices to be opened Nov. 7, 1784, which effected an inundation that laid under water many miles of flat conntry around the forts on the Scheldt, to preſerve them from an attack.

A treaty of accommodation was concluded between the parties in the beginning of the year 1786; by which it appears, that the Scheldt is agreed to be open to the emperor for inland navigation, though ſhut towards the ocean in favour of Holland, according to the treaty of Munſter. Each of the contracting parties are at liberty to make what regulations may be thought expedient for carrying on internal commerce. As the imports of the Dutch carried through the Imperial dominions are beyond all compariſon greater than the exports made from the emperor's dominions into thoſe of the United Provinces; conſequently, ſhould any diſpute ariſe in future, the emperor will have an advantage of more than ten to one in his favour. Beſides, the emperor may impoſe what duties he thinks proper on the Batavian veſſels that ſhall ſail through that part of the Scheldt which he commands; and the Dutch, in return, may lay what duties they pleaſe upon the Imperial veſſels ſailing into any part of their territories.

In 1792, the French inſiſted on their right to the navigation of the Scheldt, in prejudice to the claim of the United Provinces; but they were at length obliged to give it up.

Since the commencement of the troubles on the Continent in 1792, a treaty of defenſive alliance (conſiſting of ten articles) has been entered into between the king of Great Britain and their noble and high mightineſſes the States General, "for the good of both parties, and for the maintenance of their general and ſeparate tranquility." And

On the 16th of November, 1792, his Britannic majeſty cauſed to be preſented to the States-General, by his ambaſſador lord Auckland, a declaration, expreſſive of the deſire of the king his maſter, to cement and perpetuate the intimate union eſtabliſhed between the two powers, for the maintainance of their own rights and ſecurity, &c. To which their high mightineſſes returned an immmediate anſwer to the ſame effect.

CHAP. XVIII.

GERMANY.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Soil, Productions, Mountains, Rivers, Mineral Waters, Curioſities, Learning, Religion, Language, &c.

THE empire of Germany is ſituated between 45 and 55 deg. of north lat. and between 5 and 19 deg. of eaſt long. It is about 600 miles in length, and 520 in breadth; and is bounded on the north by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the eaſt, by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia; on the ſouth, by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy; and on the weſt, by Prance and the Low Countries, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhine, the Maeſe, and the Moſelle.

Germany is divided into nine circles, whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the ſouth.

The northern circles contain - -	Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Weſtphalia.
The circles in the middle - - - -	Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, Franconia.
The ſouthern circles - - - - - -	Auſtria, Bavaria, Swabia.

1. UPPER

1. Upper Saxony Circle.

Pomerania in the north; chief towns Stettin and Stralſund.

Brandenburgh in the middle, ſubject to its own elector the king of Pruſſia; chief towns Stendel, Berlin, Potſdam, Frankfort, and Cuſtrin.

Saxony Proper, in the ſouth, ſubject to its own elector; chief towns Wittinburg, Bautzen, Gorlits, Dreſden, and Miſſein.

Thuringia landgrave Weſt; chief town Erfort, ſubject to the elector of Mentz.

The duchies of Saxe Meinungen; chief town Meinungen; Saxe Zeits; chief town Zeits: Saxe Altenburg, chief town Altenburg; Saxe Weimar, chief town Weimar; Saxe Gotha, chief town Gotha; Saxe Eiſnach, chief town Eiſnach; Saxe Saalfeldt, chief town Saalfeldt: ſubject to their own dukes.

The counties of Schwartſburg, chief town Schwartſburgh; Belchingen, chief town Belchingen; Mansfeldt, chief town Mansfeldt: ſubject to their reſpective counts.

The duchies of Hall, middle; chief town Hall, ſubject to Pruſſia; Saxe Naumberg, chief town Naumberg, ſubject to its own duke.

The counties of Stolberg, chief town Stolberg; Hohenſtein, chief town Northhauſen.

Principality of Anhalt, chief towns Deſſau, Zerbſt, Bernberg, and Kothen.

Biſhopric of Saxe Hall, chief town Hall.

Biſhopric of Voigtland, chief town Plawen; ſubject to the elector of Saxony.

Duchy of Merſberg, middle, chief town Merſberg; ſubject to the elector of Saxony.

2. Lower Saxony Circle.

Holſtein duchy, north of the Elbe; chief towns Keil, ſubject to Holſtein-Gottorp; Meldorp and Glucſtat, ſubject to Denmark; Hamburg and Lubec, Imperial cities.

Lauenburg duchy, chief town Lauenburg; ſubject to Hanover.

Duchies of Brunſwick Proper, chief town Brunſwick; Wolfenbuttle, chief town Wolfenbuttle; counties of Rheinſtein, chief town Rheinſtein; Blanckenburg, chief town Blanckenburg; ſubject to the duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle.

Duchies of Calenburg, chief town Hanover; Grubbenhagen, chief town Grubbenhagen; Gottingen, chief town Gottingen: ſubject to the elector of Hanover, king of Great Britain.

Lunenburg duchy, chief towns Lunenburg and Zell, ſubject to Hanover.

Bremen and Verden duchies, chief towns Bremen, an Imperial city, and Verden; ſubject to Hanover.

Mecklenburg duchy, chief towns Schwerin and Guſtrow.

Biſhopric of Hilderſheim, chief town Hilderſheim, an Imperial city; ſubject to its biſhop.

Duchy of Magdeburg, chief town Magdeburg; ſubject to the king of Pruſſia.

Duchy of Halberſtadt, chief town Halberſtadt; ſubject to the king of Pruſſia.

3. Westphalia Circle.

North diviſion. County of Embden, or E. Frieſland, ch. town Embden, an Imperial city; ſubject to the king of Pruſſia: counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhurſt, ch. towns Oldenburgh and Delmenhurſt; ſubject to the king of Denmark; Hoye and Diepholt, ch. towns Hoye and Diepholt; ſubject to Hanover.

Middle diviſion. Biſhopric of Munſter, ch. town Munſter; ſubject to its biſhop: biſhoprics of Paderborn and Oſnaburg, ch. towns Paderborn and Oſnaburg; ſubject to its biſhop: county of Lippe, ch. town Lippe Pyrmont; ſubject to its own count: duchy of Minden and county of Ravenſburg. ch. towns Minden and Ravenſburgh; ſubject to Pruſſia: duchy of Weſtphalia, ch. town Arenſburgh; ſubject to the elector of Cologn: counties of Tecklenburg, ch. town Tecklenburg; Ritberg, ch. town Ritberg; Schawenburg, ch. town Schawenburg; ſubject to their counts.

Weſtern diviſion. Duchy of Cleves, chief town Cleves; ſubject to the king of Pruſſia; duchies of Berg and Juliers, ch. towns Duſſeldorf, Juliers, and Aix; ſubject to the elector palatine: county of Mark, ch. town Ham; ſubject to Pruſſia: biſhopric of Liege, ch. town Liege; ſubject to its own biſhop: county of Bentheim, ch. town Bentheim; ſubject to Hanover: county of Steinfort, ch. town Steinfort; ſubject to its count.

4. Upper Rhine Circle.

Landgraviate of Haſſe-Caſſel, ch. town Caſſel; Heſſe Marpurg, ch. town Marpurg; Heſſe Darmſtadt, ch. town Darmſtadt; ſubject to their reſpective landgraves.

Haſſe Homberg, ch. town Homberg; Haſſe Rhinefeldt, ch. town Rhinefeldt; Haſſe Wanfried, ch. town Wonfield.

Counties of Naſſau Dillenburgh, ch. town Dillenburg; Naſſau Diets, ch. town Diets; Naſſau Hadamar, ch. town Hadamar; Naſſau Kerberg, ch. town Kerberg; Naſſau Siegen, ch. town Siegen; Naſſau Idſtein, ch. town Idſtein; Naſſau Weilburg, ch. town Weilburg; Naſſau Wiſbaden, ch. town Wiſbaden; Naſſau Bielſtein, ch. town Bielſtein; Naſſau Otweiler, ch. town Otweiler; Naſſau Uſingen, ch. town Uſingen; each county ſubject to its own count, of the houſe of Naſſau.

Territory of Frankfort, ch. town Frankfort on the Main, an Imperial city; a ſovereign ſtate.

County of Erpach, ch. town Erpach Eaſt; ſubject to its own count.

Biſhopric of Spire, ch. town Spire, on the Rhine, an Imperial city; a ſovereign ſtate.

Duchy of Zwebruggen, or Deux-Ponts, ch. town Deux-Ponts, in the palatinate; ſubject to the duke of Deux-Ponts.

County of Catzenelbogen, ch. town Catzenalbogen on the Lhon; ſubject to Haſſe-Caſſel.

Counties of Waldec, ch. town Waldec; ſubject to its own count; Solms, ch. town Solms; ſubject to its own count: Hanau, ch. town Hanau; ſubject to Heſſe-Caſſel: Eyſenberg, ch. town Eyſenberg; ſubject to its own count: Sayn, ch. town Sayn; Wied, ch. town Wied; Witgenſtein, ch. town Witgenſtein; Hatzfield, ch. town Hatzfield; Weſterberg, ch. town Weſterberg.

Abbey of Fuld, ch. town Fulda; ſubject to its abbot.

Hirſchfelt, ch. town Hirſchfelt; ſubject to Heſſe-Caſſel.

5. Lower Rhine Circle.

Palatinate of the Rhine, on both ſides of that river, ch. towns Heidelbergh on the Neckar, Philiſburg, Manheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine; ſubject to the elector palatine.

Archbiſhoprics and electorates of Cologn, ch. town Cologn on the Rhine; Mentz, ch. towns Bon on the Rhine, Mentz on the Rhine, and Aſchafenburgh on the Maine; Triers, ch. town Triers on the Moſelle: ſubject to their reſpective electors.

Biſhopric of Worms, Worms on the Rhine, an Imperial city; a ſovereign ſtate.

Duchy of Simmeren, ch. town Simmeren; ſubject to its own duke.

Counties of Rhinegraveſtein, ch. town Rhinegraveſtein; Meurs, ch. town Meurs, ſubject to Pruſſia: Veldentz, ch. town Veldentz, ſubject to the elector palatine: Spanheim, ch. town Creutznach; Leymingen, ch. town Leymingen.

6. Fran-

6. FRANCONIA CIRCLE.

Biſhoprics of Wurtſburg, ch. town Wurtſburg; Bamberg, ch. town Bamberg; Aichſtadt, ch. town Aichſtadt: ſubject to their reſpective biſhops.

Marquiſates of Cullenbach, ch. town Cullenbach; Anſpach, ch. town Anſpach; ſubject to their reſpective margraves.

Principality of Henneberg, ch. town Henneberg.

Duchy of Coburg, ch. town Coburg; ſubject to its own duke.

Duchy of Hildburghauſen, ch. town Hildburghauſen; ſubject to its own duke.

Burgraviate of Nuremberg, Nuremberg, an Imperial city; an independent ſtate.

Territory of the great maſter of the Teutonic Order, Mergentheim, ch. town Mergentheim.

Counties of Reineck, ch. town Reineck; Bareith, ch. town Bareith, ſubject to its own margrave: Papenheim, ch. town Papenheim, ſubject to its own count; Wertheim, ch. town Wertheim; Caſſel, ch. town Caſſel; Schwartzenburg, ch. town Schwartzenburg, ſubject to its own count: Holac, ch. town Holac.

7. AUSTRIA CIRCLE.

The whole circle belongs to the emperor, as head of the houſe of Auſtria.

Archduchy of Auſtria Proper, ch. town Vienna.

Duchies of Stiria and Cilley, ch. towns Graz and Cilley: Carinthia, ch. towns Glagenfurt and Lavemund; Carniola, ch. towns Laubach, Zerknits, Trieſte, and St. Veits; Goritia, ch. town Gorits.

County of Tyrol, ch. town Inſpruck.

Archbiſhoprics of Brixen and Trent, ch. towns Brixen and Trent, on the continent of Italy and Switzerland.

8. BAVARIA CIRCLE.

Duchy of Bavaria Proper, on the Danube, ch. towns Munich, Landſhut, Ingolſtadt, Donawert, and Ratiſbon, an Imperial city; ſubject to the elector palatine, as ſucceſſor to the late elector of Bavaria.

Palatinate of Bavaria, ch. towns Amberg and Sultſbach; ſubject to the elector of Bavaria

Frieſſengen, ch. town Frieſſengen; ſubject to its own biſhop.

Biſhopric of Paſſau, ch. town Paſſau; ſubject to its own biſhop.

Duchy of Neuburg, ch. town Neuburg on the Danube, ſubject to the elector palatine.

Archbiſhopric of Saltſburg, ch. town Saltſburg and Hallen; ſubject to its own biſhop.

9. SWABIA CIRCLE.

Duchy of Wurtemburgh, ch. towns Stutgard, Tubingen, and Hailbron, on or near the Neckar; ſubject to the duke of Wurtemburgh Stutgard.

Marquiſates of Baden, ch. towns Baden, Baden Dourlach, on or near the Rhine; ſubject to their own reſpective margraves.

Biſhopric of Augſburg, ch. towns Augſburg, an Imperial city, Hockſtet and Blenheim, on or near the Danube; ſubject to its own biſhop.

Territory of Ulm, Ulm on the Danube, an Imperial city; a ſovereign ſtate.

Biſhopric of Conſtance, ch. town Conſtance on the lake of Conſtance; ſubject to its own biſhop, under the houſe of Auſtria.

Principalities of Mindelheim, ch. town Mindelheim; Furſtenburg, ch. town Furſtenburg; Hohenzollern, ch. town Hohenzollern; ſubject to their reſpective princes.

Counties of Oeting, ch. town Oeting; Koningſeck, ch. town Koninſeck; Hohenrichburgh, ch. town Gemund.

Baronies of Waldburg, ch. town Waldburg; Limpurg, ch. town Limpurg.

Abbies of Kempten, ch. town Kempten on the Iller; Buchaw, ch. town Buchaw; Lindau, ch. town Lindau on the lake of Conſtance; Imperial cities.

Imperial cities or ſovereign ſtates; Nordlingen, Memmingen, Rotweil on the Neckar, and many more.

Black Foreſt and county of Rheinfield, ch. towns Rheinfield and Lauſſenburg; marquiſate of Burgaw, ch. town Burgaw; territory of Briſgaw on the Rhine, ch. town Friburg and Briſac; ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

Germany being a very extenſive tract, the climate muſt vary according to the ſituation of places. In the north the air is cold, and the weather changeable, both which are unfavourable to vegetation; in the ſouth it is much warmer, eſpecially in winter; and in the centre of the country it is ſettled, temperate, and ſerene. Upon the whole, neither the climate nor air are materially different from thoſe of England. The ſoil varies as much as the climate: in many parts it is exceedingly fruitful, being cultivated quite to the tops of the mountains, but in others it is bare and ſterile; and as agriculture is now making great progreſs in Germany, there is no doubt but this land will be turned to ſome advantage.

There are few animals which are not to be found either in one part or the other of Germany; horſes, oxen, cows, ſheep, and goats from the domeſtic part of theſe; and in the foreſts are bears, wolves, lynxes, foxes, wild cats, wild goats, boars, of the legs of which hams are made, and ſent to moſt parts of Europe, being eſteemed great delicacies, and are preferred by many of the Engliſh to thoſe of Weſtmoreland, &c. for grain and the delicacy of their flavour; badgers, martens, hares, rabbits, deer, and the chamois goat. A ſpecies of leopards and beavers are likewiſe found in Moravia. The glutton of Germany is ſaid to be the moſt voracious of all animals.

There are a great variety of tame and wild fowl in Germany, which are ſent to all parts of Europe, viz. Turkeys, geeſe, ducks, pigeons, wild geeſe, wild ducks, ſwans, buſtards, pheaſants, wood-cocks, partridges, grouſe, ſnipes, fieldfares, quails, ortolans, ſpoonbills, falcons, herons, hawks, larks, and other ſinging birds.

In Germany, the rivers and lakes abound with ſalmon, pike, carp, trout, perch, roach, jack, ſturgeon, barbel, eels, eel-pouts, crabs, &c. and in the Danube or Iſter, are ſeveral fiſh, which ſeem to be of the ſalt-water-kind. Among the moſt remarkable of theſe is the hanſon, which bears ſome reſemblance to our ſturgeon; but is almoſt as large as the crocodile, ſome of them being eighteen or twenty feet long; it is ſaid that ſhoals of them will aſſemble at the ſound of a trumpet or horn. By the Germans they are eſteemed very delicate eating.

The cultivated parts of this country yield corn, turkey-wheat, buck-wheat, rye, ſpelt, barley, oats, peas, beans, vetches or tares, lentils, chiches, millet, aniſe, cummin, hemp, flax, hops, tobacco, madder, woad, ſaffron, carthamus or baſtard ſaffron, truffles, potatoes, and every ſpecies of culinary herbs and roots. The fruits produced there are apples, pears, plums, oranges, lemons, citrons, olives, figs, peaches, apricots, medlars, almonds, cheſnuts, filberds, and walnuts. Vineyards are cultivated in different parts of Germany, according to which the wine varies in its flavour; but thoſe held in the greateſt eſteem are the Rheniſh, Moſelle, Franconian, Weckar, Hocker, and Muſcadel. Auſtria likewiſe yields excellent wine, particularly Rheniſh, and Moſelle, which have a medicinal quality. In this empire vaſt quantities of honey are produced.

In Germany there are many large tracts of mountains, among the moſt conſiderable of which are the Alps, that divide from Italy, and thoſe that ſeparate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. Great part of this empire, however, is a ſpacious plain, in-

interſperſed

terſperſed here and there with agreeable hills, which only tend to heighten the beauty of the ſcene.

Germany was formerly a very woody country, and there are ſtill large foreſts remaining; but that called the Hercynian, which in the time of Cæſar was nine days' journey in length, is now divided into woods, which go by particular names, and in many places it is quite deſtroyed. The trees produced in this country are oak, beech, pine, white and red fir, alder, aſh, birch, lime-tree, aſp, or black poplar, larch, plane-tree, cheſnut, olive, and walnut. Great quantities of pot-aſh, pitch, and charcoal are made in different parts of this empire; and for the benefit of the ſilk manufacture, the mulberry-tree, particularly the white ſort, is greatly cultivated.

No country can boaſt a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head ſtands the Danube or Donaw, ſo called from the ſwiftneſs of the current, and which ſome pretend to be naturally the fineſt river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, it is ſo broad, that in the wars between the Turks and Chriſtians ſhips of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it paſſes is inconceivable. The Danube, however, contains a vaſt number of cataracts and whirlpools; its ſtream is rapid, and its courſe, without reckoning turnings and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weſer, and Moſelle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are thoſe of Conſtance and Bregentz. Beſides theſe, are the Chiemſee, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zirnitzer-ſee, in the duchy of Carniola, whoſe waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Beſides theſe lakes and rivers, in ſome of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of ſtanding water, which are next to peſtilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable diſorders.

Germany is ſaid to contain more of theſe than all Europe beſides. The Spa waters, and thoſe of Seltzer and Pyrmont, are well known. Thoſe of Aix-la-Chapelle are ſtill more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath; and the ſprings of both are ſo hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they uſe them. Each of theſe, and many other waters have their partiſans in the medical faculty; and if we believe them, cure diſeaſes internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wiſbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, are likewiſe reported to perform wonders in almoſt all diſeaſes. The mineral ſprings at the laſt mentioned place are ſaid to intoxicate as ſoon as wine, and therefore they are incloſed. Carlſbad and Baden baths have been deſcribed and recommended by many great phyſicians, and uſed with great ſucceſs by many royal perſonages. It is, however, not improbable that great part of the ſalutary virtues aſcribed to theſe waters is owing to the exerciſe and amuſements of the patients, and numbers of the company which crowd to them from all parts of the world; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amuſement and converſation.

Moſt parts of Germany abound in mines; many of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, ſulphur, nitre, and vitriol. In Auſtria, Bavaria, Sileſia, and the Lower Saxony, are found ſalt-petre, ſalt-mines, and ſalt-pits; as likewiſe carbuncles, amethiſts, jaſper, ſapphire, agate, alabaſter, pearls of various kinds, rubies, and turquois ſtones. Quarries of curious marble, ſlate, chalk, ochre, alum, bitumens, and ſeveral other foſſils, are found in Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege. In ſeveral places ſtones are dug out of the ground, bearing on them the repreſentation of divers animals, trees, and ſometimes even a human form may be diſtinguiſhed. Coal-pits are found in moſt of the circles, which in their quality do not materially differ from thoſe of England; and in the electorate of Mentz are found ſome curious pieces of earth, among which is the Terra Sigillata, being of a hard conſiſtence, with white, yellow, and red veins: it is ſaid to be an antidote againſt all kinds of poiſon.

As the empire of Germany is a collection of ſeparate ſtates, each having a different government and police, it hath been difficult to ſpeak with preciſion as to the number of inhabitants: but according to the beſt calculations that have hitherto appeared, they cannot, excluſive of Bohemia, fall far ſhort of ſeventeen millions. This calculation extends only to the principal parts of Germany; and when the inferior parts are added, the number in all, including Bohemia, is now computed at twenty-ſix millions. In their perſons they are tall, fair, and of agreeable features. Both ſexes affect rich dreſſes, which in faſhion reſemble thoſe worn in France and England. At ſome of the courts of Germany the ladies appear in rich furs, loaded with jewels. The wives and daughters of the burghers formerly dreſſed inconceivably fantaſtic, but experience has ſince taught them better, and their appearance is now conformable to their ſtation. With regard to the peaſants and labourers, their dreſs in many parts of Germany is the ſame as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and circumſtances.

The Germans are naturally frank, honeſt, and hoſpitable, and free from artifice or diſguiſe. Their nobility and gentry are indeed ridiculouſly proud of anceſtry and titles, but at the ſame time they are very complaiſant and affable to ſtrangers, and of the ſtricteſt honour. Their fondneſs for title, however, is attended with many inconveniences. They think that the cultivation of the lands is below their attention, though it might treble their revenue. Hence their younger ſons generally engage in the ſervice of the emperor, the electors, or ſome foreign ſtate, or procure ſome rich eccleſiaſtical preferment.

Induſtry, application, and perſeverance, are the great characteriſtics of the German nation, eſpecially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not viſible, eſpecially in watch and clock making, jewellery, turnery, ſculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture.

The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjuſtly, owing to the vaſt plenty of their country in wine and proviſions of every kind. But thoſe practices ſeem now to be wearing out. At the greateſt tables, though the gueſts drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repaſt is commonly finiſhed by coffee, after three or four public toaſts have been given. But the people have more feaſting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

In Germany, the domeſtic diverſions differ but little from thoſe practiſed in England; they conſiſt of billiards, cards, dice, fencing, and the like. In ſummer, the gentry viſit the baths and other places of public reſort. Their favourite field diverſion is hunting; beſides which, the Germans have bull and bear-baiting, and the like.

Chriſtianity, according to moſt authors, was introduced into Germany by St. Clements, St. Creſcens, St. Mark, and ſeveral other holy men; and that ſo early as the middle of the ſecond century, it was in a flouriſhing ſtate there. But this muſt not be underſtood of the whole empire; for it is well known that the remote northern parts remained in Paganiſm till about the end of the ſeventh, or beginning of the eighth century, and the Saxons were not converted till the time of Charlemagne, during whoſe reign the Chriſtian religion was tolerably well eſtabliſhed. After his deceaſe, the popes, taking advantage of the bigotry of ſucceeding emperors, got the entire management of the church into their hands, and exer-

ciſed

ciſed an unlimited power over the whole empire. The Bohemians were the firſt who had an idea of reformation, and made ſo glorious a ſtand for many years againſt the errors of Rome, that they were permitted to take the ſacrament in both kinds, and allowed other freedoms not tolerated in the Romiſh church. This was in a great meaſure owing to the celebrated Engliſh reformer John Wickliff, who lived about 150 years before Luther. In the ſixteenth century the Popiſh tyranny cauſed univerſal murmurings and diſguſt, which encouraged Dr. Martin Luther, John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, to preach openly againſt the errors of the church of Rome, for which the two latter, notwithſtanding the emperor's ſafe conduct, were infamouſly burnt at the council of Conſtance. The ſtates of the empire, who embraced the new tenets, proteſted againſt the concluſion of a diet held at Spire, in 1529, it being therein reſolved, that all innovations in religion, till the decree of a future council could be obtained, were unlawful; and from this meaſure they obtained the name of Proteſtants. A religious war broke out, which was not entirely put a ſtop to till the year 1555, when it was agreed by the treaty of Augſburgh, that the Proteſtants ſhould enjoy a full toleration and liberty; and this toleration was more amply explained and confirmed by ſubſequent treaties. At preſent Germany is pretty equally divided between Papiſts and Proteſtants, the latter of which are again divided into Lutherans and Calviniſts, or Reformed; though there are many ſectaries, and great numbers of Jews in the empire. Sometimes the people profeſs one religion, and their ſovereigns another, as in Pruſſia, where the king and his court are Calviniſts, and moſt of his ſubjects Lutherans. This was likewiſe the caſe in Saxony; but the two laſt electors embraced the religion of Rome, in order to enjoy the crown of Poland. It has been mutually agreed, that when theſe changes happen, the prince ſhall leave his ſubjects the free exerciſe of their religion, with their whole form of church and ſchool-diſcipline, and all other privileges whatſoever. The Roman Catholic, Lutheran, and Calviniſm, are the only religions tolerated in the empire.

In Germany, the Archbiſhop and Biſhop-ſees are variouſly repreſented by different authors; ſome of whom repreſent Vienna as being a ſuffragan to the archiepiſcopal ſee of Saltzburg; and others as being an archbiſhopric, but depending immediately upon the pope. The others are the archbiſhop of Mentz, who has under him twelve ſuffragans; but one of them, the biſhop of Bamberg, is ſaid to be exempted from his juriſdiction:—Triers has three ſuffragans; —Cologne has four;—Magdeburg has five;—Saltzburg has nine, beſides Vienna,—and Bremen three.

At different periods ſince the Reformation, it has been found expedient, to ſatisfy the claims of temporal princes, to ſeculariſe the following biſhop-ſees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberſtadt, Minden, Lubec, and Oſnaburg, which laſt goes alternately to the houſes of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at preſent held by his Britannic majeſty's ſecond ſon. Such of thoſe ſees as were archbiſhoprics are now conſidered as duchies, and the biſhoprics as principalities.

The German language is a dialect of the Teutonic, without the leaſt affinity to the Celtic, and is called High Dutch, being the mother tongue of the whole empire. It abounds with conſonants, is extremely harſh to the ear, and varies ſo much in its dialect, that the people of one province ſeldom underſtand thoſe of another. Latin and French are the moſt uſeful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch. We ſhall here inſert their Lord's prayer:

Unſer Vater, der du biſt im himmel, geheiliget werd dein name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille geſchehe, wie im himmel alſo auch auf erden. Unſer taglich brodt gib uns heute. Und vergib uns unſer ſchuld, als wir vergeben unſern ſchuldigern. Unde fuhre uns nicht in verſuchung. Sondern erlo ſe uns von dem boſen. Den dein is das reich, und die krafft, und die herlichkeit, en ewigheit. Amen.

It may be juſtly be ſaid, that no country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and the inhabitants in general apply themſelves with great aſſiduity to reading and ſtudy. No man can be a graduate in their univerſities, who has not publiſhed one diſputation at leaſt; by which means thouſands of theſes and diſputations are annually publiſhed, and books multiplied without end. The German authors are generally condemned for being extremely prolix, dry, and voluminous in all their writings, and entirely ignorant of the engaging art of enlivening their performances, by mixing the entertaining with the inſtructive.

Many of the Germans have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in various branches of learning and ſcience; Stahl, Van Swieten, Storck, and Hoffman, have contributed greatly to the improvement of phyſic; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heiſter, of anatomy and ſurgery; Newman, Patt, and Margiff, of chemiſtry; and Leibnitz, Wolfius, Puffendorff, Zimmerman, Thomaſius, Otto Van Gueriche, Kepler, &c. have acquired fame by their philoſophical writings. Rabener has immortalized his name by his ſatirical works. Geſner's Idylls and Death of Abel have been favourably received in the Engliſh tranſlations. The late profeſſor Gellert's elegant writings, which are much eſteemed, ſeem particularly adapted to touch the heart, and inſpire ſentiments of morality and piety. Haller the famous phyſician, Hagedom, Leſſing, Kleiſt, Gerſtenberger, Klopſtock, Ramber, and others, have excelled in poetry; and Schlegel, Cronegh, Wicland, and Wieſe, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their dramatic writings. Their romances are dry and unintereſting. In ſacred literature, Raphaelies, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous; and ſome of the beſt editions of the Greek and Latin claſſics have been publiſhed by Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiſhe, Ecneſti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Heyne.

With reſpect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themſelves very well. Germany has produced ſome good painters, architects, ſculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the firſt inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if firſt invented in Holland, was ſoon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to be the firſt inventors of great guns, as alſo of gunpowder, in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewiſe produced ſome excellent muſicians; Handel, Bach, Haſſe, and Haydn, of whom Handel ſtands at the head, having arrived at the ſublime of muſic.

In this country there are 36 univerſities, of which 17 are proteſtant, 17 Roman catholic, and two mixed; beſides a vaſt number of colleges, gymnaſia, pedagogies, and Latin ſchools. There are alſo many academies and ſocieties for promoting the ſtudy of natural philoſophy, the belles-lettres, antiquities, painting, ſculpture, architecture, &c. as the imperial Leopoldine academy of the *naturæ curioſi*: the academy of ſciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipſic, at Duiſburg, at Gieſen, and Hamburg. The three younger ſons of his Majeſty George III. namely, prince Erneſt Auguſtus, Frederic Auguſtus, and Adolphus Frederic, were in the year 1786 ſent to the univerſity of Gottingen for education. Each of them is accompanied by a governor, a preceptor, and a gentleman; the expences of their table were fixed at 600 crowns per week, and their different maſters are allowed an extraordinary appointment of 1000 crowns per annum each. In 1734, his late Majeſty King George II. converted this place (which was the ancient gymnaſium) into an univerſity. Its library is the beſt in Germany.

The

There are academies for painting at Dreſden and Nunemburg; a royal military academy at Berlin; and the Imperial Franciſcan academy of fine arts is at Augſburg, to which the Latin ſociety at Jena may be added. The moſt celebrated public libraries are thoſe of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottingin, Weymar, and the council library at Leipſic.

The moſt common ſilver coin in Germany is a rix-dollar, worth about 4s. 6d. a German florin or guilder is worth about half a crown, and a gold ducat about 9s. A crown in ſpecie is equal to an Engliſh crown, but a crown current only to 3s. 6d. A German mark is 1s. 6d. All princes and other powers in the empire, who poſſeſs gold and ſilver mines, have the privilege of coining money, as far as the quantity they yield; ſome in a larger, others in a ſmaller ſpecie: but there are only three or four mints allowed in each circle, unleſs an eſtate of the empire has mines of its own, and wants to erect a mint near them. By the laws of the empire, each coin ought to paſs an annual examination, when all the money ſhould anſwer to the ſame ſtandard as that of Leipſic. The German coin in general is neither ſterling nor due weight, and, to the great diſadvantage of the public, is allowed to be more clipt than that of any other country in Europe.

We ſhould now proceed to a deſcription of the cities, towns, ports, and other edifices in the German empire, with their revenues, and other peculiarities; but this being a very copious article, eſpecially in Germany, our limits will therefore only permit us to mention ſome capital places belonging to it.

Vienna, the capital of the whole archduchy of Auſtria, is ſituated on the Danube. The ſituation is pleaſant, for to the eaſt and north the country around is entirely level, but to the weſt and ſouth are ſeen a range of mountains, which are thick planted with trees and vines; and the Danube, which is here very wide, divides itſelf in that part of the town into ſeveral arms, forming many iſlands, which are ſtocked with wood. The circumference of that which is properly the fortified city of Vienna is not large, and only contains about 60,000 ſouls: but the ſuburbs are therefore the more ample; and, according to the eſtimate of a late traveller, the city and the ſuburbs together contain 250,000 inhabitants. In the city itſelf there are numerous and beautiful palaces: but the ſtreets are not ſpacious, and are, in part, crooked. Thoſe people of faſhion who have no country ſeats, or who are prevented by their public employments from leaving Vienna, generally reſide in the ſuburbs during ſummer. It is divided into four quarters, which contain fifteen ſquares or public places, that of the court is large and beautiful; in it, between two fountains, is a ſuperb monument, built by the emperor Leopold; in the high market-place is a marble monument, repreſenting the marriage of Joſeph and the Virgin, erected in the year 1732. Vienna contains fifty churches or chapels, and 21 convents; the metropolitan church is a dark Gothic building, richly adorned on the outſide with ſculpture, and within with thirty-eight altars, moſtly of beautiful marble; a great number of relics, jewels, &c. and an ancient vault in which the archdukes are interred. Here is a mauſoleum of Frederic III. which coſt 40,000 ducats, and a monument in honour of prince Eugene, of Savoy. Near it is the palace of the archbiſhop. In a chapel belonging to the Capuchins, the princes of the royal family are buried, without pomp, with hardly their names over their tombs. The univerſity of Vienna was inſtituted in the year 1365, from a college founded about a century before, and is divided into four faculties and four nations, Auſtrian, Saxon, Hungarian, and Rheniſh. The library is not very numerous; it is open two or three hours morning and afternoon. The imperial library contains about 5000 or 6000 volumes, printed in the fifteenth century, rare manuſcripts, and a very extenſive and valuable collection of prints, and is well furniſhed with uſeful modern books. It is open three or four hours every morning to the public. The imperial cabinet is very rich in medals, and ſtill more ſo in natural hiſtory. The ſuburbs are far larger than the city itſelf. They lie round it, but are removed to the diſtance of 500 or 600 common paces from the works of the fort. The garriſon of Vienna conſiſts of one regiment of foot. Proviſions are brought to Vienna from the different parts of Auſtria and other countries belonging to the emperor, in the greateſt plenty and variety. A modern traveller ſays, he has ſeen a ſcore of wild hogs and a dozen ſtags in the game market at the ſame time, and hares, literally, by cartloads, with abundance of pheaſants and partridges. Every kind of bird ſeems to be an article of food, and none rejected; hawks, jays, magpies, are brought to market, and even the bullfinch and robin are not ſpared. The livers of geeſe are eſteemed a great delicacy, and in the fiſh-market are found with ſturgeon, carp, pike, tench, and trout, tortoiſes, frogs, and ſnails. The manufactures of Vienna are numerous, and the trade extenſive.

The inhabitants of this city are remarkable for their luxurious manner of living; in the winter they frequent the operas; and when the Danube is frozen over, and the ground covered with ſnow, the ladies divert themſelves in ſledges of different forms, ſuch as griffins, tygers, ſwans, ſcallop-ſhells, &c. Here the lady ſits dreſſed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap ſet off with plumes of feathers, ribbons, and bells. This diverſion being chiefly taken in the night, their ſervants ride before the ſledge with torches, and a gentleman ſitting on the ſledge behind, guides the horſe. The deſtructive practice of gaming is more prevalent here than in any other town in the empire. His preſent Imperial majeſty has greatly meliorated the condition of his Auſtrian ſubjects, given great encouragement to the Proteſtants, and ſuppreſſed many Popiſh religious houſes, convents, &c.

Berlin is not only the capital of the electorate of Brandenburg, but of the whole Pruſſian dominions, and may, with juſtice, be deemed one of the fineſt and largeſt cities of Germany. It is the royal reſidence, conſiſts of five towns united together, and has received aſtoniſhing improvements of late years. The ſtreets are handſome, long, and capacious. Here are ſome very elegant ſquares, and many fine palaces. One of the principal public edifices is the royal palace, a prodigious pile, but irregular, as it was erected at different times, and by various architects. It is decorated with admirable paintings, and beautiful tapeſtry, and furniſhed with a greater quantity of plate than any other court in Europe. It contains likewiſe a fine cabinet of rarities, natural and artificial, an excellent collection of medals, a diſpenſary, and one of the fineſt libraries in Europe Among the other principal ſtructures are the council-houſe, Calviniſt gymnaſium, great garriſon church, provincial council-houſe, Jews ſynagogue, and royal magazine. In the laſt mentioned place a great quantity of rough wool is kept, to be regularly delivered out to poor manufacturers, that it may be ſpun and wove, and afterwards dyed and ſold by the managers of the Orphan-houſe at Potzdam, to which charity the profits are appropriated. In Berlin is a fine hoſpital, in which above 800 children are educated gratis. The Lutheran gymnaſium, or School of Athletic Exerciſes, is ſituated in the Grey Cloiſter; and at the King's Gate is the court of cadets, in which young noblemen and gentlemen are inſtructed in all the exerciſes neceſſary to qualify them for a military life. All the above, except the royal palace, are in Berlin, properly ſo called. The palace itſelf is in the quarter called Old Coln; and in the ſuburbs are the magni-

ficent

ficent garden of count Reuſſen, the beautiful houſe and garden called Monbijou, and the houſe and garden of Belvidere. The hoſpital of invalids is a ſtately and magnificent building, and above 1000 perſons are maintained in it, conſiſting of officers and ſoldiers, with their wives and children; and theſe, beſides lodging and fuel, have a certain weekly allowance of money, bread, &c. There are ſeveral bridges over the river Spree, and, in particular, one which is elegant and magnificent: it conſiſts of five arches, and has a fine metal ſtatue on it of the great elector Frederick William. In the magnificent and noble Calviniſt church of Old Coln, is the burial-place of the royal family, near which are the riding academy the royal ſtables, a ſchool of exerciſes, and many other buildings, public and private. In the ſugar-houſes of Berlin as much ſugar is refined as ſerves the whole Pruſſian dominions. Many other manufactures are carried on here, particularly one of porcelain, inferior in no reſpect to that of Meiſſen, except in the paintings. The great population and improvement of this city, as well as other parts of the Pruſſian dominions, have been aſcribed to the emigration and influence of the French refugees, who introduced a variety of arts, manufactures, &c. before unknown in the Pruſſian territories. The canals cut to Berlin from the Havel, the Oder, and the Elbe greatly promote the trade of the city, and ſupply the inhabitants with plenty of fiſh; and as the late king of Pruſſia always made a point of embelliſhing and aggrandizing this metropolis, it is no wonder that it ſhould be the admiration of all who viſit it. The following inſtitutions add to the beauty of the capital, as well as to the benefit of the inhabitants, viz. the academy of ſciences, the academy of belles lettres, the college of phyſic and ſurgery, the anatomical theatre, the tapeſtry manufactory, the opera-houſe, the arſenal, ſeveral well regulated hoſpitals, and many Lutheran, Calviniſt, and two Roman Catholic churches.

Independent of theſe there are a variety of pleaſant gardens, walks, &c.

The police of Berlin is well regulated, and the inhabitants more ſecure from the depredations of robbers than in moſt other cities. Round the environs are many pleaſant villages, canals, pleaſure houſes, gardens, &c. Among the palaces in the vicinity, belonging to the ſovereign, are thoſe of Schoenhauſen and Charlottenburg. The firſt is about the diſtance of two miles from Berlin, ſituated on the river Panka, which waters its fine gardens. Buſching tells us, that in the year 1755 the number of its inhabitants, including the garriſon, amounted to 126,661.

Dreſden, the capital, not only of Meiſſen, but of all Saxony, is ſituated 76 miles north of Prague, and 210 north-weſt of Vienna. This city is one of the fineſt in Germany, with reſpect to the pleaſantneſs of its ſituation, the beauty of its ſtructures, and the number and magnificence of its embelliſhments. Many of its parts are defended by a double ditch, and the baſtions have ſtone facings. The houſes, which are built of free ſtone, are lofty and ſubſtantial; and the ſtreets are ſtraight, ſpacious, elegantly paved, and well lighted. The cathedral church is a noble ſtructure; and ſeveral large ſquares give the whole city an uncommon air of magnificence. The ſtone bridge over the Elbe, which divides the city into the Old and New Town, and conſiſts of 17 arches, is one of the nobleſt ſtructures in the univerſe. At the entrance of New Dreſden is a noble building, called the Palace of the Indies: it conſiſts of three ſtories, all the apartments of which are filled with the moſt curious Japan and China wares. All the houſehold goods are Indian; and there is one ſet of furniture ſcarce to be paralleled, which conſiſts of feathers of various colours, all natural, but inlaid with ſo much art, that it might be taken for a fine flowered ſattin. A very pleaſant garden belongs to this magnificient palace, which runs down to the Elbe, and is adorned with ſtatues of white marble; beſides two noble obeliſks, and two very fine fountains. Near the Palace of the Indies ſtands a magnificent ſtructure, built by the ſtates of Saxony, for maintaining two companies of cadets, all gentlemen of the country, who are here inſtructed in the ſeveral ſciences. In the ſame ſtreet there is an amphitheatre, or area, for the battles of wild beaſts, ſuch as lions, tigers, bears, and, in ſhort, all the fierceſt animals from the four quarters of the world; of which great numbers are kept for that purpoſe. Here is an hunting-houſe, where bears are kept; with fountains and ponds, in which they waſh; and ragged poſts round them, by which they climb up to ſcaffolds on the top, where they dry themſelves. Here is a place called the Horn Gallery, which has ſeveral apartments, painted with a repreſentation of hunting wild beaſts and fowls. In the old town there is a large caſtle; and ſome of the fortifications ſtill to be ſeen, which were made by Charlemagne.

The elector's palace, or caſtle, joins to the bridge at the entrance of the New Town. It is an ancient ſtructure, and makes but a mean appearance. The inſide, however, far ſurpaſſes the outſide; the apartments being noble, and ſplendidly furniſhed. There is a great gallery, which contains antique buſts, veſſels, pictures, and ſeveral other curioſities: a ſpacious hall, adorned with fine drawings of cities, pictures of giants, the habits of many nations; and divers large chambers, full of a ſurprizing collection of rarities, and the greateſt curioſities, both of art and nature, eſpecially pictures of a very great value, and wonderful performances in clock-work. In this palace are two chapels, one for the Roman Catholics, the other for the Lutherans. The firſt was heretofore a theatre for the operas; but one of the electors turned it into a chapel, on account of the marriage of his only ſon with the eldſt daughter of the emperor Joſeph. The ſecond, which was always the chapel of the Proteſtant electors of Saxony, he left for the uſe of his wife, who conſtantly adhered to that religion. The treaſure of it is extremely rich, conſiſting of veſſels, and other moveables, of gold and ſilver, heretofore conſecrated and given to this chapel by the electors. In this palace is the regal treaſury, commonly called the Grune Gewolbe, or the Green Vault, compoſed of three arched rooms, which contain prodigious riches, and ſhine all over with gold and precious ſtones; ſo that it is one of the fineſt places in the world. Here are ſeveral ſets of brilliant diamonds, rubies, emeralds, pearls, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones; every ſet is complete, and conſiſts of buttons, buckles, loops for hats, &c. ſwords, hangers, ſword-belts, canes, muffs, ſnuff-boxes, watches, twezer-caſes, pocket-books, in ſhort, all the jewels that can poſſibly be imagined, even to the furniture of a horſe; and they are ranged with admirable nicety, in caſes of cryſtal.

In the elector's ſtables, and the riding-houſe, is a great number of exceeding fine horſes; and ſome of all ſorts of the rareſt breed, which have iron racks and copper mangers. There is a curious fountain and pond near them, ſurrounded with baluſtrades, for the horſes to water and waſh in: and before the ſtables there is a long arched walk, painted with curious horſes; over which there is a gallery, with the pictures of all the dukes and electors of Saxony, in their robes, and military habits; particularly the two generals, Hengiſt and Horſa, under whom the Saxons invaded England, are depicted here, after the romantic manner they are deſcribed by our monkiſh hiſtorians. In the chambers over the ſtables are kept the rich harneſſes, and other ſumptuous equipages, many of which are of the Turkiſh mode, plated with maſſy ſilver, and adorned with precious ſtones. Here are a great many curioſities, particularly a gun, which diſcharges 40 times ſucceſſively, without intermiſſion; and a ſilver equeſtrian ſtatue, which moved by a ſpring, carries a cup of wine.

The number of inhabitants in the city and ſuburbs, which are very extenſive, is ſuppoſed to be 110,000. The electorate of Saxony, reckoned the richeſt country in Germany, is ſaid to contain 210 walled towns, ſixty-one market-towns, and upwards of 2000 villages: its revenue amounts to 1,350,000l.

Hanover, the capital of that electorate, is ſituated on the river Leine, which divides it into the Old and New Towns. The ſtreets are regular, broad, and well lighted, and contain about 1200 houſes, many of which are built of timber and clay. The electoral palace being in 1741 deſtroyed by fire, was rebuilt with great magnificence. Some manufactures are carried on in this city, and near it are the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhauſen. In the electorate are fifty-eight cities, and ſixty market-towns, beſides villages, containing about 750,000 people. The city and ſuburbs of Bremen contain about 50,000 inhabitants, and have a conſiderable trade by the Weſer. The biſhopric of Oſnaburg lies between the Weſer and the Ems. Its chief city has been long famous for the manufactures which go by its name, and for the beſt Weſtphalia hams. The other towns belonging to the electorate of Hanover have trade and manufactures; but theſe dominions have ſuffered greatly ſince the acceſſion of the Hanover family to the crown of Great Britain.

Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia, is ſituated at the conflux of the Oder and Ohlau. Including the ſuburbs, it is of great extent, having many large regular ſquares, broad ſtreets, and public edifices, but the fortifications are very inconſiderable. In this city all ſects of Chriſtians, and even Jews are tolerated, but the magiſtracy of it is Lutheran. The buildings worthy notice are ſome of the churches, the biſhop's palace, the Popiſh univerſity, ſeveral of the monaſteries and nunneries, and the exchange. There are alſo ſome good public libraries, two armories, a college of phyſicians, and a mint. Breſlau is extremely populous, and the manufactures of Sileſia, which are very conſiderable, principally centre there, ſo that ſeveral fairs are held annually in it, which occaſions a great reſort of Hungarian, Bohemian, Poliſh, and other foreign merchants. The revenue to his Pruſſian majeſty is ſaid to amount to near a million ſterling.

The imperial town of Hamburgh is ſituated on the Elbe, being almoſt in a circular form, and ſix miles in compaſs. This city, which is divided into the old and new towns, has ſix gates, and three entrances by water, viz. two from the Elbe and one from the Alſter, which are ſtrongly fortified with moats, ramparts, baſtions, and outworks. The ramparts are exceedingly lofty, planted with trees, and of ſuch a breadth as to admit ſeveral carriages to go abreaſt. The public edifices, churches excepted, make no great appearance. The cathedral is very ancient, and its tower leans as if it would fall every inſtant, but on account of the beauty and ſingularity of its architecture, it has not yet been taken down. The Exchange at Hamburgh is very commodious, but far inferior to that of London. The yard, arſenal, and two armories, are worthy the inſpection of a traveller. The trade of Hamburgh is very extenſive, all the commodities and manufactures of the ſeveral cities and ſtates of Germany being generally exported from thence. Its principal imports are the woollen manufactures and other goods of Great Britain, to the amount of ſeveral hundred thouſand pounds annually. Its trade with Spain, Portugal, and Italy, which is very conſiderable, is chiefly carried on in Engliſh bottoms: and they employ fifty or ſixty ſhips every year in the whale-fiſhery. The inland trade of this great city is quite equal to its foreign, and exceeded by no country in Europe, except thoſe of London and Amſterdam.

Frankfort, a free and imperial city, and the uſual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, is ſituated in a healthy, fertile, and delightful country along the Maine, by which it is divided into two parts, and both are computed to contain about 3000 houſes. It is of a circular form, without any ſuburbs; but the ſtreets are generally narrow, and the houſes are moſtly of timber and plaſter, and covered with ſlate; though there are ſome handſome private ſtructures, of a kind of red marble, that have the appearance of palaces. The fortifications are regular and ſolid; the ditches are deep, and filled with freſh water.

The natural and artificial curioſities of Germany are very numerous. Near Blackenburgh are two rocks, exactly repreſenting two monks in their proper habits. In Harts-foreſt is a cave, of which the end has never yet been diſcovered, though travellers have advanced into it for near twenty miles. Near Hamelen, about thirty miles from Hanover, there is likewiſe a cave, at the mouth of which ſtands a monument, to commemorate the loſs of 130 children, who are ſaid to have been ſwallowed up in this place in the year 1284. In one part of Saxony, ſtones are dug up in a field, which exhibit a lively repreſentation, by fair copper ſtrokes, of fiſhes of divers ſorts, frogs, and other animals, that abound in a neighbouring lake.

Among their artificial rarities, we may notice the great tun at Heidelburgh, which holds 800 hogſheads, and is generally full of the beſt Rheniſh wine. The churches, palaces, caſtles, bridges, and other public buildings in this empire are well worthy attention, particularly the former, many of which are of Gothic architecture, and ſtrike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence: the cathedrals and churches are adorned on the inſide with a profuſion of gold, ſilver, diamonds, and other precious ſtones. The Imperial library at Vienna is a great literary curioſity: it contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, amongſt which are many valuable manuſcripts in moſt of the oriental languages.

The ſituation of Germany being in a manner in the centre of Europe; its vicinity to the ſea, and its inland navigation, all conſpire to the advantage of its commerce. Beſides the productions of their mines and minerals, the exports of this empire conſiſt in the following articles: corn, hemp, hops, flax, aniſe, cummin, ſaffron, madder, truffles, tobacco, lean cattle, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, wines, particularly the Rheniſh and Moſelle; linen, ſtuffs, yarn, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, ribbons, toys, turnery wares in woods, metals, and ivory; goat-ſkins, wool, timber, both for ſhipbuilding and houſes; cannon, bullets, bombs, bomb-ſhells, iron-plates, and ſtoves; tin-plates, ſteel-work, copper, braſs-wire; hog's briſtles, mum, beer, tartar, ſmalts, zaffer, Pruſſian-blue, printers-ink, mirrors, glaſſes, earthen-ware; the fineſt porcelain in the world, and ſeveral other things.

After the revocation of the edict of Nantz by Louis XIV. numbers of Proteſtant refugees ſettled in different parts of Europe, and thoſe which took ſhelter in Germany introduced with themſelves a great number of manufactures into that empire. At preſent the inhabitants make velvets, ſilks, rich ſtuffs, ſtuffs half ſilk and half cotton, variety of woollen ſtuffs and cloths, fine and coarſe linen, cheſque linen, ribbons, lace, yarn, thread, Sileſia linen; canvas, fuſtians, table-linen, ticking, fine and coarſe woollen hoſe, and caps; gold and ſilver galloon, embroidery, fine hats, tapeſtry, and Spaniſh rough and ſmooth leather. The manufactures of paper, tobacco, wax, clock-work, guns, locks, tin-plates, and white iron, are very conſiderable. The artificers of Nuremburg are ſaid to ſurpaſs thoſe of any other country in the working of ſteel, iron, braſs, alabaſter, and in toys of every kind. The Germans likewiſe excel in printing cottons, in dyeing, in making fine lacquered works, mirrors, glaſs-ware; and the porcelain of Mieſſen, in the electorate of Saxony, is eſteemed even preferable to that of China for the beauty of its painting,

painting, and the fineneſs of the earth with which it is made.

In Germany, there are near 300 ſovereign princes, and every one of them arbitrary with regard to the government of his own eſtates; but theſe princes form a political confederacy, of which the emperor is the head. Charles the Great, generally ſtyled Charlemagne, founded the German empire about the year 800, and the Imperial crown was hereditary in his family till the extinction of his male iſſue, which happened in January 912. During this period the emperor was arbitrary, but then he conſulted perſons celebrated for their abilities, and the rectitude of their conduct. On the death of Henry IV. which happened in the year 1106, a conſtitution was formed, by which the right of hereditary ſucceſſion to the Imperial crown was aboliſhed, and a free and voluntary election eſtabliſhed.

About the middle of the thirteenth century, the chief princes of Germany aſſumed the title of electors; and, at the ſame time, appropriated to themſelves the power of electing the head of the empire. The corporation, or body of eſtates over which the emperor preſides, not in a dictatorial but executive capacity, conſiſts of three claſſes, or colleges. The firſt of theſe is called the electoral college; the ſecond, the college of princes; and the third, the college of imperial towns. The electoral college conſiſts of nine members, all of whom have particular offices in the imperial court, and in them is veſted the ſole power of electing the emperor. They are ranked in the following order; viz. 1. The archbiſhop of Mentz, high-chancellor of the empire in Germany. 2. The archbiſhop of Treves, high-chancellor of the empire in France. 3. The archbiſhop of Cologne, high-chancellor of the empire in Italy. 4. The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, cup-bearer. 5. The elector of Bavaria, grand ſerver, or officer who ſerves out the feaſts. 6. The elector of Saxony, grand marſhal of the empire. 7. The elector of Brandenburgh, (now king of Pruſſia) great-chamberlain. 8. The elector Palatine, great-ſteward. 9. The elector of Hanover, king of Great Britain, arch-treaſurer. Before the emperor calls a diet, it is neceſſary for him to have the advice of thoſe members: the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have juriſdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the ſouthern circles, during the vacancy of the Imperial throne.

The college of princes of the empire is compoſed of more members, but enjoys leſs power than that of the electoral. The members of this college are alſo divided into two claſſes, eccleſiaſtical and temporal. The eccleſiaſtical princes are as abſolute as the temporal ones in their ſeveral dominions. The chief of theſe, beſides the three already mentioned, are the archbiſhop of Saltſburgh, the biſhops of Bamburgh, Wirtzburgh, Worms, Spire, Munſter, Straſburgh, Paderborn, Oſnaburg, Lubeck, &c. The chief of the ſecular princes are the landgrave of Heſſe, the dukes of Brunſwick, Wolfenbuttel, Wirtemburgh, Saxe-Gotha, Mecklenburgh, the marquiſſes of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Naſſau, Anhalt, Furſtenburgh, and many others, who have all high titles, and are ſovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewiſe ſovereign ſtates; thoſe which are imperial, or compoſe a part of the diet, bear the imperial eagle in their arms; thoſe which are hanſe-towns, have ſtill great privileges and immunities, but they ſubſiſt no longer as a political body. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbeſſes, whoſe juriſdictions are likewiſe abſolute, ſome of them very conſiderable, and all of them choſen by their reſpective chapters.

The diet meets at Ratiſbon, on the emperor's ſummons. This aſſembly, beſides the election of an emperor, makes laws, raiſes taxes, determines differences between the ſeveral princes and ſtates, and can relieve ſubjects from the oppreſſions of their ſovereigns.

But beſides this general diet of the empire, there are yearly meetings of the ſtates of one, two, or three of the circles that lie contiguous to one another, called from thence correſponding circles, of which there are three claſſes, the Upper Rhine, the Lower Rhine, and Weſtphalia; Upper and Lower Saxony; Franconia, Suabia, and Auſtria. Theſe aſſemblies take cognizance of the coin, the public peace, the magazines, fortifications, and commerce.

There are in Germany two ſupreme courts, erected for determining the great cauſes of the empire, ariſing between its reſpective members; namely, the Imperial chamber, and the Aulic council, or chamber of Vienna. The Imperial chamber conſiſts of fifty judges or aſſeſſors. The preſident and four others are appointed by the emperor; each of the electors chooſe one, and the other princes and ſtates the reſt. All cauſes may be brought into this court by appeal. The Aulic council was originally nothing more than a revenue court of the dominions of Auſtria. But as the power of that family increaſed, the juriſdiction of the Aulic council has been excluded; till at laſt, to the great diſguſt of the princes of the empire, it uſurped upon the powers of the Imperial chamber, and even upon thoſe of the diet. It conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-chancellor, a vice-preſident, a certain number of Aulic counſellors, of whom ſix are Proteſtants, beſides other officers, but the emperor is in reality the ſole maſter. Theſe courts decide all cauſes according to the laws and conſtitution of the empire, and the principles of the civil law.

After the votes of the diet are collected, and ſentence pronounced, the emperor may, on an emergency, commit the execution of it to a particular prince or princeſs, whoſe troops live at free quarter upon the eſtates of the delinquent party.

The conſtitution of the Germanic body is of itſelf a ſtudy of no ſmall difficulty. It may be neceſſary, in this place, to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently occurred in the German hiſtory, namely, that of the pragmatic ſanction. This is a proviſion made by the emperor Charles VI. for preſerving the indiviſibility of the Auſtrian dominions in the perſon of the next deſcendant of the laſt poſſeſſor, whether male or female. This proviſion has been often diſputed by other branches of the houſe of Auſtria, who have been occaſionally ſupported by France from political views, though the pragmatic ſanction is ſtrongly guaranteed by almoſt all the powers of Europe. The emperor Joſeph II. elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland, attempted to overthrow it, as being deſcended from the daughters of the emperor Joſeph elder brother to Charles VI. The court of Spain have likewiſe repeatedly oppoſed it.

In France, the lives and fortunes of the ſubjects were entirely at the diſpoſal of the grand monarque; but few of the territories of the German princes are ſo large as to be aſſigned to viceroys, to be oppreſſed at pleaſure by unfeeling officers; nor are they entirely without redreſs when they ſuffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief. With reſpect to the burghers and peaſants of Germany, the former, in many places, enjoy great privileges: the latter alſo, in ſome parts, as in Franconia, Suabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain ſervices to their ſuperiors, and pay the taxes; whereas in the marquiſate of Brandenburgh, Pomerania, Luſatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Auſtria, &c. they may juſtly be denominated ſlaves, though in different degrees. The ſubjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the moſt unhappy; for theſe princes uſually affecting the ſplendour and grandeur of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domeſtics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curioſities,

ſities, guards, bands of muſic, tables, dreſs, and furniture, are obliged, in order to ſupport all this vain parade, to lay enormous taxes and burdens on their ſubjects and dependants.

With reſpect to the revenues of the empire, we ſhall only make thoſe of the emperor, and a few of the moſt powerful electors, the ſubject of this article. The annual income of the emperor is not more than 5 or 6000l. ſterling, principally ariſing from ſome incoſinderable fiefs in the Black Foreſt. The Auſtrian revenues, the value of money in Germany being conſidered, appear immenſe, amounting to 7,000,000l. ſterling in Germany and Italy—a prodigious ſum in thoſe countries. The revenues of his Pruſſian majeſty cannot eaſily be calculated, but they are computed at half a million ſterling per annum; and his father, who never enjoyed the Siberian revenues, left above ſeven millions in his coffers. The revenues of the other princes of Germany are in proportion to thoſe already enumerated; but it is difficult, perhaps impoſſible, in a country comprehending ſo many different ſtates, to make any computation that can be ſatisfactory to the public. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a ſtranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes, which is chiefly owing to the high price of money in that country, and, of courſe, the low price of proviſions and manufactures.

For maintaining the ſtrength and forces of Germany, and to provide for other contingencies, a conſtitution was ſettled by Charles V. whereby every ſtate of the empire was to be taxed in proportion to its ability. This tax, or quota, is entered into a public regiſter, called the matricula of the empire, and kept in the office of the elector of Mentz; it contains the aſſeſſments of men and money, which every prince and ſtate, who are members of the empire, is to advance, when the imperial army takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly aſſeſſments formerly paid to the emperors when they viſited Rome; but thoſe aſſeſſments are ſubject to great mutability. However, upon a moderate computation, the ſecular princes can bring into the field 379,000 men, and the eccleſiaſtical 74,500; in all 453,500; of thoſe 90,000 are ſuppoſed to be furniſhed by the emperor, as head of the houſe of Auſtria.

By this computation, which is far from being exaggerated, it appears, that the emperor and empire form the moſt powerful government in Europe, and that if the whole force was properly directed under an able general, Germany would have nothing to fear from any of its ambitious neighbours; but the different intereſts purſued by the ſeveral princes of Germany, render the power of the emperor of little conſequence, except with regard to his own forces, which are indeed very formidable. The imperial army, in 1775, was computed to amount to 200,000 effective men.

The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is ſeen the imperial crown. On the breaſt of the eagle is an eſcutcheon quarterly, of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jeruſalem, Arragon, Anjou, Guelders, Brabant, and Barr. The empreſs-dowager Eleanor, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the order of St. Thereſa was inſtituted by the late empreſs-queen.

The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the *Golden Fleece*, as deſcended from the houſe of Burgundy. This order was inſtituted at Bruges, in Flanders, on the 10th of January 1429, by Philip duke of Burgundy, on the day of his marriage with his third wife. It is ſuppoſed that he choſe the badge, it being the chief of the ſtaple manufactures of his country. It conſiſted at firſt of thirty knights, including the ſovereign, who were of the firſt families of the Low Countries, and it ſtill continues to be ranked with the moſt illuſtrious orders of knighthood in Europe. There are at preſent two branches of it; the emperor is ſovereign of the one, and the king of Spain of the other; all the knights muſt prove their noble deſcent from the 12th century. They uſually wear a Golden Fleece proper, pendent to a broad plain red ribband round their necks; but on days of ceremony, they wear the collar of the order, which is compoſed of double ſteels, interwoven with flint ſtones emitting ſparks of fire, the whole enamelled in their proper colours, at the end of which a golden fleece hangs on the breaſt. The fuſils are joined two and two, as if they were double BB's, the cypher of Burgundy, and the flint ſtones, the ancient arms of the ſovereigns of that duchy, with their motto, *Anteferit quam flamma micet*, "He prefers what ſhines with flame." The motto of the Order is, *Pretium non vile laborum*, "Not a mean reward of our labours."

In our account of Orders in the Netherlands, we have already noticed the *Teutonic Order*; and ſhall only add, that this order owed its origin to ſome religious Germans at Jeruſalem, during the cruſades, who aſſumed the title of the Teutonic knights, or brethren of the hoſpital of our Lady of the Germans at Jeruſalem. Conrade, duke of Suabia, invited them into Pruſſia about the year 1230; they ſoon after conquered Pruſſia for themſelves, and became one of the moſt powerful orders in Europe, but, by the order dividing againſt itſelf, they afterwards loſt their power and poſſeſſions; and Albert, marquis of Brandenburgh, grand-maſter of the order, on his abjuring Popery, abdicated the grand maſterſhip, ſubdued Pruſſia, and expelled all the Papiſts who followed not his example. The members of this order muſt take the oath of celibacy.

When the order of the *Red Eagle* was inſtituted, is not certainly known. The margrave of Bareith is ſovereign of it. The badge is a golden ſquare medal enamelled white, on which is an eagle diſplayed red. It is worn pendent to a broad red watered ribband, edged with yellow, and worn ſcarf-wiſe. This order is commonly beſtowed on general officers.

In the year 1690, the *Order of Sincerity* was eſtabliſhed by John George, elector of Saxony, and Frederick III. elector of Brandenburg, in terminating their diſputes, and as a confirmation and ſurety hereafter of their amity. The knights of this order wear a bracelet of gold: on one ſide are the names of the two princes, with this device——*Amitié ſincere*, "Sincere Friendſhip;" on the other ſide are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two ſwords, with two palm branches croſſed with this motto—*Unis pour jamais*, "United for ever."

The order of the *Noble Paſſion* was inſtituted in 1704, by John George duke of Saxe Weiſſenfels, of which the duke is ſovereign. The badge is a gold medal, enamelled white, on which is a ſtar of eight points, gold, charged with a croſs red, ſurmounted with an oval blue, on which are the letters J. G. in a cypher, the whole encircled with theſe words—*J'aime l'honneur qui vient par la vertu*, "I love the honour which comes by virtue." Each knight of this order is to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed ſoldiers in the ſervice of the ſovereign.

The order of the *Death's Head* was inſtituted in 1652, by the duke of Wirtemburgh, and revived in the year 1709, by his daughter Louiſa-Elizabeth, widow of Philip, duke of Saxe Merſburg. None but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded) can be received into it; and the ſovereign muſt be a princeſs of the houſe. The badge of the order is a death's head, enamelled white, ſurmounted with a croſs pattée black: above the croſs pattée another croſs compoſed of five javels, by which it hangs to a black ribband edged with white, and on the ribband theſe words——*Memento mori*, "Remember

"Remember death," worn at the breaſt. They are to avoid gambling, theatrical amuſements, and luxuries of all kinds.

In the year 1702, the order of *the Chace* was inſtituted by the duke of Wirtemburgh, and improved in the year 1719. The badge of this order is a gold croſs of eight points enamelled red; in the ſpaces between the branches of the croſs is an eagle diſplayed, red, and between the points of each traverſe a bugle horn, and in the centre the letter W, and over it a ducal coronet enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a broad ſcarlet watered ribband, paſſing ſcarf-wiſe from the left ſhoulder to the right ſide. On the left ſide of the coat is a ſilver ſtar embroidered of the ſame figure as the badge, in the middle a green circle with the motto—*Amicitiæ virtutiſque fœdus*, "The bond of friendſhip and virtue." St. Hubert is the patron of this order; and the feſtival is held on his anniverſary.

The order of *St. Hubert* was firſt inſtituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447: it was afterwards revived in the year 1709, by the elector palatine. The number of counts and barons of the order, who enjoy the memorial lands annexed to it, is limited to twelve, but the number of princes and private gentlemen is not fixed. The elector palatine is grand-maſter of the order. The badge is a croſs of eight points, from the angles iſſue rays, and in the middle of a circle is enamelled the figure of St. Hubert kneeling before a crucifix, placed between the horns of a ſtag ſtanding in a wood, having in the centre this device in the Runic language—*Conſtans in fidelitate*, "Conſtant in fidelity," on a red ground. All the knights have either military employments or penſions; before admitted, they are to prove the nobility of their deſcent for four generations, and, on the day of reception, are to pay 100 ducats to the poor.

The order of *St. Rupert* was inſtituted in 1701, by the archbiſhop of Saltzburgh, in honour of the founder and patron of the ſee he held, and as the apoſtle of his country. It is compoſed of twelve knights, who are diſtinguiſhed by a chain of gold round the neck, to which is pendent a badge, which is a croſs of eight points enamelled blue; and in the centre the image of St. Rupert. This order is in good eſteem, as the archbiſhop is the richeſt and moſt powerful prince in Bavaria, next to the elector.

In the year 1729, the order of *St. George, the Defender of the immaculate Conception*, was inſtituted by Albert, elector of Bavaria. The badge they wear is a ſtar of eight points, and on the centre is enamelled the image of St. George on horſeback ſlaying a dragon. The croſs is enamelled blue edged with white. On days of ceremony they wear the badge pendent to a collar compoſed of oblong plates with crowns at each end, and columns ſurmounted with globes, each column ſupported by two lions holding in their exterior paws two ſcymetars, the whole joined together with lozenge chains enamelled blue with white; on the oblong plates is this motto—*In fide, juſtitia, et fortitudine*, "In faith, juſtice, and fortitude." The knights of this order are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generations.

The military and civil order of the *Golden Lion* was inſtituted by the preſent landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel. The badge is an octagonal medal enamelled red, in the centre a lion rampant, gold, ducally crowned; it is pendent to a broad watered crimſon ribband, worn ſcarf-wiſe. This order is moſtly conferred on general officers.

The military *Order of Merit* was alſo inſtituted by the preſent landgrave; the badge (which is worn at the coat, pendent to a blue ribband edged with ſilver) is a gold croſs of eight points enamelled white, and in the centre this motto—*Pro virtute et fidelitate*, "For virtue and fidelity."

HISTORY OF GERMANY.

THE manners of the ancient Germans are well deſcribed by Tacitus, a Roman hiſtorian. They were noble, magnanimous, and beneficent. Their hoſpitality was remarkable; and their love of independence carried to an amazing height. Inſpired with an unconquerable enthuſiaſm for defending their liberty, they nobly withſtood the Roman power, even in its greateſt height. At that time the Germans were ſo far from being formed into a ſingle community, that they were divided into a vaſt number of ſmall kingdoms, or commonwealths. Each had its own form of government, laws, policy, and intereſt. But they were all equally fond of liberty, and avowed enemies of all kinds of invaſion.

Induced by theſe noble principles, they beheld with jealouſy and deteſtation the daily encroachments made by the Romans on all their neighbours; and to lend their aſſiſtance to thoſe nations who were threatened with the chains of ſlavery. Hence aroſe thoſe wars and conqueſts which ended in the reduction of their country. The artful Romans took the advantage of their being divided into a multitude of ſmall republics; they fomented jealouſies among ſome, and found means to bribe others. Againſt ſome they uſed force; againſt others the arts of flattery. By this means they conquered gradually that power, which, when properly united, bad defiance to the Roman legions. But though Germany was reduced to a Roman province, the inhabitants regained thier liberty, when the power of the empire was divided; and made ample repriſals on their conquerors.

Affairs in this ſituation continued till the beginning of the ninth century, when Charlemagne, or Charles the Great of France, was advanced to the Imperial throne on Chriſtmas-Day. He was the ſon of king Pepin, and ſucceeded him in the kingdom of France when Deſiderius, king of Lombardy, poſſeſſed that throne, who, having inſulted the pope and clergy of Rome, and compelled them to part with a great deal of that power they had uſurped, Charles invaded Lombardy, defeated and depoſed Deſiderius; and going afterwards to Rome, the pope, who looked upon him as his deliverer, declared him a patrician, a title equal almoſt to that of emperor; inveſting him with authority to confirm future popes, and grant the Italian biſhops and inveſtitures of their ſees. This prince reigned 14 years, and died anno 814.

The ſucceſſors of Charlemagne did not long enjoy the honour of a throne founded by their great anceſtor. In the year 880 the ſtates of the empire aſſumed their original independence, and placed the Imperial crown on the head of Arnolph, king of Bohemia: and, ſince that period, Germany has been conſidered as an elective monarchy. The princes of the moſt powerful families in Germany, according to the prevalence of their intereſt and arms, have mounted the throne. The houſes of Saxony, Franconia, and Suabia, have ſwayed the Imperial ſceptre; but, in the year 1440, it paſſed to the houſe of Auſtria, who have ever ſince enjoyed it, except a ſhort interval, when the duke of Bavaria, on the death of Charles VI. was placed on the throne: he did not long poſſeſs the Imperial dignity, but died of a broken heart.

The events that happened during the reigns of theſe emperors, conſiſt chiefly of conteſts between them and the popes of Rome; and from theſe conteſts the famous factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, in the 13th century, had their riſe; the former being attached to the popes, and the latter to the emperors; and theſe, by their virulence and inveteracy againſt each other, filled the empire with diſtraction for ſeveral centuries. Frederic III. duke of Auſtria, who aſcended the Imperial throne in 1440, was very ſucceſsful in his wars, and enjoyed the throne fifty-three years. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Maximilian I. who eſpouſed the heireſs of Charles,

duke of Burgundy; and by this marriage, that duchy, together with the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the houſe of Auſtria.

Charles V. the greateſt prince that had filled the Imperial throne ſince Charlemagne, was elected emperor, on the death of his grandfather Maximilian, which happened in the year 1519. He was heir to the crown of Spain in right of his mother Joanna. During his reign the empires of Mexico and Peru in America were conquered, by which he became the ſovereign of much larger and richer territories than any other prince in Europe. In his reign the reformation began in Germany. Charles violently oppoſed the followers of Luther, and a civil war broke out in the empire. This, together with the wars in which Charles was almoſt perpetually engaged againſt France, rendered his reign exceedingly troubleſome. He was at firſt very fortunate, and is ſaid to have been victorious in above thirty pitched battles which he fought in perſon: in the decline of life his good fortune began to forſake him; on which he abdicated the throne, and retired into a monaſtery, where he died about two years after. He was ſucceeded in the year 1558 by his brother Ferdinand I. who was very moderate with regard to the religious diſturbances which ſtill continued in Germany, and died in 1564.

Maximilian II. aſcended the Imperial throne on the death of his father, without any new election, purſuant to the conſtitution of the empire. His reign was continually diſturbed by internal commotions, chiefly on account of religion, and alſo invaded by the Turks; but he died in peace in 1576, and was ſucceeded by Rodolph, who obtained the Imperial ſceptre on the death of his father: he was involved in a war with the Hungarians, and oppoſed by his brother Matthias. Perceiving that it would be in vain to endeavour to reduce the Hungarians to obedience while they were aſſiſted by his brother, he therefore gave that kingdom, together with the duchy of Auſtria, to Matthias. This produced the deſired effect, and Rodolph lived in peace the remaining part of his reign. On his death,

Matthias was elected emperor. During his reign the reformers were divided into two ſects, called Lutherans and Calviniſts, and oppoſed each other with ſo much fury, that the empire was threatened with a civil war. But the ambition of Matthias, who had taken meaſures for exterminating both parties, reconciled them. At the ſame time, by perſecuting the reformed in Bohemia, the people flew to arms, and threw the Imperial commiſſioners out of a window at Prague. This occaſioned a dreadful war in that kingdom, which laſted thirty years. The perſecution in Bohemia convinced both the Lutherans and Calviniſts that nothing but a cloſe union could prevent the deſtruction meditated by the emperor. Accordingly they formed a confederacy, called the Evangelical League, at the head of which was Frederic, the elector palatine, then the moſt powerful Proteſtant prince in Germany, and ſon-in-law to James I. of England. This was counterbalanced by a Catholic league.

Matthias dying in 1618, was ſucceeded in the Imperial throne by his couſin Ferdinand II. but the inhabitants of Bohemia refuſed to acknowledge him for their king, and offered their crown to the elector palatine, who was imprudent enough to accept it. While he continued at the head of the Evangelical League, he was very ſucceſsful; but was not able to ſupport the crown he had imprudently received. He was totally defeated at the battle of Prague, and deprived of his palatinate.

The Catholics conſidered this victory over Frederic as a prelude to the deſtruction of the Proteſtant cauſe in Germany; but their expectations were built on a ſandy foundation. The reformers had ſtill generals able to lead their armies, among whom were the margrave of Baden Dourlach, Chriſtian duke of Brunſwick, and the famous count Mansfield. Other Proteſtant princes alſo now perceived the neceſſity of joining their brethren, in order to ſupport the religion they had embraced. Among theſe was Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, who was placed at the head of the Evangelical League. Chriſtian engaged the Imperial army commanded by count Tilly, and was totally defeated. The Proteſtants were not however intimidated: they formed a freſh confederacy at Leipſic, at the head of which was the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. His victories ſucceeded each other with aſtoniſhing rapidity, and the houſe of Auſtria trembled for its power, when he was killed in the battle of Lutzen, in the year 1632. But the Proteſtant cauſe did not fall with Guſtavus. The generals formed under his care purſued the plan he had formed, and the emperor was convinced that there was no other method of ſaving the houſe of Auſtria, than that of putting an end to the war. Accordingly a peace was concluded at Munſter, in the year 1648. By this treaty the Proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed in all parts of Germany where it was profeſſed, and the claims and pretenſions of moſt of the princes and ſtates of Europe were finally ſettled. Before this event happened, Ferdinand II. died, and his ſon Ferdinand III. was placed on the Imperial throne.

In the year 1658, Leopold ſucceeded his father Ferdinand III. He was one of the moſt ſevere and unamiable princes of his time, ſo that he was at once hated and dreaded by his ſubjects. Soon after his acceſſion to the Imperial throne, he found himſelf oppreſſed by two powerful nations, France and Turky. The French took Alſace, and many other frontier places of the empire from him; and the Turks, after over-running Hungary, laid ſiege to Vienna. Reduced to this extremity, Leopold had had recourſe to John Sobieſki, king of Poland, for aſſiſtance. That prince, though he had before received very indifferent treatment from the houſe of Auſtria, marched at the head of a powerful army againſt the Infidels, and, being joined by the duke of Lorrain, the Imperial general, attacked the beſiegers in their trenches, drove them from their works, and totally defeated the grand Turkiſh army. In the mean time, the French purſued their conqueſts in ſo rapid a manner, that the other powers of Europe were alarmed, and a grand confederacy, conſiſting of the Empire, Great-Britain, the Dutch, and the northern powers, was formed, in order to check the progreſs of the French, and render abortive the ambitious and chimerical plan contrived by Louis XIV. for founding an univerſal monarchy. Though the arms of John Sobieſki had driven the Turks from their conqueſts, the Hungarians, exaſperated at the inhuman tyranny of the emperor, and encouraged by the protection of the Porte, were ſtill in arms. At laſt a peace was concluded at Ryſwick, in 1697; and, two years after, the Turks conſented to a peace, which, in 1699, was ſigned at Carlowitz.

Peace had not long taken place in Europe, when Charles II. of Spain died, and, by his will, left his dominions to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon to Louis XIV. who immediately ſeized the Spaniſh dominions, and proclaimed Philip king of Spain. This acquiſition in favour of the houſe of Bourbon, alarmed all the European powers; and a powerful confederacy was again formed, in order to humble the exorbitant ambition of Louis XIV. The emperor claimed the Spaniſh crown for his younger ſon Charles, as the lawful heir to thoſe dominions. Accordingly Leopold invaded Italy; and the allied army, conſiſting of Britiſh, Dutch, and German forces, under the command of the celebrated duke of Marlborough, oppoſed the French in the Low Countries, where the armies of Louis were conſtantly defeated.

In the midſt of this ſucceſs, Leopold died, and was ſucceeded in the Imperial throne by his ſon Joſeph, who endeavoured to throw the whole burden of the war on the Engliſh, though carried on ſolely for his benefit. He was even ſuſpected of having formed a deſign to ſubvert the liberties of Germany; but before he could carry his plan into execution, or even reduce his Hungarian ſubjects to obedience, he died in 1711.

Joſeph dying without iſſue, was ſucceeded by his brother Charles VI. the prince whom the confederates were labouring to place on the throne of Spain, in oppoſition to the duke of Anjou. A peace was concluded at Utrecht in 1713, whereby the Spaniſh dominions in Italy, and the Netherlands, were ceded to the emperor. Charles now turned his whole force againſt the Turks, and they were ſoon after totally defeated by prince Eugene at the battle of Peterwaradin.

The ſame general, in the year 1717, obtained another victory over the Infidels, before Belgrade; in conſequence of which that important city fell into the hands of the Imperialiſts. Convinced, by theſe ſucceſſive defeats, that the war, if continued, muſt be attended with very diſagreeable conſequences, the Turks offered to conclude a peace with the emperor, and the treaty was accordingly ſigned at Paſſarowitz in 1718. Charles, now free from the embarraſſments of war, employed his time in making arrangements for ſecuring and augmenting his hereditary dominions in Italy. Fortunately for him, the crown of Great Britain had devolved to the houſe of Hanover, ſo that his connections with Geo. I. and II. gave him a deciſive weight in Europe.

Charles, who had no male iſſue, in the year 1722 formed a deſign for ſettling his hereditary dominions on his eldeſt daughter, the archduchеſs Maria Thereſa. But this plan did not interrupt his aſſiduity with regard to his hereditary dominions. On the contrary, he purſued his meaſures with ſo high a hand, that he gave great offence to George I. and, about the year 1724, a breach enſued between them. This conteſt might have proved fatal to the repoſe of Europe, had not each of the contending monarchs been principally attentive to a favourite object, to the attainment of which every other particular was to be ſacrificed. That of the emperor was the ſettlement of his hereditary dominions on his daughter; and the aggrandiſement and ſafety of Hanover poſſeſſed the chief place in the mind of the Britiſh monarch. It is, therefore, no wonder that mutual conceſſions in favour of theſe deſirable acquiſitions ſhould reſtore peace and harmony between the two princes. The ſettlement Charles had made of his hereditary dominions on his daughter, was confirmed by a diet of the empire, and, being guaranteed by the principal powers of Europe, obtained the name of the Pragmatic Sanction.

Charles, having obtained this great object of his attention, turned his arms againſt the Turks; but his famous general, prince Eugene, was now dead, and he had no other capable of ſupplying his place. The Infidels were therefore generally victorious. The meaſures of the court of France being then pacific, he obtained, by the mediation of that power, a much better peace than he had reaſon to expect. By this treaty Belgrade was ceded to the Porte, and the rivers Danube and Saave made the boundaries between the two empires on the ſouth. On the 28th of October, 1740, Charles VI. died.

Maria Thereſa, his eldeſt daughter, ſome time before married to the duke of Lorrain, was declared queen of Hungary and Bohemia, and the lawful heireſs of all the emperor's hereditary dominions, agreeable to the pragmatic ſanction.

But notwithſtanding the above treaty had been guaranteed in the moſt ſolemn manner by different powers, ſeveral princes, on the death of Charles, ſet up claims in direct oppoſition to that treaty. The young king of Pruſſia, at the head of a powerful army, reduced great part of Sileſia, under pretence that it had been long unjuſtly detained from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria alſo claimed part of theſe eſtates, though they had never mentioned their pretenſions in the time of Charles VI. The French, perſuaded that a proper opportunity now offered for recovering what they had loſt by the treaty of Utrecht, poured their armies into Bohemia, and threatened deſtruction to the houſe of Auſtria. Thus encompaſſed with armies, and in danger of falling a ſacrifice to thoſe very powers who had ſo lately guaranteed the pragmatic ſanction, the archduchеſs determined to throw herſelf into the arms of her Hungarian ſubjects, though they had never ſhewn any firm attachment to her family. Accordingly ſhe ſummoned all the chiefs of that kingdom, and in a moſt pathetic ſpeech recommended herſelf and her infant ſon to their protection. Touched with her youth and beauty, and enraged at the unjuſt proceedings of her enemies, the Hungarians promiſed to ſpend the laſt drop of their blood in her ſervice. This fidelity of theirs to the late empreſs-queen, notwithſtanding the provocations they had received from her houſe, will always be recorded to their honour.

Affairs now began to wear a more pleaſing aſpect. A peace was concluded with the king of Pruſſia, and the Auſtrian generals drove the French out of Bohemia. The duke of Bavaria was in the mean time placed on the Imperial throne, under the title of Charles VII. but his dominions being conquered by the Auſtrian forces, he retired to Frankfort on the Maine.

His Britannic majeſty George II. now declared in favour of the queen of Hungary, and defeated the French at the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. In the mean time Charles VII. was miſerable on the Imperial throne, and would have accepted peace from the queen of Hungary on almoſt any terms; but ſhe haughtily, and, indeed impolitically, refuſed every overture of accommodation, and ſeemed determined to be amply revenged for the injuries ſhe had ſuffered. This obſtinacy offered a pretence for the king of Pruſſia's entering Bohemia, under colour of ſupporting the Imperial dignity. He was very ſucceſsful in his invaſion, but perceiving it was in vain to expect aſſiſtance from the French, notwithſtanding their repeated promiſes, he abandoned all his conqueſts, and retired into Sileſia. Soon after this retreat of his Pruſſian majeſty, Charles VII. died of a broken heart, and the duke of Lorrain, then grand duke of Tuſcany, and conſort to the queen of Hungary, was placed on the Imperial throne. This event happened in the year 1745.

The war was now transferred to the Low Countries, where the French were very ſucceſsful under the command of count Saxe. The misfortunes which attended the allied army in Flanders retarded the operations of the empreſs-queen againſt the king of Pruſſia; and prince Charles of Lorrain being defeated by that monarch, a peace was concluded, by which Sileſia was ceded to his Pruſſian majeſty, and guaranteed by the king of Great Britain. This peace was, however, of no long continuance; the king of Pruſſia diſcovered, or at leaſt pretended to diſcover, a ſecret convention, by which the empreſs-queen, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, had engaged to ſtrip him of all his dominions, and divide them among themſelves. His Pruſſian majeſty therefore ſuddenly entered Saxony, drove the king of Poland out of his electorate, and took poſſeſſion of Dreſden. This irruption was however ſoon after terminated by a peace, under the mediation of the king of Great Britain, by which the king of Pruſſia acknowledged the grand duke of Tuſcany emperor of Germany.

The war was ſtill continued in the Low Countries, but was terminated, in the year 1748, by the

treaty

treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which, however, did not put a period to the troubles of Germany for any long ſpace of time, for it ſoon appeared the jealouſy of the king of Pruſſia was not founded on imagination only.

The empreſs-queen and the empreſs of Ruſſia, ſupported by France, kindled again the flames of war in the empire. The king of Pruſſia declared that he would oppoſe with all his power the entrance of the Ruſſian forces into Germany, and his Britannic majeſty proteſted againſt the French marching into that country. Theſe two reſpectable powers thus agreeing in this fundamental principle, all former animoſities were buried in oblivion, and the Britiſh parliament agreed to pay his Pruſſian majeſty an annual ſubſidy of 670,000l. during the continuance of the war, the flames of which now broke out in Germany with greater fury and more deſtructive violence than ever.

The armies of his Pruſſian majeſty, like an irreſiſtible torrent, burſt into Saxony, totally defeated marſhal Brown at the battle of Lowoſitz, obliged the Saxon forces to lay down their arms, though almoſt impregnably fortified at Pirna, and cauſed the elector of Saxony to fly for protection to his regal dominions in Poland. The emperor now interpoſed his authority, and commanded the king of Pruſſia to deſiſt immediately from troubling the repoſe of Germany. This Imperial order being diſregarded, his Pruſſian majeſty was put under the ban of the empire, and the army of execution was ordered to be raiſed. The French poured their armies into Germany on one ſide, and the Ruſſians on the other. Few hiſtories afford an inſtance of conduct and intrepidity equal to that diſplayed by his Pruſſian majeſty on this alarming occaſion; it was indeed aſtoniſhing. He broke into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated near Prague the Auſtrian army, commanded by marſhal Brown and prince Charles of Lorrain. In this action, 20,000 were killed, wounded, or taken priſoners. This victory left the city of Prague open, which the king of Pruſſia immediately beſieged; but before he could reduce it, the greater part of his forces were defeated at Colin by marſhal Daun, which obliged him to raiſe the ſiege and retire to Eiſenach. This defeat, however, was far from intimidating the Pruſſian monarch; he ſoon after attacked the combined army of France and the empire, at Roſbach, and obtained a complete victory, ſeized their baggage, and 164 pieces of cannon. This victory was ſoon after followed by another of ſtill more importance; he attacked the grand Auſtrian army commanded by prince Charles of Lorrain, and the marſhals Daun and Nadaſti, at Liſſa, and totally defeated them. By this time the Ruſſians had advanced to Zorndorff, where they were alſo defeated by the Pruſſians.

We cannot undertake, in this compendium, to follow the armies of the contending powers in Germany through all the various ſcenes of action; let it ſuffice to ſay, that the greateſt defeat his Pruſſian majeſty received during the whole war, was by the Ruſſians, near Frankfort on the Oder. His affairs indeed now ſeemed deſperate, but he had reſources within himſelf that aſtoniſhed all the world; he aroſe with new luſtre after every defeat. He maintained a war againſt theſe formidable powers, till jealouſy among the contending parties occaſioned it to languiſh, and before the cauſe could be removed, the empreſs of Ruſſia died on the 5th of January, 1762. George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

Theſe critical events ſaved the houſe of Brandenburgh; nor were the Auſtrian generals themſelves very forward to complete the deſtruction of Pruſſia. —Already ſufficiently haughty and deſpotic, it was thought very imprudent to increaſe the power of the court of Vienna. The new czar of Ruſſia recalled his forces, and the Engliſh miniſtry had entered into a negotiation with France for putting an end to the troubles of Europe. This had a great effect on the belligerent powers in Germany; and on the 15th of February, 1763, a definitive treaty of peace between the emperor and empreſs-queen of Hungary, and the king of Poland, elector of Saxony, on the one part; and the king of Pruſſia, on the other; was concluded at Hubertſburg near Leipſic; by which it was agreed that every thing ſhould remain in the ſame ſtate as at the beginning of this bloody war, which had proved fatal to many of the beſt generals in Europe; the king of Pruſſia loſt above forty, among whom was the great marſhal Keith, and general Schwerin. Marſhal Brown fell in the battle of Prague, and Daun was dangerouſly wounded at Torgau.

The emperor died at Vienna in the year 1765, and his ſon Joſeph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded to the Imperial throne. This prince was of a pacific and humane diſpoſition, had diſcovered great talents for government, and given ſeveral pleaſing inſtances of his ardent deſire to render his ſubjects happy. He attended to their complaints in perſon, and redreſſed every grievance as ſoon as it was known. He viſited his Italian dominions incog. and regulated many abuſes which had crept into the government. He procured a perſonal interview with the late king of Pruſſia, though this did not prevent hoſtilities from being commenced between Auſtria and Pruſſia, on account of the ſucceſſion to the electorate of Bavaria. Though vaſt armies were brought into the field on both ſides, no very important action happened, and an accommodation at length took place.

He was a prince of a philoſophical turn of mind, and mixed with his ſubjects with an eaſe and affability that are very uncommon in perſons of his rank. He loved the converſation of ingenious men, and appeared ſolicitous to cultivate that extenſive knowledge, which ennobles thoſe who poſſeſs the elevated ſtation to which he had been raiſed.

He expired on the 20th of February, 1790, in the 26th year of his reign, and the 49th of his age. As king of Hungary and Bohemia, he was only in the 10th year. He ſucceeded to the Imperial crown on the death of his father Francis, on the 10th of Auguſt, 1765; and to the hereditary dominions in the houſe of Auſtria on the death of his mother, on the 29th of November, 1780. He was twice married; firſt, to a princeſs of Parma; then to one of the princeſſes of the houſe of Bavaria.

Peter Leopold, grand duke of Tuſcany, ſucceeded his brother Joſeph II. and engaged the public praiſe by repeated inſtances of moderation and ſolid principles. The French revolution now attracted the attention of the powers of Europe. A conference was held at Pilnitz between the emperor, the king of Pruſſia, and the elector of Saxony, at which the plan of attacking France was propoſed and diſcuſſed. Leopold for ſome time was very irreſolute, but at laſt ſeemed to be reſolved on war, when he died of a pleuritic fever, on the 1ſt of March, 1792, after an illneſs of four days.

His ſon Francis was raiſed to the Imperial throne in the middle of July following. He embraced the politics of his predeceſſor, and embarked with zeal in the war againſt France. The conſequences of this war, as more properly belonging to the affairs of France, are related in our account of that nation, under which they will appear more clear and connected.

CHAP.

CHAP. XIX.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA.

Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Produce, Religion, Inhabitants, Government, Revenues, &c.

THE Kingdom of Pruſſia, formerly called Ducal Pruſſia, belongs to the houſe of Brandenburg; and is quite diſtinct from Royal Pruſſia, which is ſubject to Poland. Its greateſt length is about 160 miles, and its breadth about 112. To the north it is bounded by part of Samogitia; to the ſouth, by Poland Proper and Maſovia; to the eaſt, by part of Lithuania; and to the weſt, by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic.

The ancient inhabitants of this kingdom were the Boruſſi, and from them the preſent appellation of Pruſſia is evidently derived. Pruſſia, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, has become a very reſpectable power upon the continent of Europe; but as the territories of his Pruſſian majeſty lie ſcattered in different parts of Germany, &c. it was thought proper to exhibit the whole in the following table:—

Countries Names.		Chief Towns.
Poland	Ducal Pruſſia	Koningſburg.
	Royal Pruſſia	Elbing.
Upper Saxony	Brandenburg	Berlin.
	Pomerania	Camin.
	Swediſh Pomerania	Stettin.
Lower Saxony	Magdeburg	Magdeburg.
	Halberſtadt	Halberſtadt.
Bohemia	Glatz	Glatz.
	Sileſia	
Minden		Minden.
Weſtphalia	Ravenſburg	Ravenſburg.
	Lingen	Lingen.
	Cleves	Cleves.
	Meurs	Meurs.
	Mark	Ham.
Eaſt Frieſland		Embden.
Lippe		Lipſtadt.
Gulich		Gulich.
Tecklenburgh		Tecklenburgh.
Netherlands	Guelder	Guelders.
Switzerland	Neufchatel	Neufchatel.

Beſides the above dominions, the preſent king of Pruſſia poſſeſſes great part of Sileſia, which, under various pretences, he has wreſted from Auſtria: he has alſo ſeized upon Thorn, with the countries on the Viſtula, the Neiſter, and other territories contiguous to his own dominions, cloſe to the walls of Dantzick.

The air of Pruſſia, being purified by frequent high winds, is tolerable wholeſome: the winters are long and ſevere, and the autumns frequently wet and ſtormy. The ſoil, where cultivated, proves fruitful in corn and other commodities. The woods furniſh the inhabitants with wax, honey, pitch, and a quantity of pot-aſhes. Here is alſo a ſort of manna, and a ſpecies of worm or inſect called kermes, from which a beautiful red colour is extracted. Its animal productions are horſes, ſheep, deer, and game, bears, wolves, lynxes, wild boars, and foxes. The rivers and lakes abound with fiſh; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found in pits on its coaſts, towards the Baltic. Wood for fuel, and pit-coal, are very plentiful.

The preſent inhabitants of Pruſſia are the deſcendents of Germans, Lithuanians, and Poles, with a mixture of the French, Engliſh, and Dutch. The number of perſons, capable of bearing arms, are computed at upwards of 600,000, and, ſince the year 1719, it is ſuppoſed that about 34,000 coloniſts have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which, 17,000 were Saltzburghers. Theſe emigrants have built 400 ſmall villages; eleven towns, eighty-ſix ſeats, and fifty new churches, in that part of the country called Little Lithuania; they have likewiſe founded 1000 village-ſchools. The manners of the inhabitants, and their cuſtoms and diverſions, differ but little from thoſe of the other inhabitants of Germany, to which the reader is referred.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Pruſſia is the reformed, according to the tenets of Luther and Calvin; but, through his majeſty's wiſdom and moderation, Papiſts, Antipædobaptiſts, and almoſt all other ſects, are here tolerated. Schools for the inſtruction of youth are diſperſed throughout the kingdom. There is an Univerſity at Koningſburg, founded by the margrave Albert in the year 1544, which has thirty-eight profeſſors, excluſive of tutors: in the ſame city is a college, ſtyled Collegium Fredericianum.

Koninſburg, which is the capital of the whole kingdom, ſtands in 54—43 N. lat and 21—35 E. long. on the river Pregel, over which it has ſeven bridges. It is well built, contains and 60,000 inhabitants, a great number of elegant houſes, and a variety of gardens both public and private, is well fortified, and has an exceeding good harbour, well furniſhed with ſhips. Here is alſo a magnificent palace, the greater part of which was built by the margrave Albert. It is a very extenſive building, and in it moſt of the public offices, courts, and colleges are held. The gardens and parks belonging to it are likewiſe both ſpacious and beautiful; and near it is the Gallegium Fredericianum. In the year 1544, the above-mentioned Albert founded here a college, which has thirty-eight profeſſors, excluſive of tutors. The other public buildings of note, are the Exchange, and Town-Houſe, both very ſtately. Here is alſo the citadel called Frederic's-Burg, built in the year 1657, which is a regular ſquare, ſurrounded with broad ditches and the river Pregel. Beſides the hoſpitals and alms-houſes, here is a charitable fund, from which above eight hundred people receive weekly penſions This city was formerly a Hanſe-Town, and its trade is ſtill very conſiderable. In the year 1752, near five hundred ſhips arrrived in this port.

Thirty miles weſt of Koningſburg is Pilau, a town of conſiderable ſtrength, with a fine harbour, both which are defended by a ſtrong fort mounted with a great number of cannon. It is ſituated at the mouth of the bay or lake called Freſche-Hoff; and this peninſula is ſo delightful, that it is called the paradiſe of Pruſſia. Pilau is a place of good trade, and the larger veſſels conſigned to Koningſburg, deliver and take in their cargoes here, the Freſche-Hoff not having a ſufficient depth of water to carry them up to Koningſburg. In the village of Wogram, not far from hence, the ſturgeons are boiled and packed up, and cavier made of their roes, of which the greater part is exported to England.

The largeſt and moſt wealthy town in Pruſſia, next to Koninſburg, is Tilſet. It ſtands on the river Memel, and carries on a conſiderable trade, eſpecially with Koningſburg. Here is a ſalt factory, and a caſtle; and in the neighbouring county, which is remarkably fertile, great numbers of cattle are bred, and excellent butter and cheeſe made.

For curioſities and antiquities, natural and artificial, ſee Germany.

The late king of Pruſſia, by an indefatigable attention to the commerce and manufactures of his kingdom, brought them into a very flouriſhing ſtate: he derived an amazing revenue from this country, which about a century and a half ago was the ſeat of boors and barbariſm. It is ſaid that amber alone, of which Pruſſia has been conſidered as the native country, brings him in 26,000 dollars per annum. Beſides

amber, the exports of this country conſiſt of a variety of naval ſtores, linſeed, hemp-ſeed, oatmeal, cavier, mead, fiſh, and tallow; and 500 ſhips, chiefly from Koningſburg, are ſaid to be employed annually in the conveyance of theſe articles to foreign countries. The manufactures of Pruſſia conſiſt principally in iron-work, copper and braſs ſcroll, glaſs, paper, gunpowder, cloth, ſilk, linen, camblet, knit ſtockings, and other articles. The lakes and canals afford great conveniencies for tranſporting merchandize; and, for its extent, the kingdom of Pruſſia has the moſt inland navigation of any other in Europe, the Netherlands excepted—The principal rivers are the Viſtula, the Pregel, the Memel, the Paſſage, and the Elbe.

The king of Pruſſia is abſolute throughout his dominions, and, under him, the government is veſted in a regency of four chancellors of the ſtate, viz. the great maſter, the great burgrave, the great chancellor, and the great marſhal. There are alſo ſome other councils, and thirty-ſeven bailiwicks. The ſtates of this kingdom conſiſt of counſellors of ſtate, and of deputies from the nobility and commons: his majeſty has likewiſe erected a board for commerce and navigation, and there are ſeveral tribunals for the adminiſtration of juſtice.

The revenues of the king of Pruſſia ariſe principally from his demeſnes, the duties of cuſtoms and tolls, and the ſubſidies granted annually by the ſeveral ſtates. Since the acceſſion of Poliſh or Royal Pruſſia, his revenues are greatly increaſed: the local ſituation of theſe additional territories was of vaſt importance, as they lay between his German dominions and his kingdom of Pruſſia; but this acquiſition has rendered his kingdom compact, ſo that his troops may march from Berlin to Koninſburg without interruption, not to mention the benefit ariſing to trade and commerce by this means.

The Pruſſian military eſtabliſhment is under the moſt excellent regulation. Every regiment has a particular diſtrict aſſigned it, where the young men proper for bearing arms are regiſtered, till called upon to join their regiments, where, being incorporated with veterans, they ſoon become excellent ſoldiers. By this means, the king is never at a loſs in forming his troops, or recuiting his army, which even in time of peace conſiſts of about 180,000 of the beſt diſciplined troops in the world, and, during the laſt war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandize the power and importance of the ſovereign, is utterly inconſiſtent with the intereſts of the people; and in a country naturally ſo independent to it, has occaſioned ſo great a drain from population, and ſuch a withdrawing of ſtrength from the labours of the earth, that the preſent king has endeavoured in ſome meaſure to ſave his own peaſantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries.

The arms of the kings of Pruſſia are, Argent, an eagle diſplayed ſable, crowned, Or, for Pruſſia. Azure, the imperial ſceptre, Or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle diſplayed, gules, with ſemicircular wreaths, for the marquiſate of Brandenburg. To theſe are are added the reſpective arms of the ſeveral provinces ſubject to the crown of Pruſſia. The four orders of knighthood are as follow:

1. The order of *Concord*, inſtituted by Chriſtian Erneſt, margrave of Brandenburg, in the year 1660, to diſtinguiſh the part he had acted in reſtoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. The badge is a gold croſs of eight points, enamelled white; in the centre a medal bearing two olive-branches paſſing ſaltier-wiſe through two crowns, and circumſcribed with the word *Concordans*, "Agreeing." The croſs is ſurmounted with an electoral crown, and worn pendent to an orange-coloured ribband. 2. The order of *Generoſity*, inſtituted by Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, and afterwards king of Pruſſia. The knights wear a croſs of eight points enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, *La Generoſité*, "Generoſity," pendent to a blue ribband. 3. The order of the *Black Eagle* was inſtituted by the ſame prince, on the day of his coronation, at Koningſburg, in the year 1700; the ſovereign is always grand maſter, and the number of knights, excluſive of the royal family, is limited to thirty: none but ſovereign princes can be admitted into this order, till after having been previouſly received into that of Generoſity. The enſign of the order is a gold croſs of eight points enamelled blue, having at each angle a ſpread eagle, enamelled black, being the arms of Pruſſia, and charged in the centre with a cypher of the letters F. R. pendent to a broad orange ribband worn ſaſhways over the left ſhoulder; and a ſilver ſtar embroidered on the left ſide of the coat, whereon is an eſcutcheon, containing a ſpread eagle, holding in one claw a chaplet of laurel, and in the other a thunderbolt, with this motto round it in gold letters, *Suum cuique*, "To every one his own." The knight-caps are of black velvet with white plumes. 4. The order of *Merit* was inſtituted by his late majeſty, in the year 1740. The king is ſovereign, and the number of knights unlimited. The enſign is a croſs of eight points enamelled blue, and edged with gold, having in the centre a cypher of the letters F. R. and in each angle an eagle diſplayed black; on the two upper points the regal crown of Pruſſia; on the reverſe, the motto, *Pour le Merit*, "For Merit." The badge is worn round the neck, pendent to a black ribband, edged with ſilver. This order is conferred as the reward of merit of perſons either in arts or arms, without diſtinction of birth, religion, or country.

HISTORY OF PRUSSIA.

THE origin of the inhabitants of Pruſſia, like that of moſt other nations, is loſt in the darkneſs of antiquity: we know, however, that in very early times the ancient Pruſſians were a very brave and warlike people, and refuſed to ſubmit to the neighbouring princes, who, on various pretences, attempted to reduce them to ſlavery. In particular, they made a noble ſtand againſt the kings of Poland, and in the year 1163 the Poliſh monarch Boleſſaus IV. was by them defeated, and ſlain.

They remained Pagans in opinion, and independent in circumſtances, till the time of the cruſades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1230, attempted to convert them by force of arms. Several bloody wars enſued, in which the inhabitants of Pruſſia were almoſt extirpated by the zealous fury of the Teutonic knights; and the latter having ravaged the country with incredible barbarity, attempted to repeople it with Germans.

In 1466 a treaty was entered into between Caſimir, king of Poland, and the Teutonic knights, in which it was agreed, that the country now called Poliſh Pruſſia ſhould continue a free province under the protection of the king, and that the knights ſhould poſſeſs the remainder, on condition of acknowledging themſelves vaſſals to Poland. This treaty was however ſoon broken, another ſeries of bloody wars enſued, and the knights attempted to become independent of the Poles, but their attempts proved abortive.

In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the laſt grand-maſter of the Teutonic order, concluded a peace, and entered into a treaty at Cracow, in which it was ſtipulated that the margrave ſhould be acknowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia, which on that account was called Ducal Pruſſia, but ſtill it was to remain as a fief of Poland. In this manner the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order ended in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted near 300 years.

In

In 1657, the elector Frederic William of Brandenburg, deservedly called the Great, had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed by John Casimir, king of Poland, from vassalage; and he and his descendents were declared independent and sovereign lords of this part of Prussia.

As the Protestant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that persuasion, the Protestant interest favoured them so much, that Frederic, the son of Frederic-William the Great, was raised to the dignity of king of Prussia, in a solemn assembly of the states, proclaimed January 18, 1701, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, Frederic II. in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this first king's talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father, Frederic-William, who succeeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of strong natural abilities, and considerably increased the revenues of his country, but too often at the expence of humanity. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is said to have left seven millions sterling in his treasury, which enabled his son, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful resources by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the age. He improved the arts of peace as well as of war, and distinguished himself as a poet, philosopher, and legislator. Some of the principal transactions of his reign have already been related in our account of the history of Germany. In the year 1783, he published a rescript, signifying his pleasure that no kneeling in future should be practised in honour of his person, assigning for his reason, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the Divinity; and near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him in 1782, in draining marshes, establishing factories, settling colonies, relieving distress, and in other purposes of philanthropy and policy.

The late king of Prussia, who succeeded his uncle, August 17, 1786, made many salutary regulations for his subjects, and has established a court of honour to prevent the diabolical practice of duelling in his dominions.

And not long before his death, he instituted two hospitals for the aged of both sexes, and of all countries; and he granted 500,000 rix-dollars for the new establishments forming in Western Prussia, besides 100,000 rix-dollars for cutting a new canal from the eastern parts of Brandenburgh to Berlin.

CHAP. XX.

BOHEMIA.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Divisions, Climate, Mountains, Manufactures, People, Religion, Chief Towns, Revenue, &c.

THIS kingdom is situated between 48 and 52 deg. north lat. and between 12 and 19 deg. of east. long. It is bounded on the north, by Saxony and Brandenburgh; on the south, by Austria and Bavaria; on the east, by Poland and Hungary; and on the west, by the palatinate of Bavaria, comprehending, formerly, Bohemia Proper, Silesia, and Moravia. It is about 300 miles in length, from north to south, and 250, from east to west.

Bohemia Proper, W. is mostly subject to the house of Austria; its chief towns are Prague, Koningsgratz, E. Glatz, E. and Egra W. being in length 162 miles, and 142 in breadth, and containing an area of 12,060 square miles.

Silesia, E. mostly subject to the king of Prussia, has for its chief towns, Breslaw, Glogaw, N. Crossen, N. Jugendorf, S. Tropaw, S. subject to the house of Austria; and Teschen, S. also subject to Austria, being in length 196 miles, and in breadth ninety-two, and contains an area of 10,250 square miles.

Moravia, S. is entirely subject to the house of Austria; its chief towns are, Olmutz, Brin (middle,) and Igla, S. W. being in length 120 miles, and eighty-eight in breadth, and contains an area of 5,424 square miles.

The climate of Bohemia is rather unwholesome, owing, as is supposed, chiefly to the large woods with which it abounds. The soil is in general tolerably fertile, being well watered with rivers, particularly the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

The mountains of Bohemia contain rich mines of coals, alum, silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, vitriol, sulphur, and salt-petre; in other respects, there is nothing remarkable in them. There are numerous droves of cattle, together with excellent chaces, and wild fowl; as also bears, wolves, foxes, martins, badgers, beavers, and others; with well tasted fish of all kinds in the rivers and ponds.

The chief manufactures of Bohemia are linen, copper, iron, and glass; the exports consist chiefly of cattle, corn, metals, precious stones, linen, and wines.

In the days of the emperor Rodolphus II. Bohemia was computed to contain 34,700 villages, 732 small towns, 124, castles, and above 3,000,000 inhabitants, but it is thought they are less numerous at present. They resemble the Germans in their persons and habits; the peasants are naturally brave, and more inclined to arms than arts; they are open and agreeable in conversation, but superstitious, and easily imposed upon by artful and designing men. There are no gentry in Bohemia; every lord is sovereign in his own estate, and every tenant a slave; but the present emperor has generously discharged the Bohemian peasants on the imperial demesnes, from the state of villenage in which they have been so long and so justly retained; and it will be happy if his imperial majesty's example should be followed by the Bohemian nobility, and their vassals be permitted to enjoy the rights of human nature.

Formerly, the Bohemians were the most intrepid asserters of civil and religious liberty; and accordingly, at the time of the reformation, nobly opposed the emperor, at the head of the imperial army; but animosities prevailing among their leaders, they were obliged, after making the most generous struggles for independency, to submit. Exasperated at their opposition, their despotic masters employed every method in their power to break the spirit of the Bohemians, in order to render them more submissive to an arbitrary government, and an ignorant, bigoted clergy. The customs and diversions of Bohemia are the same with those practised in Germany.

The established religion of Bohemia is Popery. The Protestant religion was early planted here by John Huss and Jerome of Prague; but since the banishment of its professors in the year 1639, that religion has not been tolerated. A few years since a mysterious kind of Protestantism sprung up in Moravia, under the auspices of count Zinzendorff, and has been since propagated in various parts of the globe; they have still a chapel in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a settlement in the plantations. The only archbishop in Bohemia is that of Prague; but there are three bishops under him; namely, those of Koningsgratz, Breslau, and Olmutz.

The proper language of Bohemia in the Sclavanian, but the inhabitants generally speak German.

The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague; it was founded by the emperor Charles IV. and has generally 1400 students; but when the celebrated John

John Huſs was rector of this seat of learning, it is alleged that their number amounted to 44,000.

Prague, the capital of Bohemia (in E. long. 14. deg. 20 min. N. lat. 50) is one of the most magnificent cities in Bohemia, and so large in circumference, that the grand Prussian army could never completely invest it, so that, in case of a regular siege, it can make a vigorous defence. The houses are wholly built of stone, and for the most part, consist of three stories. The bridge over the Moldaw is a noble structure. The streets are spacious, and well laid out, and many of the public structures large and magnificent; in it are computed, ninety-two churches and chapels, with about forty cloisters; but the city, considering its extent, is not very populous, the number of inhabitants being computed at only 70,000 Christians, and 30,000 Jews. The trade is not considerable, but the Jews carry on a large commerce in jewels.

Breslau, the capital of Silesia, we have already described in our account of Prussia.

Olmutz, the capital of Moravia, in E. long. 16 deg. 45 min. N. lat. 49 deg. 40 min. situated on a navigable river called Morawa, is a neat, strong, and populous city. The streets are regular, and the public structures elegant. It contains twenty-six churches, five chapels, seven cloisters of monks, and two of nuns, several hospitals, one correction and orphan-house, one college and seminary, an university, a riding academy, and a learned society. It is a bishop's see, which about the year 880 was filled by St. Cyril.—Here are manufactures of woollen, iron, glass, paper, and gunpowder; and the inhabitants carry on a great trade with Hungary, Poland, Silesia, and Austria.

There are several other considerable places in Bohemia, some of which are fortified; but not remarkable either for strength, buildings, commerce, or manufactures.

Originally the constitution of this kingdom was a limited and elective monarchy. But Ferdinand I. by his marriage with Anne, heiress of Bohemia and Hungary, annexing those kingdoms to the house of Austria, they have both become hereditary, and the governments despotic. The appearance of the old constitution is indeed still preserved, and is composed of the clergy, nobility, and representatives of towns, forming a kind of parliament. They meet every year at Prague; but never refuse to grant any thing their sovereign demands. This kingdom is frequently described as part of Germany, but with little reason, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing to the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it subject to any of its laws. The affairs of state are directed by a chancellor, who has under him a vice-chancellor, and several assessors and counsellors.

The revenues of Bohemia are said to amount to about 80,000l. a year; but they are in general whatever the sovereign is pleased to exact from the states of the kingdom, when they are annually assembled at Prague. The standing militia of the Austrian hereditary countries is 24,000, towards which Bohemia furnishes 9000. In times of war, these serve to fill up the marching regiments.

The Bohemian arms are, Argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and passed in saltier, crowned langued, and armed, Or. For the orders of knighthood and coins, see GERMANY.

HISTORY OF BOHEMIA.

During the early times we have very little account of these people. The Bohemian nobility used to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In 1414, when Sigismund, king of Hungary, and afterwards emperor, filled the throne of Bohemia, the two celebrated reformers, John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, were burnt at Constance, though the emperor had given them his protection. This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia; and the inhabitants of Prague threw three of the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council chambers, into a ditch which surrounds the city. The famous Ziska, assembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, routed the emperor's forces in several engagements, and drove the Imperialists out of the kingdom. The death of Ziska was fatal to the Hussites, whose divisions among themselves enabled the emperors to keep possession of Bohemia; but being afterwards convinced, that unless they acted with more unanimity, their cause would soon be desperate; they accordingly formed a league, called the Union, and had once more recourse to arms, electing, in the year 1619, a Protestant king in the person of prince Palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. The battle of Prague put a final period to Bohemian liberty; the elector palatine was totally defeated by the emperor's generals, and obliged to seek refuge in Holland; and, during his exile, subsisted on a pension from the court of England. The Bohemians, after a war of thirty years duration, which almost desolated the whole empire, now remain subject to the house of Austria.

CHAP. XXI.

HUNGARY.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Divisions, Climate, Rivers, Mines, Produce, Inhabitants, Religion, Curiosities, History, &c.

THAT part of this country which now belongs to the house of Austria (for it formerly included Transylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries) is situated between the 17th and 23d deg. of east long. and the 45th and 49th deg. of north lat. being about 300 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. It is bounded by Poland on the north, by Transylvania and Walachia on the east, by Sclavonia on the south, and by Austria and Moravia on the west. This kingdom is usually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary, in the following manner:

Upper Hungary, North of the Danube.	*Lower Hungary, South of the Danube.*
Chief Towns.	Chief Towns.
Presburg, situate on the Danube.	Buda on the Danube.
Newhausel, N. W.	Gran on the Danube, above Buda.
Leopoldstad, N. W.	Komorra on the Danube, in the island of Schut.
Chremnitz, N. W.	Raab on the Danube, opposite to the island of Schut.
Shemnits, in the middle.	Atlenburg, opposite to the island of Schut.
Esperies, N.	Weissenburgh, or Alba Regalis, situated east of the lake called Platten Sea.
Caschaw, N.	Kanisba, S. W. of the Platten Sea.
Tokay, N. E.	Five Churches, north of the river Drave.
Zotmar, N. E.	Temeswar.
Unguar, N. E.	
Mongats, N. E.	
Waradin Great, E.	
Segedin, S. E.	
Agria, in the middle.	
Pest on the Danube, opposite to Buda.	
Temeswar.	

Formerly

Formerly the laſt of theſe provinces was governed by an independent king, and has been conſidered as diſtinct from Hungary: it has been ſeveral times in poſſeſſion of the Turks; but the Auſtrians gaining poſſeſſion of it, incorporated it with the kingdom of Hungary in 1778. It has been divided into four diſtricts, namely, Cſadat, Temeſwar, Werſchez, and Lugos.

In the ſouthern parts of Hungary the climate is very unhealthy, proceeding from the number of lakes, ſtagnant waters, and marſhes, which infect the air; but in the northern parts, where it is exceedingly mountainous, it is much more ſalutary. The ſoil of the plain which extends from Preſburg to Belgrade, a tract of three hundred miles, is, without exception, very rich.

The principal rivers in Hungary are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyſſe, Meriſh, and Tames. There are ſeveral extenſive lakes in the vallies between the Carpathian mountains, and all abound with fiſh. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are eſteemed ſuperior in quality to any in Europe, and are very numerous. While the Turks were in poſſeſſion of this kingdom there were magnificent baths erected at ſeveral places, eſpecially at Buda; but ſince the expulſion of the Infidels, theſe buildings have been ſuffered to decay.

In Hungary the mines have been famous for many centuries; but at preſent they are not worked with the ſame vigour as formerly. The long and deſtructive wars between the Turks and Chriſtians have greatly affected the produce of the mines; many of the works being deſtroyed, moſt of the workmen were driven from their habitations, and others periſhed by the ſwords of the enemy. Several of the mines are, however, ſtill worked, to the great emolument of the natives, and advantage of the government. Some of them produce gold, others ſilver, and many excellent copper. Vitriol, iron, orpiment, quickſilver, chryſocolla, lapis calaminaris, and terra ſigillata, are alſo very plentiful here. The Hungarian gold and ſilver formerly employed mint-houſes, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and on the continent of Europe.

The level country produces corn, graſs, eſculent plants, tobacco, ſaffron, aſparagus, melons, hops, pulſe, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, cheſnuts, and wood: the corn in particular is in ſuch plenty, that it ſells for one-ſixth part of its price in England; and the wines, particularly Tokay, are preferable to thoſe of any other country. The moſt remarkable animals are a fine breed of horſes, generally of a mouſe colour; and a particular breed of large rams near Preſburg. The foreſts are beautiful, and the meadows feed numerous herds of cattle. Here are alſo buffaloes, aſſes, mules, bears, lynxes, ſtags, deer, chamois goats, ſheep, ſwine, &c. various kinds of wild fowl, ſuch as partridges, woodcocks, moor-fowls, and likewiſe ſome birds.

The inhabitants of Hungary are deſcended from the ancient Hunns, Sclavonians, and other northern nations, who were not able for a long time to drive the Romans out of the country, ſome of whoſe deſcendents are ſtill to be diſtinguiſhed in the inland parts, by their ſpeaking Latin. Both Hungaries at preſent, excluſive of Tranſylvania and Croatia, are ſaid to contain about two millions and a half of people. It is thought that, before the Turks were in poſſeſſion of Conſtantinople, Hungary was one of the moſt powerful and populous kingdoms in Europe: and the Hungarians ſtill value themſelves on being deſcended from thoſe heroes who formed the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the bigoted fury of the Infidels. They are ſtill a brave and magnanimous people: and their anceſtors, even at the beginning of the preſent century, were ſo jealous of their liberties, that, rather than ſuffer the tyranny of the houſe of Auſtria, they have often ſubmitted to that of Othman. In their perſons they are well made: and their fur caps, their cloſe-bodied coats, girded by a ſaſh, and their cloak or mantle, which is ſo contrived as to buckle under one arm, that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them an air of military dignity. Their uſual arms are a broad ſword and a kind of pole-axe, beſides their muſkets and piſtols. They ſhave their beards, but preſerve their whiſkers on their upper lips. The nobility affect great pomp and magnificence, and are greatly addicted to feaſting and drinking. The women are eſteemed handſome, and their dreſs gives them an air of dignity. When they go abroad, they generally wear ſhort cloaks and a veil. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur, and even ſheep-ſkin dreſſes. They are in general indolent, and leave trade, manufactures, and agriculture, to ſtrangers, many of whom, particularly Greeks and Jews, are ſettled in this country; the flatneſs of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diverſions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind.

In the province of Temeſwar, there are many faraons, or gypſies, ſuppoſed to be the real deſcendants of the ancient Egyptians, whom they are ſaid to reſemble in their features, in their manners, and cuſtoms, and in their propenſity to melancholy. The laſcivious dances of Iſis, the worſhip of onions, many remarkable ſuperſtitions and ſpecifics practiſed by the Egyptians, with their method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are affirmed to be ſtill in uſe among the female gypſies in Temeſwar. The number of inhabitants in this province is about 450,000.

The religion eſtabliſhed in this country is the Roman Catholic: for, though the Reformation was introduced hither in the 16th century, and made a conſiderable progreſs, the profeſſors of it are now but barely tolerated, though much more numerous than the Papiſts. The Greeks and Jews are alſo very numerous, the latter of whom pay double taxes. The archbiſhoprics are, Preſburg, Gran, and Colocza: the biſhoprics, Great Waradin, Agria, Veſprin, Raab, and five churches.

The Hungarians being of various origin, it is no wonder they have a variety of dialects, one of which (uſed by the people called Zigduns) is ſaid to approach near the Hebrew. The principal part ſpeak German, and almoſt all, even of the common people, ſpeak Latin.

Here are four univerſities, viz. Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Caſcham; the profeſſors in all which are commonly Jeſuits, who inſtruct the Roman Catholic youth in the arts and ſciences. The Proteſtants are brought up at German and other univerſities; though even in Hungary they have their gymnaſiums and ſchools, but they are under ſeveral reſtrictions.

Among the natural curioſities of this country, are the rocks and caverns: the rock called Benikora is 3000 paces in perpendicular height. In a mountain near Szelitze, is a cavern, the aperture of which, fronting the ſouth, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad; its ſubterraneous paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, ſtretching away further ſouth than has been yet diſcovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height has been found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-ſix: this cavern is ſaid to be exceedingly warm in the depth of winter, and ſurpriſingly cold in the hotteſt part of the ſummer: here great numbers of hares, foxes, bats, owls, and other animals, take up their winter abode.

The chief artificial curioſities of Hungary, are the bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Eſſeck, built over the Danube and Drave, is, properly ſpeaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain diſtances. This was an important paſs during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. Between Buda and Peſt is a bridge

of boats acroſs the Danube half a mile long; and, about twenty Hungarian miles from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge erected by the Romans, ſuppoſed at that time to have been one of the moſt magnificent in the world. Some of the churches are of admirable architecture, and ſeveral of the baths are exceedingly elegant.

The cities and bublic buildings have loſt much of their ancient magnificence, but ſome of the fortifications are ſtill very ſtrong, and kept in good order. Preſburg, though the capital of the kingdom, is neither large nor well built, and is defended only by a double wall and ditch. Beſides the cathedral, here are ſeveral Popiſh, and one Lutheran church, a Jeſuits college, three convents, and two hoſpitals. On a hill above the town ſtands the caſtle, in which the regalia were kept, but have lately been removed to Vienna. The crown was ſent in the year 1000, by pope Sylveſter II. to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of ſolid gold, ornamented with fifty-three ſapphires, fifty rubies, one large emerald, and 338 pearls: beſides theſe ſtones, are the images of the apoſtles and patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a ſilver patriarchal croſs, which was afterwards inſerted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation, a biſhop carries it before the king, who afterwards brandiſhes it towards the four cardinal points, to ſhew that he will defend his country againſt all its enemies. From the croſs above-mentioned is derived the title of Apoſtolic King; the uſe of which was renewed under the reign of the empreſs-queen Maria Thereſa. The ſceptre and the globe of the kingdom are Arabian gold. The ſword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Firnan, on the river Tina, is a handſome royal town, in which are a great number of churches and convents, and an academy of Jeſuits.

Czernnitz, capital of the county of Bars, is one of the chief of the mine towns. Schemnitz is the principal mine town in Hungary. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its ſtrength and fortifications; and the ſame may be ſaid of Peſt, which lies on the oppoſite ſide of the Danube. Raab, Gran, and Comorra, are likewiſe ſtrong cities. Tokay, already noticed for its excellent wines, is ſituated near the confluence of the Theiſſe and Bodragh. Great Waradin is a well-fortified city, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſituated on the river Koros, 110 miles eaſt of Buda.

The principal manufactures of Hungary are thoſe of copper, braſs, iron, and other hard-wares. The exports conſiſt chiefly of wine, horſes, cattle, metals, minerals, ſaffron, wool, and leather. The commerce is chiefly carried on by the Greeks and Jews.

The government of Hungary preſerves the remains of many checks upon the regal authority; for which purpoſe they have a diet or parliament, a Hungary office, which has ſome affinity to our chancery, and is held at Vienna; and a ſtadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the Britiſh privy-council, but has a municipal juriſdiction, and is held at Preſburg. Every royal town has its ſenate; and the ſefran chafs reſemble our juſtices of the peace. Beſides this, they have an exchequer, and nine chambers and other ſubordinate courts. The Hungarians have an utter averſion to the title of queen, and even called the late empreſs, king Thereſa.

The emperor can at any time raiſe 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but ſeldom draws out of it more than 10,000, which troops are well known to the world by the appellation of huſſars. The Hungarian infantry are termed heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed. Both horſe and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a purſuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle. The huſſars are not near ſo large as the German horſe, and therefore ſtand upon the ſhort ſtirrups when they ſtrike.

Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage; and in the cabinets of the curious are ſtill extant a complete collection of the coins of their ancient kings; and numbers of curious Greek and Roman medals have been diſcovered in this country.

The ordinary revenues of this kingdom is ſaid to exceed a million ſterling, ariſing from the mines, duties on cattle, royal demeſnes, ſalt-works, contributions, cuſtoms, &c.

HISTORY OF HUNGARY.

The firſt account we have of this country is, that the Huns ſettled here in the third century, and gave it their own name; for, before that time, it was a part of the ancient Pannonia. It was at firſt divided into many ſmall principalities: theſe at length united under one head, who was ſtyled duke of Hungary. The laſt who enjoyed that title was Geyſa, who, on being converted to Chriſtianity, reſigned his government to his ſon Stephen, in the year 1000. Stephen, on his aſcending the throne, aſſumed the title of king; and is ſaid to have governed his people with prudence and equity. Hungary, however, continued many years to be an elective kingdom, but generally in one family; and the conſtitution of the government to be a limited monarchy. In 1310, Charles Robert aſcended the throne of Hungary, and ſubdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Sclavonia, and ſeveral other provinces, which he annexed to his own dominions; but ſome of theſe conqueſts were afterwards reduced by the Venetians. In the fifteenth century, the Turks invaded Hungary, when Ladiſlaus, an infant, filled the throne; but were bravely repulſed by the celebrated Hunniades, who continued regent of the kingdom during the minority of Ladiſlaus.

On the death of that prince, the Hungarians, in 1438, placed Matthias Corvinus, the ſon of Hunniades, on the throne, in gratitude for the great ſervices that hero had done his country. Hungary was now almoſt a perpetual theatre of war between the inhabitants and the Infidels, with various ſucceſs, till the year 1526, when Lodowick, king of Hungary, engaging Solyman, emperor of the Turks, with very unequal forces, was defeated and ſlain in battle. By this victory Solyman made himſelf maſter of great part of Hungary. John, waywode of Tranſylvania, aſcended the throne on the death of Lodowick; but was ſoon after depoſed by Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. Solyman reſtored John; and this conteſt occaſioned a war between the German and Turkiſh emperors, which laſted near 200 years. In 1527, Ferdinand, archduke of Auſtria, was placed on the Hungarian throne; and in 1722, in a diet held at Preſburg, the hereditary ſucceſſion in Hungary was ſecured to the houſe of Auſtria.

CHAP. XXII.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

General Deſcription of theſe Countries.

IT was thought moſt proper to include theſe countries under one diviſion, as we have no account ſufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The moſt authentic is as follows: Tranſylvania is bounded on the eaſt by Moldavia and Walachia; on the weſt

by the Upper and Lower Hungary; on the north by Upper Hungary and Poland; and on the ſouth by Walachia. Its length is computed at 180 miles, and its breadth 120, and contains 14,400 ſquare miles. This country is both mountainous and woody, and its produce, vegetables, and animals, are nearly the ſame with thoſe of Hungary. The air is ſalutary and temperate; but their wine is inferior to the Hungarian. The foreſts are very extenſive. The chief rivers are the Szamos, the Marro, and the Aluta. Here are ſeveral remarkable ſprings, gold, ſilver, copper, lead, iron mines, &c. and minerals, the produce of which they export into Hungary and other parts. All ſects are tolerated in this country.

Hermanſtadt, the chief city, and Kronſtadt, are both large and well fortified; as are Clauſenburg and Weiſenburg. The other large places are Sageſwar, Millenback, and Newmark. All ſorts of proviſions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. The ſeat of government is at Hermanſtadt, and the governor is aſſiſted by a council made up of Roman Catholics, Calviniſts, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by ſummons, and receives the commands of the ſovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonſtrances and repreſentations when aggrieved. They owe not much more than a nominal ſubjection to the Auſtrians, who leave them in poſſeſſion of moſt of their privileges. Their interior government ſtill partakes greatly of the ancient feudal ſyſtem, being compoſed of many independent ſtates and princes. The number of inhabitants in this country is not aſcertained; but as it is aſſerted they can bring 30,000 men into the field, it cannot be inconſiderable: its military force is at preſent reduced to ſix regiments of 1500 men each.

This principality is part of the ancient Dacia, the people of which were a fierce and warlike race, and very troubleſome to the Romans. On the decline of their empire, it was firſt over-run by the Goths, and afterwards by the Hunns. In the year 1526, two rival princes contended for this principality; one of them was ſupported by the German Emperor, and the other by the Turk; whereupon this country became the ſeat of war for many years; but, at length, by the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, the ſovereignty of Tranſylvania, as alſo Sclavonia, was confirmed to the houſe of Auſtria by the Turks. In October 1784, on account of ſome oppreſſions charged on the nobility, near 16,000 aſſembled, and committed great depredations on thoſe whoſe conduct had been blamed. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to eſcape with their lives. The malcontents were diſappointed in their attempt on Clauſenburg; and afterwards offered to ſeparate and go home in peace, on condition of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vaſſalage. Theſe diſturbances were happily quelled by the wiſe and lenient conduct of the late emperor.

The only biſhopric in this principality is Hermanſtadt; and indeed the Tranſylvanians at preſent ſeem to trouble themſelves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman Catholic is the eſtabliſhed church, but Proteſtants are very numerous. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced Chriſtianity here about the year 1000, and the country was afterwards governed by a Hungarian vaivod, or viceroy.

Sclavonia is ſituated between the 16th and 23d deg. of eaſt long. and the 45th and 47th of north lat. It is bounded on the north by Hungary, on the eaſt by the bannat of Temeſwar and Servia, on the ſouth by Servia and Boſnia, and on the weſt by Stiria and Croatia; about 150 miles in length, and from 25 to 45 in breadth. It is a fine, level, fruitful country, where cultivated; but having been, for many years, a frontier province againſt Turkey, and ſubject to the ravages of the Chriſtian, as well as the Turkiſh armies, it has produced but little corn or wine. The Raſcians inhabit the eaſtern diviſion of the country; and the natives, in general, are of good ſtature, a brave hardy race, ſoldiers from their cradles, their country having been long the ſeat of war. The ancient Sclavonia contained many large countries; ſome have extended it from the Adriatic to the Euxine Sea. It is ſaid to have taken its name from the Sclavi, a Scythian nation, which ſubdued Greece as well as this country, in the reign of the emperor Juſtinian. The Venetians made a conqueſt of Sclavonia, and compelled the natives to ſubmit to the vileſt drudgeries; inſomuch that ſome derive the word ſlave from this people, thus oppreſſed and abuſed by their conquerors. The Hungarians and Venetians poſſeſſed this country alternately. The king of Hungary was ſovereign of Sclavonia, when Solyman the Magnificent invaded and reduced it, in the year 1540, and the Turks remained poſſeſſed of it till the year 1687; ſoon after which they loſt this, and all the territories which the Auſtrians poſſeſs north of the Save and Danube.

The ſtates hold diets of their own, and likewiſe ſend repreſentatives to thoſe of Hungary. A viceroy or ban preſides over Sclavonia, Croatia, and part of Dalmatia.

Croatia is ſituated between the 15th and 17th deg. of eaſt long. and the 45th and 47th of north lat. being about eighty miles in length, and ſeventy in breadth. The towns are all blended together, but Zagrab is ſuppoſed to be the capital; as to the manners, cuſtoms, &c. of the Croats, they are entirely ſimilar to thoſe of the Tranſylvanians. Theſe people had formerly monarchs of their own, who ſtyled themſelves kings of Croatia and Dalmatia; and once this country was divided between the Hungarians and the Turks, but, at preſent, the greateſt part of it is ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, which, however, exerciſes very little power over it, except in what concerns the military arrangements; for the Croats are moſt excellent irregular troops, and are celebrated in modern hiſtory under the appellation of Pandours.

Dalmatia is bounded on the north by Boſnia and Croatia, on the eaſt by Servia, and on the ſouth and weſt by the Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice. It is reckoned to contain 477,000 ſquare miles, and in the year 1783, 367,000 inhabitants. In the fifteenth century the Venetians made themſelves maſters of it, but at preſent they only poſſeſs the chief maratime places; the other parts being divided among the Auſtrians, Turks, and Raguſans. This country is exceedingly mountainous; notwithſtanding which, it is prodigiouſly fertile, for the hills are covered with olives, vines, and myrtles, and their bowels contain plenty of gold and ſilver ore. The plains produce great quantities of paſture, which feed vaſt flocks of ſheep, and abundance of cattle. The language and cuſtoms of the people are Sclavonic, and they profeſs the Roman Catholic religion. There is one archbiſhopric and five biſhoprics in Dalmatia, viz. Zara, Zengh, Modrus, Fenen, Sebenico, and Tran. The principal town is Zara, which ſtands on a ſmall peninſula, being divided from the land only by a deep ditch, into which the ſea flows at high-water, under a drawbridge: it is ſo well fortified as to be deemed impregnable; and the inhabitants pretend that the body of St. Simeon, who took the infant Jeſus in his arms, lays in their cathedral, which is dedicated to that ſaint. There are ſeveral magnificent ſtructures in Zara, particularly the archbiſhop's palace, convents, hoſpitals, the arſenal, magazines, and barracks. Segna is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and is ſituated near the ſea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren ſoil. The biſhop of this place is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Spalatro. Ottoſchatz is a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. The governor reſides in the old palace called the Royal Caſtle.

Under Dalmatia is included Morlachia, a country full of high mountains, being a part of the ancient Liburnia:

Liburnia: it is about eighty miles in length, and ſixty in breadth.

The inhabitants of Morlacchi, generally called Morlacks, or Morlacchi, are thus deſcribed by a late traveller in thoſe parts. With regard to their character, they are much injured by their maritime neighbours. The inhabitants of the ſea coaſt of Dalmatia tell many frightful ſtories of their avarice and cruelty: but theſe are all either of an ancient date, or, if any have happened in later times, they ought rather to be aſcribed to the corruption of a few individuals, than to the bad diſpoſition of the nation in general; and, though thieviſh tricks are frequent among them, a ſtranger may travel ſecurely through their country, where he is faithfully eſcorted, and hoſpitably treated. The greateſt danger is from the Haiduks, or Banditti, of whom there are great numbers among the woods and caves of theſe dreadful mountains on the confines. There a man ought to get himſelf eſcorted by a couple of theſe "honeſt fellows;" for they are not capable of betraying him, although a banditti; and their ſituation is commonly more apt to raiſe compaſſion than diffidence. They lead their life among the wolves, wandering from one precipice to another, expoſed to the ſeverity of the ſeaſons, and frequently languiſh in want of the neceſſaries of life, in the moſt hideous and ſolitary caverns: yet they very ſeldom diſturb the tranquility of others, and prove always faithful guides to travellers; the chief objects of their rapine being ſheep and oxen, to ſupply themſelves with food and ſhoes. Sometimes it happens, that, in their extreme neceſſity, the Haiduks go in parties to the ſhepherds cottages, and rudely demand ſomething to eat; which they do not fail to take immediately by force if the leaſt heſitation is made. It is ſeldom indeed that they meet with a refuſal, or with reſiſtance, as their reſolution and fury are well known to be equal to the ſavage life they lead. Four Haiduks are not afraid to aſſault a caravan of fifteen or twenty Turks, and generally plunder and put them to flight. The greateſt part of the Haiduks look upon it as a meritorious action to ſhed the blood of the Turks; to which cruelty they are eaſily led by their natural ferocity, inflamed by a miſtaken zeal for religion.

The Morlacchi are repreſented as open and ſincere, to ſuch a degree that they would be taken for ſimpletons in any other country; and, by means of this quality, they have been ſo often duped by the Italians, that *the faith of an Italian*, and *the faith of a dog*, are ſynonimous among the Morlacchi. They are very hoſpitable to ſtrangers; and their hoſpitality is equally conſpicuous among the rich and poor. The rich prepares a roaſted lamb or ſheep; and the poor, with equal cordiality, offers whatever he has; nor is this generoſity confined to ſtrangers, but generally extends itſelf to all who are in want. When a Morlack is on a journey, and comes to lodge at a friend's houſe, the eldeſt daughter of the family, or the new-married bride, if there happens to be one, receives and kiſſes him when he alights from his horſe, or at the door of the houſe; but a foreigner is rarely favoured with theſe female civilities; on the contrary, the women, if they are young, hide themſelves and keep out of his way.

The Morlacchi in general have little notion of domeſtic economy, and readily conſume in a week as much as would be ſufficient for ſeveral months, whenever any occaſion of merriment preſents itſelf. A marriage, the holiday of the ſaint, protector of the family, the arrival of relations or friends, or any other joyful incident, conſumes of courſe all that there is to eat and drink in the houſe. Yet the Morlack is a great economiſt in the uſe of wearing apparel; for, rather than ſpoil his new cap, he takes it off, let it rain ever ſo hard, and goes bareheaded in the ſtorm. In the ſame manner he treats his ſhoes, if the road is dirty and they are not very old. Nothing but an abſolute impoſſibility hinders a Morlack from being punctual; and, if he cannot repay the money he borrowed at the appointed time, he carries a ſmall preſent to his creditor, and requeſts a longer term. Thus it happens ſometimes, that from term to term, and preſent to preſent he pays double what he owed, without reflecting on it.

Friendſhip, that among us is ſo ſubject to change on the ſlighteſt motives, is laſting among the Morlacchi. They have even made it a kind of religious point, and tie the ſacred bond at the foot of the altar. The Sclavonian ritual contains a particular benediction for the ſolemn union of two male or two female friends in the preſence of the congregation. The male friends thus united are called Pobratimi, and the female Proſeſtreme, which mean half-brothers and half-ſiſters. Friendſhips between thoſe of different ſexes are not at this day bound with ſo much ſolemnity, though, perhaps, in more ancient and innocent ages, it was alſo the cuſtom.

From theſe conſecrated friendſhips among the Morlacchi, and other nations of the ſame origin, it ſhould ſeem that the *ſworn brothers* aroſe; a denomination frequent enough among the common people of Italy, and in many parts of Europe. The difference between theſe and the Pobratimi of Morlachia conſiſts not only in the want of the ritual ceremony, but in the deſign of the union itſelf: for, among the Morlacchi, the ſole view is reciprocal ſervice and advantage; but ſuch a brotherhood among the Italians is generally commenced by bad men, to enable them the more to hurt and diſturb ſociety. The duties of the Probratimi are, to aſſiſt each other in every caſe of need or danger, to revenge mutual wrongs, and ſuch like. The enthuſiaſm is often carried ſo far as to riſk and even to loſe their life for the Pobratimi, although theſe ſavage friends are not celebrated like a Pylades. If diſcord happens to ariſe between two friends, it is talked of over all the country as a ſcandalous novelty; and there have been ſome examples of it of late years, to the great affliction of the old Morlacchi, who attribute the depravation of their countrymen to their intercourſe with the Italians. Wine and ſtrong liquors, of which the nation is beginning to make daily abuſe, will of courſe produce the ſame bad effects as among others.

But as the friendſhips of the Morlacchi are ſtrong and ſacred, ſo their quarrels are commonly unextinguiſhable. They paſs from father to ſon; and the mothers fail not to put their children in mind of their duty to revenge their father, if he has had the misfortune to be killed, and to ſhew them often the bloody ſkirt and arms of the dead. And ſo deeply is revenge rooted in the minds of this nation, that all the miſſionaries in the world would not be able to eradicate it. A Morlack is naturally inclined to do good to his fellow-creatures, and is full of gratitude for the ſmalleſt benefit; but implacable if injured or inſulted.

A Morlack who has killed another of a powerful family, is commonly obliged to ſave himſelf by flight, and to keep out of the way for ſeveral years. If, during that time, he has been fortunate enough to eſcape the ſearch of his purſuers, and has got a ſmall ſum of money, he endeavours to obtain pardon and peace; and, that he may treat about the conditions in perſon, he aſks and obtains a ſafe conduct, which is faithfully maintained, though only verbally granted. Then he finds mediators; and, on the appointed day, the relations of the two hoſtile families are aſſembled, and the criminal is introduced, dragging himſelf along on his hands and feet, the muſket, piſtol, or cutlaſs, with which he committed the murder, hung about his neck; and, while he continues in that humble poſture, one or more of the relations recites a panegyric on the dead, which ſometimes rekindles the flames of revenge, and puts the poor proſtrate in no ſmall danger. It is the cuſtom in ſome places for

the offended party to threaten the criminal, holding all kinds of arms to his throat, and, after much entreaty, to conſent at laſt to accept of his ranſom. Theſe pacifications coſt dear in Albania; but the Morlacchi make up matters at a ſmall expence; and every-where the buſineſs is concluded with a feaſt at the offender's charge.

The Morlacks, whether they happen to be of the Roman or of the Greek church, have very ſingular ideas about religion; and the ignorance of their teachers daily augments this monſtrous evil. They are as firmly perſuaded of the reality of witches, fairies, enchantments, nocturnal apparitions, and ſortileges, as if they had ſeen a thouſand examples of them. Nor do they make the leaſt doubt about the exiſtence of vampires; and attribute to them, as in Tranſylvania, the ſucking the blood of infants. Therefore, when a man dies ſuſpected of becoming a vampire, or vukodlak, as they call it, they cut his hams, and prick his whole body with pins; pretending that, after this operation, he cannot walk about. There are even inſtances of Morlacchi, who, imagining that they may poſſibly thirſt for children's blood after death, entreat their heirs, and ſometimes oblige them to promiſe, to treat them as vampires when they die.

The boldeſt Haiduk would fly trembling from the apparition of a ſpectre, ghoſt, phantom, or ſuch like goblins as the heated imaginations of credulous and prepoſſeſſed people never fail to ſee. Nor are they aſhamed when ridiculed for this terror, but anſwer, much in the words of Pindar, "Fear that proceeds from ſpirits cauſes even the ſons of the gods to fly." The women, as may naturally be ſuppoſed, are an hundred times more timorous and viſionary than the men; and ſome of them, by frequently hearing themſelves called witches, actually believe they are ſo.

A moſt perfect diſcord reigns in Morlacchia, as it generally does in other parts, between the Latin and Greek communion, which their reſpective prieſts fail not to foment, and tell a thouſand little ſcandalous ſtories of each other. The churches of the Latins are poor, but not very dirty: thoſe of the Greeks are equally poor, and ſhamefully ill kept. Our author has ſeen the curate of a Morlack village ſitting on the ground in the church-yard, to hear the confeſſion of women on their knees by his ſide: a ſtrange poſture indeed: but a proof of the innocent manners of thoſe good people, who have the moſt profound veneration for their ſpiritual paſtors, and a total dependence upon them; who, on their part, frequently make uſe of a diſcipline rather military, and correct the bodies of their offending flock with the cudgel. Perhaps this particular is carried to an abuſe as well as that of public penance, which they pretend to inflict after the manner of the ancient church. They moreover, through the ſilly credulity of thoſe poor mountaineers, draw illicit profits, by ſelling certain ſuperſtitious ſcrolls and other ſcandalous merchandize of that kind. They write in a capricious manner on the ſcrolls called zapiz, ſacred names which ought not to be trifled with, and ſometimes adding others very improperly joined. The virtues attributed to theſe zapiz are much of the ſame nature as thoſe which the Baſilians attributed to their monſtrouſly cut ſtones. The Morlacchi uſe to carry them ſewed to their caps, to cure or to prevent diſeaſes; and they alſo tié them for the ſame purpoſe to the horns of their oxen. The compoſers of this trumpery take every method to maintain the credit of their profitable trade, in ſpite of its abſurdity, and the frequent proofs of its inutility. And ſo great has their ſucceſs been, that not only the Morlacchi, but even the Turks near the borders, provide themſelves plentifully with zapiz from the Chriſtian prieſts, which not a little increaſes their income, as well as the reputation of the commodity. The Morlacchi have alſo much devotion, and many of the ignorant people in Italy have little leſs, to certain copper and ſilver coins of the low empire; or to Venetian cotemperary pieces, which paſs among them for medals of St. Helen; and they think they cure the epilepſy, and ſuch like. They are equally fond of an Hungarian coin called petizza, which has the Virgin and Child on the reverſe: and one of theſe is a moſt acceptable preſent to a Morlack.

The bordering Turks not only keep with devotion the ſuperſtitious zapiz, but frequently bring preſents and cauſe maſſes to be celebrated to the images of the Virgin; which is doubtleſs in contradiction to the alcoran; yet when ſaluted, in the uſual manner in that country, by the name of Jeſus, they do not anſwer. Hence, when the Morlacchi, or other travellers, meet them on the confines, they do not ſay, *Huaglian Iſſus*, "Jeſus be praiſed;" but, *Huaglian Bog*, "God be praiſed."

Innocence, and the natural liberty of paſtoral ages, are ſtill preſerved among the Morlacchi, or at leaſt many traces of them remain in the places further diſtant from our ſettlements. Pure cordiality of ſentiment is not there reſtrained by other regards, and diſplays itſelf without any diſtinction of circumſtances. A young handſome Morlack girl, who meets a man of her diſtrict on the road, kiſſes him affectionately, without the leaſt vicious or immodeſt thought; and our author has ſeen all the women and girls, all the young men and old, kiſſing one another as they came into the church-yard on a holiday; ſo that they looked as if they had been all belonging to one family. He has often obſerved the ſame thing on the road, and at the fairs in the maritime towns, where the Morlacchi came to ſell their commodities. In times of feaſting and merriment, beſide the kiſſes, ſome other little liberties are taken with the hands, which we would not reckon decent, but are not minded among them; and, when they are told of it, they anſwer, it is only toying, and means nothing. From this toying, however, their amours often take their beginning, and frequently end ſeriouſly when the two lovers are once agreed. For it rarely happens, in places far diſtant from the coaſt, that a Morlack carries off a girl againſt her will, or diſhonours her: and, were ſuch attempts made, the young woman would, no doubt, be able to defend herſelf: the women in that country being generally very little leſs robuſt than the men. But the cuſtom is, for the woman herſelf to appoint the time and place of being carried off; and ſhe does ſo in order to extricate herſelf from other ſuitors, from whom ſhe may have received ſome love-token, ſuch as a braſs ring, a little knife, or ſuch like trifles. The Morlack women keep themſelves ſomewhat neat till they get a huſband; but, after marriage, they abandon themſelves totally to a loathſome dirtineſs, as if they intended to juſtify the contempt with which they are treated. Indeed it cannot be ſaid that even the young women have a grateful odour, as they are uſed to anoint their hair with butter, which, ſoon becoming rancid, exhales no agreeable effluvia.

The unmarried women dreſs in the moſt complex and whimſical manner, in reſpect to the ornaments of the head; for when married they are not allowed to wear any thing elſe but a handkerchief, either white or coloured, tied about it. The girls uſe a ſcarlet cap, to which they commonly hang a veil, falling down on the ſhoulders, as a mark of their virginity. The better ſort adorn their caps with ſtrings of ſilver coins, among which are frequently ſeen very ancient and valuable ones; they have moreover ear-rings of very curious work, and ſmall ſilver chains, with the figures of half-moons faſtened to the ends of them. But the poor are forced to content themſelves with plain caps; or if they have any ornaments, they conſiſt only of ſmall exotic ſhells, round glaſs beads, or bits of tin. The principal merit of theſe caps, which conſtitute the good taſte as well as vanity of the Morlack young ladies, is to attract and fix the eyes of all who are near them by the multitude of ornaments, and the noiſe

they make on the leaſt motion of their heads. Hence half-moons of ſilver, or of tin, little chains and hearts, falſe ſtones and ſhells, together with all kind of ſplendid trumpery, are readily admitted into their head-dreſs.

In ſome diſtricts, they fix tufts of various coloured feathers, reſembling two horns, on their caps; in others, tremulous plumes of glaſs; and, in others, artificial flowers, which they purchaſe in the ſea-port towns; and, in the variety of thoſe capricious and barbarous ornaments, ſometimes a fancy not inelegant is diſplayed. Their holiday-ſhifts are embroidered with red ſilk, and ſometimes with gold, which they work themſelves while they attend their flocks; and it is ſurpriſing to ſee how nicely this work is executed. Both old and young women wear about their necks large ſtrings of round glaſs-beads, of various ſize and colour; and many rings of braſs, tin, or ſilver, on their fingers. Their bracelets are of leather, covered with wrought tin or ſilver; and they embroider their ſtomachers, or adorn them with beads or ſhells. But the uſe of ſtays is unknown, nor do they put whalebone or iron in the ſtomacher.

A broad woollen girdle ſurrounds their petticoat, which is commonly decked with ſhells, and of blue colour, and therefore called modrina. Their gown, as well as petticoat, is a kind of ſerge; and both reach near to the ancle: the gown is bordered with ſcarlet, and called ſadak. They uſe no modrina in ſummer, and only wear the ſadak without ſleeves over a linen petticoat or ſhift. The girls always wear red ſtockings; and their ſhoes are like thoſe of the men, called opanke. The ſole is of undreſſed ox-hide, and the upper part of ſheeps-ſkin thongs knotted, which they call apute; and theſe they faſten above the ancles, ſomething like the ancient cothurnus. The unmarried women, even of the richeſt females, are not permitted to wear any other ſort of ſhoes; though after marriage they may, if they will, lay aſide the opanke, and uſe the Turkiſh ſlippers.

The girls keep their hair treſſed under their caps, but when married they let it fall diſhevelled on the breaſt; ſometimes they tie it under the chin; and always have medals, beads, or bored coins, in the Tartar or American mode, twiſted among it. An unmarried woman, who falls under the imputation of want of chaſtity, runs the riſk of having her red cap torn off her head publicly in church by the curate, and her hair cut by ſome relation, in token of infamy. Hence, if any of them happen to have fallen into an illicit amour, they commonly of their own accord lay aſide the badge of virgnity, and remove into another part of the country.

Among the Morlacchi, nothing is more common than marriages concluded between the old people of the reſpective families, eſpecially when the parties live at a great diſtance, and neither ſee nor know each other; and the ordinary motive of theſe alliances is the ambition of being related to a numerous and powerful family, famous for having produced valiant men. The father of the future bridegroom, or ſome other near relation of mature age, goes to aſk the young woman, or rather a young woman of ſuch a family, not having commonly any determinate choice. Upon this all the girls of the houſe are ſhewn to him, and he chooſes which pleaſes him beſt, though generally reſpecting the right of ſeniority. A denial in ſuch caſes is very rare; nor does the father of the maid enquire much into the circumſtances of the family that aſks her. Sometimes a daughter of the maſter is given in marriage to the ſervant or tenant, as was uſual in patriarchal times; ſo little are the women regarded in this country. On theſe occaſions, however, the Morlacchi girls enjoy a privilege which ours would alſo wiſh to have, as in juſtice they certainly ought. For he who acts by proxy, having obtained his ſuit, is obliged to go and bring the bridegroom; and if, on ſeeing each other, the young people are reciprocally content, the marriage is concluded, but not otherwiſe.

In ſome parts it is the cuſtom for the bride to go to ſee the houſe and family of the propoſed huſband, before ſhe gives a definitive anſwer; and if the place or perſons are diſagreeable to her, ſhe is at liberty to annul the contract: but if ſhe is contented, ſhe returns to her father's houſe, eſcorted by the bridegroom and neareſt relations. There the marriage day is appointed; on which the bridegroom comes to the bride's houſe, attended by all his friends of greateſt note, who on this occaſion are called *ſvati*, and are all armed, and on horſeback, in their holiday-clothes, with a peacock's feather in their cap, which is the diſtinctive ornament uſed by thoſe who are invited to weddings. The company goes armed, to repulſe any attack or ambuſh that might be intended to diſturb the feaſt; for in old times theſe encounters were not unfrequent, according to the records of many national heroic ſongs. The bride is then conducted to a church veiled, and ſurrounded by the ſvati on horſeback; and the ſacred ceremony is performed amid the noiſe of muſkets, piſtols, barbaric ſhouts and acclamations, which continues till ſhe returns to her father's houſe, or to that of her huſband, if not far off.

Each of the ſvati has his particular inſpection, as well during the cavalcade as at the marriage-feaſt, which begins immediately on their return from church. The parvinaz precedes all the reſt, ſinging ſuch ſongs as he thinks ſuitable to the occaſion. The bariactar brandiſhes a lance with a ſilken banner faſtened to it, and an apple ſtuck on the point; there are two bariactars, and ſometimes four, at the more noble marriages. The ſtariſvat is the principal perſonage of the brigade; and the moſt reſpectable relation is commonly inveſted with this dignity. The ſtacheo's duty is to receive and obey the orders of the ſtariſvat. The two diveri, who ought to be the bridegroom's brothers when he has any, are appointed to ſerve the bride. The knum correſponds to our ſponſors; and the komorgia, or ſekſana, is deputed to receive and guard the dowry. A ciaous carries the mace, and attends to the order of the march, as maſter of the ceremonies: he goes ſinging aloud, *Breberi, Davori, Dobraſrichia, Jara, Pico;* names of ancient propitious deities. Buklia is the cup-bearer of the company, as well on the march as at table; and all theſe offices are doubled, and ſometimes tripled, in proportion to the number of the company.

The entertainment on the firſt day is ſometimes made at the bride's houſe, but generally at the bridegroom's, whither the ſvati haſten immediately after the nuptial benediction; and at the ſame time three or four men run on foot to tell the good news; the firſt who gets to the houſe has a kind of towel, embroidered at the ends, as a premium. The domachin, or head of the houſe, comes out to meet his daughter-in-law; and a child is handed to her, before ſhe alights, to careſs it; and if there happens to be none in the houſe, the child is borrowed from one of the neighbours. When ſhe alights, ſhe kneels down, and kiſſes the threſhold. Then the mother-in-law, or in her place ſome other female relation, preſents a corn-ſieve, full of different kinds of grain, nuts, almonds, and other ſmall fruit, which the bride ſcatters upon the ſvati, by handfuls, behind her back.

The bride does not ſit at the great table the firſt day, but has one apart for herſelf, the two diveri, and the ſtacheo. The bridegroom ſits at table with the ſvati; but in all that day, conſecrated to the matrimonial union, he muſt neither unlooſen or cut any thing whatever. The knum carves his meat, and cuts his bread. It is the domachin's buſineſs to give the toaſts; and the ſtariſvat is the firſt who pledges him. Generally the bukkara, a very large wooden cup, goes round, firſt to the ſaint protector of the family; next to the proſperity of the holy faith; and ſometimes

ſometimes to a name the moſt ſublime and venerable. The moſt extravagant abundance reigns at theſe feaſts; and each of the ſvati contributes, by ſending a ſhare of proviſions.

The dinner begins with fruit and cheeſe; and the ſoup comes laſt, juſt contrary to our cuſtom. All ſorts of domeſtic fowls, kid, lamb, and ſometimes veniſon, are heaped in prodigious quantities upon their tables; but very rarely a Morlack eats veal, and perhaps never, unleſs he has been perſuaded to do it out of his own country. This abhorrence to calves fleſh is very ancient among the Morlacchi. St. Jerom, againſt Jovinian, takes notice of it; and Tomeo Marnavich, a Boſnian writer, who lived in the beginning of the laſt age, ſays, that the Dalmatians, uncorrupted by the vices of ſtrangers, abſtained from eating calves fleſh, as an unclean food, even to his days. The women relations, if they are invited, never dine at table with the men, it being an eſtabliſhed cuſtom for them to dine by themſelves.

After dinner, they paſs the reſt of the day in dancing, ſinging ancient ſongs, and in games of dexterity, or of wit and fancy; and in the evening, at a convenient hour after ſupper, the three ritual healths having firſt gone round, the knum accompanies the bridegroom to the matrimonial apartment, which commonly is the cellar or the ſtable, whither the bride is alſo conducted by the diveri and the ſtacheo; but the three laſt are obliged to retire, and the knum remains alone with the new married couple. If there happens to be any bed prepared better than ſtraw, he leads them to it: and having untied the bride's girdle, he cauſes them both to undreſs each other reciprocally.

It is not long ſince the knum was obliged to undreſs the bride entirely; but that cuſtom is now out of uſe; and, inſtead of it, he has the privilege of kiſſing her as often as he pleaſes, wherever he meets her; which privilege may poſſibly be agreeable for the firſt months, but muſt ſoon become very diſguſtful. When they are both undreſſed, the knum retires, and ſtands liſtening at the door, if there be a door. It is his buſineſs to announce the conſummation of the marriage, which he does by diſcharging a piſtol, and is anſwered by many of the company. The next day the bride, without her veil and virginal cap, dines at table with the ſvati, and is forced to hear the coarſe equivocal jeſts of her indelicate and ſometimes intoxicated company.

The ancient Huns called the nuptial feaſts *drave*, but they are by our Morlacchi called *ſdravize*, from whence our Italian word *ſtravizzo* is undoubtedly derived. They continue three, ſix, eight, or more days, according to the ability or prodigal diſpoſition of the family where they are held. The new married wife gets no inconſiderable profit in theſe days of joy; and it uſually amounts to much more than all the portion ſhe brings with her, which often conſiſts of nothing but her own clothes and perhaps a cow; nay, it happens ſometimes that the parents, inſtead of giving money with their daughter, get ſomething from the bridegroom by way of price.

The bride carries water every morning, to waſh the hands of her gueſts as long as the feaſting laſts; and each of them throws a ſmall piece of money into the baſon after performing that function, which is a very rare one among them, excepting on ſuch occaſions. The brides are alſo permitted to raiſe other little contributions among the ſvati, by hiding their ſhoes, caps, knives, or ſome other neceſſary part of their equipage, which they are obliged to ranſom by a piece of money, according as the company rates it. And, beſide all theſe voluntary or extorted contributions already mentioned, each gueſt muſt give ſome preſent to the new-married wife at taking leave the laſt day of the ſdravize; and then ſhe alſo diſtributes ſome trifles in return, which commonly conſiſt in ſhirts, caps, handkerchiefs, and ſuch like.

There is very little variation in the performance of the nuptial rites through all the vaſt country inhabited by the Morlacchi; and thoſe in uſe among the peaſants and common people of the ſea-coaſt of Dalmatia, Iſtria, and the iſlands, differ but little from them. Yet among theſe particular varieties, there is one of the iſland Zlarine, near Sebenico, remarkable enough; for there the ſtariſvat (who may naturally be ſuppoſed drunk at that hour) muſt, at one blow with his naked broad ſword, ſtrike the bride's crown of flowers off her head, when ſhe is ready to go to bed. And in the iſland of Pago, in the village of Novoglia (probably the Giſſa of ancient geographers) there is a cuſtom more comical, and leſs dangerous, but equally ſavage and brutal. After the marriage-contract is ſettled, and the bridegroom comes to conduct his bride to church, her father or mother, in delivering her over to him, makes an exaggerated enumeration of her ill qualities: "Know, ſince thou wilt have her, that ſhe is good for nothing, ill-natured, obſtinate," &c. On which the bridegroom, affecting an angry look, turns to the young woman, with an "Ah! ſince it is ſo, I will teach you to behave better;" and at the ſame time regales her with a blow or a kick, or ſome piece of ſimilar gallantry, which is by no means figurative. And it ſeems in general, that the Morlack women, and perhaps the greateſt part of the Dalmatians, the inhabitants of the cities excepted, do not diſlike a beating either from their huſbands or lovers.

The women in the neighbourhood of Derniſh are obliged, during the firſt year after marriage, to kiſs all their national acquaintances who come to the houſe; but after the firſt year they are diſpenſed from that compliment; and indeed they become ſo intolerably naſty, that they are no longer fit to practiſe it. Perhaps the mortifying manner in which they are treated by their huſbands and relations is, at the ſame time, both the cauſe and effect of their ſhameful neglect of their perſons. When a Morlack huſband mentions his wife, he always premiſes, By your leave, or begging your pardon. And when the huſband has a bedſtead, the wife muſt ſleep on the floor near it. Our author often lodged in Morlack houſes, and obſerved that the female ſex is univerſally treated with contempt: it is true, that the women are by no means amiable in that country; they even deform and ſpoil the gifts of nature.

Among us, where the ladies ſuffer ſo much, notwithſtanding all the care and circumſpection uſed before and after labour, the pregnancy and births of theſe women would be thought very extraordinary: ſince a Morlack woman neither changes her food, nor interrupts her daily fatigue, on account of her pregnancy; and is frequently delivered in the fields, or on the road, by herſelf; and takes the infant, waſhes it in the firſt water ſhe finds, carries it home, and returns the day after to her uſual labour, or to feed her flock. The little creatures, thus careleſsly treated in their tendereſt moments, are afterward wrapt in miſerable rags, where they remain three or four months, under the ſame ungentle management; and when that term is elapſed, they are ſet at liberty, and left to crawl about the cottage and before the door, till they learn to walk upright by themſelves; and at the ſame time acquire that ſingular degree of ſtrength and health with which the Morlacchi are endowed, and are able, without the leaſt inconvenience, to expoſe their naked breaſts to the ſevereſt froſts and ſnow.

The infants are allowed to ſuck their mother's milk while ſhe has any, or till ſhe is with child again; and if that ſhould not happen for three, four, or ſix years, they continue all that time to receive nouriſhment from the breaſt. The prodigious length of the breaſts of the Morlacchian women is ſomewhat extraordinary; for it is very certain that they can give the nipple to their children over their ſhoulders, or under their arms.

arms. They let the boys run about, without breeches, in a ſhirt that reaches only to the knee, till the age of thirteen or fourteen, following the cuſtom of Boſſina, ſubject to the Porte, where no haraz or capitation-tax is paid for the boys till they wear breeches, they being conſidered before that time as children, not capable of labouring, or earning their bread. On the occaſion of births, and eſpecially of the firſt, all the relations and friends ſend preſents of eatables to the woman in childbed, or rather to the woman delivered; and the family makes a ſupper of all thoſe preſents together. The women do not enter the church till forty days after child-birth.

While young, the Morlacchi paſs their time in the woods, attending their flocks and herds; and in that life of quiet and leiſure they often become dexterous in carving with a ſimple knife: they make wooden cups, and whiſtles adorned with fanciful baſſe-reliefs, which are not void of merit, and at leaſt ſhew the genius of the people.

There is a people in this country and Carniola, called Uſcocs, a rough ſavage race, large bodied, courageous, and much addicted to rapine; they are alſo noted for their agility, ſkipping like goats among the mountains, from rock to rock: ſome of them live in ſcattered houſes, and others in large villages. Their language is Walachian, and their religion the Greek, or ſomething like it. Theſe people, being galled by oppreſſion, eſcaped out of Dalmatia; from which circumſtance they obtained the name of Uſcocs, from the word Scaco, a *deſerter*.

The duchy of Carniola, which is a ſubdiviſion of Auſtria, in Germany, is bounded by the gulf of Venice to the weſt, by Sclavonia and Croatia to the eaſt, by Carinthia and Stiria to the north, and by the Adriatic Sea to the ſouth. It is 110 miles long, 50 broad, rather cold, but, at the ſame time, tolerably fertile. The lower claſs of people ſpeak the Sclavonian, or Wendiſh language, the better ſort German, but both with a very indifferent dialect. The peaſants are a very hardy ſet of people, going barefoot in the midſt of winter, never covering their breaſts from the inclemency of the weather, and ſleeping on a hard bench, without bed or bolſter. In the Upper and Lower Krain the people wear long beards; and ſuch as live by exporting the commodities of the country on packhorſes are called Samers, or, more properly, Saumers. The ſtates of Carniola conſiſt of the clergy, the nobility, knights, and royal towns. Chriſtianity was firſt planted in this country about the middle of the eighth century, and, in the ſixteenth, Lutheraniſm made a conſiderable progreſs in it; but, excepting the Walachians or Uſcocs, who are of the Greek church, and ſtyle themſelves Staraverzi, i. e. Old Believers, all the inhabitants at preſent are Roman Catholics. In the whole duchy are three biſhoprics, twenty-four cloiſters, four commanderies, and 134 pariſhes; but to the biſhopric of Leybach belong alſo many pariſhes in Stiria and Carinthia. The number of inhabitants are ſuppoſed to amount to 140,000. The principal commodities exported from hence are iron, ſteel, quick-ſilver, white and red wine, oil of olives, cattle, ſheep, cheeſe, linen, and a kind of woollen ſtuff called Mahalan, Spaniſh leather, honey, walnuts, and timber, together with all manner of wood-work, as boxes, diſhes, trenchers, ſpoons, ſieves, &c. Carniola was long a marquiſate or margravate; but, in the year 1231, was erected into a duchy. The arms of Carniola are an eagle crowned, in whoſe breaſt and expanded wings is to be ſeen a diced creſcent.

We ſhall here give a deſcription of the ſurpriſing lake in Carniola, called by the natives the Zirchnitzer-Sea: This lake has ſuch very remarkable qualities in its filling and emptying, and the uſes it is of to the neighbouring people are ſo many and various, that no hiſtorians from the oldeſt times, of which we have any account, have omitted to name it; yet neither the ancients nor moderns have well deſcribed it, nor is there any explanation of its phænomena given in any of our books of travels; wherefore it may be acceptable to the curious reader, to have a full account both of its nature and origin, and the reaſons of all its changes preſerved here.

It was called by the ancients Lugea Palus, or Lacus Lugeus, the Lugean Lake; but it is now generally known by the name of Zirchnitzer-Lake, which it has from the town of Zirknitz, near which it is ſituated.

The baſon of this lake is three miles and three quarters in length, its breadth is two miles in ſome places, and a mile and half in the narroweſt, and its depth, when full of water, is thirty-five feet in the middle, and from that to twelve or fifteen feet in the ſhallows. It lies in a ſmall flat, every way ſurrounded with vaſt mountains, running many miles into the country, ſeveral ways. There run at all times into this lake eight rivers; the two leaſt are called Bellebrech and Treſnez, and are trifling; but the others are all large rivers. With all this vaſt ſupply of water the lake never runs over, but has two large holes, in at which the water runs, and is carried off under the mountains. Beſides theſe there is a third courſe, or ſubterraneous paſſage, which probably communicates with them alſo.

All theſe come out together on the other ſide of the mountain, into which they are received, and form the river Jeſero; this river, after it has run a mile above ground, enters a ſtony cavern, and running ſlowly under the hill, about four hundred yards, it comes out again, and running about a quarter of a mile above ground, after this plunges into the earth again, and having paſſed about half a mile, it falls down a precipice, and is diſperſed through all the adjoining country. All the mountains hereabout are full of vaſt caverns, formed by nature, and ornamented by the ſame great hand, with a vaſt variety of figures, in the manner of thoſe in the grotto of Antiparos, ſo elegantly deſcribed by ſome travellers. The number and ſize of the caverns give us great reaſon to believe there may be others yet larger, which we cannot arrive at; and as thoſe which we know are ſometimes dry, and ſometimes full of water, we may rationally ſuppoſe the others to be ſubject to the ſame alterations. This fair ſuppoſition will account for all the changes of the Zirchnitzer-Lake, and the reader, we hope, will not think this previous account of the face of the country tedious, as it will be neceſſary to the hiſtory of the lake itſelf.

In the latter end of July, or beginning of Auguſt, this lake uſually begins to ſink, and the water is wholly gone out of it in about ſixteen days; it then remains dry till the middle of November, when it fills again. This is the common method, though not certain, for it ſometimes fills three times a year.—There are vaſt numbers of fiſh and fowl brought up with the water, and deſerted at its going off, which afford a vaſt advantage to the ſix or ſeven neighbouring towns, who have a right to the profit. There are three iſlands in the lake, and ſeveral pits in its bottom, of different breadths and depths. According to this difference in depth, theſe pits empty in different order of time, one after another, and give a much better opportunity of ſelling the fiſh, than if they all were to be taken at once. When the water begins to run off, the pit Maljoberch is emptied in three days; the church bell gives notice of this, and all the inhabitants, men and women, lay aſide all other buſineſs, and with it all ſhame and modeſty, and run into the pit naked as they were born. The water runs out at the bottom of this, and of the other pits, by holes too ſmall to admit the fiſh, ſo they are all caught; half is given to the lord of the manor, and the other half is the people's.

The pit Velkioberch is empty three days after this; three hours after this the pit Kamine empties; one hour

hour after this another; five days after that another large one empties, but the holes are ſo large at the bottom of this, that they are forced to uſe nets to take the fiſh, which would otherwiſe get out at them. A day and a half after this, another pit empties; twelve hours after this another empties; and three days after that, a very large one, called Reſchetto; this is fiſhed with nets, and often affords time for three hawls, as the water goes off; and by theſe they will ſometimes get between twenty and thirty carts of fiſh.

A few hours after this there is another emptied; in this pit they fiſh under ground, for there is a great hole in the ſtone at the bottom, and the men go down at this with lighted torches into a vaſt ſubterraneous cavern, the bottom of which is of hard ſtone, but is full of holes, like a ſieve; theſe let the water out, and the fiſh are all taken.

The pits are eighteen in number, and thus gradually become empty, ſo that in the whole there is time for the making the moſt of the fiſhing; but though they empty ſo long after one another, yet when they once begin to let out the water at all, it is all run out to the laſt drop in the ſpace of a few minutes, though ſome of them are eighty feet wide, and thirty or more deep. When the regular fiſhing is over, the church bells give the ſignal all over the neighbouring country, and the inhabitants of towns, many miles diſtant, run to the lake, and enter all ſtark naked, to look for fiſh among the weeds, and in the ſubterraneous caverns, of which there are many which have ways into them through holes in the bottoms of the pits. This gleaning of the fiſh is free for every body.

Some of theſe caverns are of immenſe ſize, and when there is thunder or lightning, thoſe are ſubject to terrible noiſes within; the fiſh alſo, while the pits are yet full of water, are ſometimes ſo ſtunned with lightning, that they float to the ſurface, and are taken out in vaſt numbers; but they come to themſelves when thrown into other water.

In one of the largeſt mountains near this lake, there are two vaſt caverns, which, though generally dry, yet when it thunders, generally pour forth out of their mouths a vaſt quantity of water, in form of a column, of twelve or fourteen feet diameter, and to the height of as many feet; this throws into the lake with it a vaſt number of fiſh, and of wild fowl, as ducks, and the like; and theſe at firſt are all blind, and very bald of feathers, and the people eaſily catch them in great numbers; but in about a fortnight they recover their ſight, and have wings enough to fly with.

When one of theſe caſcades of water has begun, the reſt all follow, and it is a terrible, but pleaſing ſight, to ſee fifty of theſe columns of water toſſed up from different openings in the mountains at once, and twice as many from the dry bottom of the lake itſelf.

The rivers that run conſtantly into this lake, while dry, are all received into the holes at the bottom, and never drown any part of it; but when the water is thus thrown up at many mouths at once, from ſome perpendicularly, from others obliquely, but from all in large columns, the whole lake will be filled in one day's time from being dry.

The firſt ſignal of the lake's filling, is a white vapour like a cloud, iſſuing out of the holes in the mountains; this is followed by thunder, lightning, and the moſt violent rains; and the Lake fills to a certain ſtandard, and never higher.

The fowl are brought up with the water, and they reſort from other places to it, from the neighbouring country for food, as long as the water remains in the lake. When it dries up, they have the vaſt advantage of the fiſhery, before deſcribed; as ſoon as that is all over, and the bottom is thoroughly dry, they pull up vaſt quantities of ruſhes there, which ſerve for many neceſſary uſes of life, and are fine litter for their cattle. The ſoil of the water makes the land ſo rich, that in twenty days the whole bottom is covered with fine graſs for hay; and after they have got this in, they plough it and ſow millet, which quickly ripens, and yields a prodigious increaſe; but this is ſometimes deſtroyed by the too early filling again of the lake; if not, as ſoon as this is got in, there is a fine paſture left for their cattle, and all the while it is on the ground, they have a vaſt quantity of quails among it: always when the bottom is dry there is fine hunting in it, the hares, deer, bears, and ſwine, coming down into it out of the woods and mountains, in great numbers.

The advantages this lake brings the neighbouring people are therefore infinitely greater than thoſe of any other ſpot of ground in the world, and all theſe are brought on in the ſpace of one year, thus ſucceſſively one after the other.

The pike of this lake are found of thirty or forty pound weight, tench of ſix or ſeven pounds are very frequent, and eel-pouts of two or three pounds, very well taſted; there are crabs always found in great plenty in two of the pits, but none in any others, and they are not well taſted. The blind ducks being toſſed up with the water may ſeem a very wonderful incident in other places, but there it is ſo common that no body regards it as a ſtrange thing; and not only this lake, but all the other places, where the water guſhes out of the caverns in mountains thereabout in the ſame manner, afford more or leſs of them.

The cauſe of theſe ſtrange changes in the lake from full to dry, and all its other phænomena, may be accounted for in the following manner. There is under the bottom of this lake another ſubterraneous one, with which it communicates by means of the holes in its bottom; and there are alſo many ſubterranean lakes in the mountain Javornick, whoſe ſurface is much higher than that of this lake. This upper lake is filled by ſome of thoſe ſubterraneous rivers, which we find are frequent in this country, and has an out-paſſage, which is big enough to carry what they uſually bring into it; but when theſe thunder ſtorms and violent rains come, the whole ſurface of the neighbouring mountains pour into theſe rivers all the water they receive; this is too much to be carried off by the common out-paſſage of the upper lake, and ſwelling it beyond its common ſurface, carries it up to places where there are holes in the rocks, by which all this maſs of water is precipitately conducted into the ſubterranean lake, that lies under the bottom of the Zirchnitzer-Lake; and this water, when it has filled that lake, is thrown up through the holes in its top, and in the ſides of the mountains in vaſt columns, up to the height of the ſubterraneous lake in the mountain Javornick. This muſt be the conſequence of theſe accidents, according to the known laws of hydroſtatics.

Such of theſe paſſages as have been level with the ſurface of the water in the lake of Javornick, bring away with the water the ducks of that lake, and theſe creatures are found in all the ſubterranean lakes of this country, covered but poorly with feathers, and their eyes being uſed only to ſo ſmall a quantity of light as is in theſe darkſome regions, when they are thrown up at once into broad day-light, are not able to bear it, but the creatures are blinded for ſome time, till cuſtom makes it eaſy to them. Thoſe paſſages which are wholly under water may throw up fiſh, though no ducks can belong to them, and many others too ſmall to admit either duks or fiſh, can throw up only water. Thus it is that the lake is ſuddenly filled, and that ſome of its feeding ſtreams bring up only water, others water and fiſh, and others water, fiſh, and ducks.

When the lake has been thus filled, it muſt continue full as long as the other lakes which ſupplied it are in the ſame fulneſs; but as ſoon as the lake under the mountain Javornick, being no longer overfilled itſelf, deſcends below the channels, by means

of which it ſupplied the lake under the Zirchnitzer-Lake, when the draughts from this under lake are greater than the ſtreams into the upper lake can ſupply, conſquently the Zirchnitzer-Lake ſinks gradually, according to the exceſs of the water that runs out above that which comes in. Thus things are reduced to their natural ſtate again, till a ſecond land flood comes to over-fill the lake in Javornick, and ſo fill up in conſequence the Zirchnitzer-Lake again; as the ſeveral pits in the bottom of this lake lie higher and lower, they are emptied regularly, one after another, according to this ſituation, the higheſt firſt; when this accidental quantity of water is carried off, all that the common ſupply of the rivers bring into it, is received in holes at the bottom, and running into the under lake, is diſcharged by the river Jeſero, in the country on the other ſide the mountain. All the ducks diſcharged up with the water, are bred in the lake under Javornick, they are all black, only that they have a white ſpot on the forehead, and they are well taſted, but too fat.

CHAP. XXIII.

POLAND.

Name, Extent, Boundaries, Situation, Diviſions, Climate, Produce, Rivers, Animals, Inhabitants, Religion, &c.

THE name of Poland is derived from Polu, a Sclavonian word, implying a country proper for hunting, on account of its abounting with plains, woods, wild beaſts, and every ſpecies of game.

This kingdom, before the late diſmemberment, was very extenſive, being 700 miles in length, and 680 in breadth; and (with the great duchy of Lithuania, anciently called Sarmatia, annexed) was bounded on the north by Livonia, Muſcovy, and the Baltic ſea; by Muſcovy, or Ruſſia, on the eaſt; by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary, on the ſouth; and by Germany, on the weſt. The ſituation, between 46 and 57 deg. north lat. and between 16 and 34 deg. eaſt long. This country is divided into the twelve following provinces; viz.

1. Courland (ſubject to Ruſſia) 174 miles in length, and 80 in breadth, containing 4,114 ſquare miles; its chief city, Mittaw. 2. Lithuania; 333 miles in length, 310 in breadth, contains 64,800 ſquare miles; its chief city, Wilna. Moſt of this diſtrict is now poſſeſſed by Ruſſia. 3. Podolia; 360 miles in length, 120 in breadth, contains 29,000 ſquare miles; its chief city Kaminiuk. 4. Volhinia; 305 miles in length, 150 in breadth; contains 25,000 ſquare miles; its chief city, Lucko. 5. Great Poland, 208 miles in length, 180 in breadth; contains 19,200 ſquare miles; its chief city, Gneſna. 6. Red Ruſſia; 232 miles in length, 185 in breadth; contains 25,200 ſquare miles; its chief city, Lemburg: this diſtrict is now chiefly ſubject to Auſtria. 7. Little Poland; 230 miles in length, 180 in breadth; contains 18,000 ſquare miles; its chief city, Cracow; great part of this diſtrict is now ſubject to Auſtria. 8. Poleſia; 186 miles in length, 97 in breadth; contains 14,000 ſquare miles; its chief city, Breſſici. 9. Maſovia, 152 miles in length, 90 in breadth; contains 8,400 ſquare miles; its chief city, Warſaw. 10. Samogitia, 155 miles in length, 98 in breadth; contains 8000 ſquare miles; its chief city, Raſiun. 11. Pruſſia Royal, or Poliſh Pruſſia; 118 miles in length 104 in breadth; contains, 6,400 ſquare miles; and is now ſubject to Pruſſia. 12. Polachia; 133 miles in length, 42 in breadth; contains 4000 ſquare miles; its chief city, Bielh.

The climate of Poland is in general temperate, healthy, and more ſettled than thoſe of ſuch northern countries uſually are: in the north parts, however, the air is exceedingly cold; and the Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate Poland from Hungary, are covered with perpetual ſnow, which has even been known to fall in the height of ſummer. The ſoil is extremely rich and fruitful, and in many parts clays are found fit for making pipes and earthen-ware.

Poland is fertile in corn, great quantities of which are exported to other nations, it likewiſe produces hemp and flax: the paſtures are rich beyond expreſſion, ſo that the cattle grazing in them can hardly be ſeen for the height of the graſs; all kinds of herbs and fruits are found here; and in many places there are vines, whoſe grapes are agreeable to the taſte, but the wine made from them uſually proves ſharp. In the months of May and June a ſpecies of manna falls on the graſs in the night; and in the morning is collected by the inhabitants, together with the dew, into ſieves: the Poles eſteem this production a great delicacy, and have various methods of dreſſing it. The interior parts of Poland contain foreſts, which furniſh timber in ſuch great quantities, that it is employed in houſe-building inſtead of bricks, ſtone, and tiles.

Here are mines of ſilver, copper, lead, iron, ſalt, and coals; Lithuania abounds in iron ochre, black agate, ſeveral ſpecies of copper and iron pyrites, and red and gray granite; falſe precious ſtones, and marine petrifactions: other mineral productions are ſaltpetre, alum talc, quickſilver, and lapis calaminaris; and on the ſea-coaſt are found large quantities of amber. The water of many ſprings is boiled into ſalt.

The principal rivers in this kingdom are the Viſtula or Weyſell, the Neiſter, Nieper or Boriſthenes, the Wiconen, the Bog, and the Dwina.

The chief lake which merits deſcription, is Gopto, in the palatinate Byzaſty, or Brials, which is ſaid to dye of a ſwarthy hue perſons who work in it.

The foreſts of Poland afford ſhelter to a great number of wild horſes, aſſes, oxen, boars, wolves, elks, deer, foxes, hares, and rabbits. Here are great numbers of uri, or buffaloes, the fleſh of which, when ſalted, is eaten as a great delicacy by the Poles. Here is a kind of wolf reſembling a hart, with ſpots on his belly and legs, and affords excellent furs.

The elk is very common in Pruſſia, Courland, Livonia, Norway, Poland, and other northern countries. It is as high, and every way as large as a horſe, but its ſhape reſembles that of a deer: its feet are broad and cloven, and its horns large, rough and broad, like thoſe of a wild goat. Upon diſſecting one of theſe animals, a vaſt number of large flies were found in its head, which had nearly devoured the brain. Towards winter theſe poor creatures are always attacked by theſe inſects, which, through the paſſage of its ears find a way into its head, and there remain during that cold ſeaſon: the humming of theſe vermin, and the continual torture occaſioned by their feeding on the brain, ſubjects the elk to the epilepſy, when he is eaſily taken, which would otherwiſe prove a very difficult taſk. The fleſh of this animal is eaten by the nobility, and forms the moſt delicious part of their greateſt feaſts.

Poland produces a creature called a bohac; it reſembles a guinea pig, but ſeems to be of the beaver kind. Theſe little animals dig holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not quit their lodgings till April, unleſs compelled to it for want of food; and in that caſe, they always ſet one or two as centinels, who on the leaſt appearance of danger give the alarm by making a very peculiar noiſe, which being underſtood by their companions, they all make a haſty retreat to their burrows, wherein they have ſeparate apartments for their proviſions, their lodging, and their dead; ten or twelve of them uſually herding together in one hole. They are eaſily tamed, and in that ſtate are very diverting.

The

The birds in Poland, which are very numerous, are ſuch as have been already deſcribed in the other northern countries, except the quail, which is ſaid to have geen legs, and the fleſh unfit for eating; among thoſe of prey is the eagle and the vulture. Poland has no ſpecies of fiſh peculiar to itſelf; but its ſeas, rivers, and lakes abound in cod, ling, turbot, &c.

Some have ſuppoſed Poland and Lithuania to contain 14,000,000 of inhabitants; and this calculation may not be exaggerated, when we conſider that the Poles have no colonies, have ſometimes enjoyed peace for many years together, and that no fewer than 2,000,000 of Jews are ſaid to dwell there. Since the partition and diſmemberment of the kingdom, the number is only 9,000,000, of which 600,000 are Jews. The provinces taken by Ruſſia are the largeſt; thoſe by the Auſtrians the moſt populous, and the Pruſſians are the moſt commercial. By the diſmemberment of Poland, 5,000,000 of ſouls have been ſeparated from their ancient kingdom; ſince the provinces ſeized by the Ruſſians contain 1,500,000; thoſe by the Auſtrians, 2,500,000; and thoſe by the Pruſſians amount to about 860,000. The Poles, in their perſons, are handſome and well ſhaped, with fair complexions; in their manners, brave, honeſt, hoſpitable, active, and hardy; the women are ſaid to be of exemplary piety and virtue, both in their public and private conduct. Theſe people are divided into three claſſes, namely, nobles, citizens, and peaſants; the nobility are all on a level, except the difference that ariſes from the public poſts they enjoy, and the only title they value is that of a gentleman of Poland.

The nobles poſſeſs great privileges: they have a power of life and death over their tenants and vaſſals, pay no taxes, are ſubject to none but the king, may chooſe whom they pleaſe for their ſovereign, and lay him under what reſtraint they think proper; and none but themſelves, and the burghers of ſome particular towns, can purchaſe lands. Many of them enjoy eſtates from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are alſo hereditary ſovereigns of cities with which the king has no concern. Some of them can raiſe eight or ten thouſand men, and they have always a number of troops in their pay, who do duty night and day before their palaces, and in their antichambers, march before them when they go abroad, and particularly when they appear at the diet, many of them, on this laſt occaſion, having 5000 guards and attendants: for their debates in this great meeting are often determined by the ſword. It frequently happens that two Poliſh noblemen go to war with each other, when caſtles, forts, and whole cities are deſtroyed in the conteſt; though the affair, perhaps, which occaſions all this havock, has been before decided in a court of juſtice: but the ſentence of the civil law has very little weight with men who are in poſſeſſion of the whole power of the military. If a perſon accuſed of a crime, however capital, can fly to the houſe of a nobleman who will afford him his protection, he is ſafe; for no one dares to take him from thence by force: in ſhort, it may be ſaid, that a Poliſh grandee is the moſt independent of any perſon in any country; but if he once enters into trade, he forfeits his nobility, and every privilege thereto annexed.

The citizens of Poland reſemble thoſe of other places, but the peaſants are undoubtedly the moſt wretched race of beings. The nobility ſtyle them their ſubjects, and if they ſell an eſtate, diſpoſe of them in the ſame manner they do the cattle, or any other part of it. If one lord kills the peaſant of another, he is only obliged to make reparation by ſending him another of equal ſtrength and value. When a perſon of diſtinction intends to cultivate a ſpot of land, he cauſes a little wooden hut to be built near it, in which he ſettles a peaſant and his family, giving him a cow, two horſes, a certain number of geeſe, hens, &c. and as much corn as is ſufficient to maintain him for the firſt year; and in return, the peaſant is to improve the land for his own future ſubſiſtence, and the advantage of his lord. Thus are theſe poor creatures born and kept in a ſtate of perpetual ſervitude, of which they never ſee the end, unleſs by the permiſſion of their tyrants, from whom they frequently ſuffer the moſt cruel and wanton inſults. Sometimes theſe monſters proceed ſo far as to injure their wives and daughters, wrongs which muſt rouſe the rage of every being but a Poliſh peaſant, whoſe ſpirit, through oppreſſion, is ſunk into a ſtate of total inſenſibility, ſcarce ever being heard to repine at his hard lot, or wiſh for a better; particularly, if his maſter feeds him well, thinking it impoſſible for a man to be miſerable who has ſufficient to eat; and in this caſe, they are always ready to ſacrifice themſelves and their families for their lords, whom they are taught to regard as a ſuperior order of beings. Lately indeed, a few nobles of enlightened underſtandings have ventured to give liberty to their vaſſals. Zamoiſki, formerly great chancellor, was the firſt who granted this freedom; and in 1760 enfranchiſed ſix villages in the palatinate of Maſovia, and afterwards on all his eſtates. The event has ſhewed this act to be no leſs judicious than humane; conducive to the nobles' own intereſts as well as the happineſs of the peaſants: for it appears, that in the diſtricts in which this new arrangement hath been introduced, the population of the villages is conſiderably increaſed, and the revenues of their eſtates augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Staniſlaus, nephew of the king of Poland, hath very lately enfranchiſed four villages near Warſaw, and hath not only freed his peaſants from ſlavery, but condeſcends to direct their affairs. This conduct is truly laudable, and betokens better times to the lower claſs in this diſtreſſed country.

The nobility of Poland aſſume great ſtate upon all occaſions, particularly in their equipages and manner of living. It is no unuſual thing for the lady of a Poliſh grandee, on a common viſit, to be attended by a coach and ſix, and a great number of domeſtics, among which are an old gentleman-uſher, an old governante, and a dwarf of each ſex to hold up her train: if it happens to be an evening viſit, the grandeur of the ſcene is augmented by the number of flambeaux which ſurround her coach. When they ſit down to table, a number of gentlemen wait upon them with the greateſt reſpect, and theſe are uſually ſome of the poor nobility, who, not daring to demean themſelves by trade, are glad to earn a ſubſiſtence by thus ſervilely waiting on their equals in birth, though ſuperiors in fortune. It generally happens, however, that this mode of life is rendered very eaſy to them, for their patron uſually treats them with the greateſt civility; permitting the oldeſt among them to ſit down, with his cap off, at the ſame table with him, and giving the reſt part of his meat, which they eat ſtanding: they likewiſe all drink out of his cup, and have each a peaſant boy kept to wait on them. At a Poliſh entertainment there are neither knives, forks, or ſpoons laid upon the table, but every gueſt brings them with him. When the company are all ſeated, the doors are ſhut, and not opened again till they have done eating; and the whole time of the repaſt, they are entertained with muſic, of which every nobleman keeps a band. Bumpers are as much the faſhion in Poland as in Ireland; and a ſtranger will find it as difficult to return ſober from a feaſt in one country as the other.

The Poliſh dreſs is pretty remarkable. They cut the hair of their heads ſhort, and ſhave their beards, leaving only large whiſkers. They wear a veſt which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur, and girded with a ſaſh, but the ſleeves fit as cloſe to their arms as a waiſtcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their ſtockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtbands, and they wear neither

neither ſtock nor neckcloths. Inſtead of ſhoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin ſoles and deep iron heels, bent like a half-moon. They carry a pole-axe and a ſabre or cutlaſs by their ſides. When they appear on horſeback, they wear over all a ſhort cloak, which is commonly covered with furs, both within and without. The people of faſhion wear ſables, and others the ſkins of tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have 50 ſuits of clothes, exceeding rich, which deſcend from father to ſon. The habit of the women very much reſembles that of the men, being a ſimple Polonaiſe, or long robe edged with fur; but ſome people of faſhion, of both ſexes, affect the French or Engliſh modes. The peaſants, in winter, wear a ſheep-ſkin with the wool inwards, and in ſummer a thick coarſe cloth; but they wear no linen. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the ſoles of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters; and in the diſtrict of Samogitia, that they may know where they are, and what they are doing, make them wear little bells before and behind.

The houſes in Poland conſiſt entirely of a ground-floor, and the apartments are not joined to each other, but rather form a ſquare court, on one ſide of which is the kitchen, the ſtable on the other, the dwelling-houſe on the third, and the gate in front. The inns of this country are nothing more than long ſtables built with boards, and covered with ſtraw, without windows or furniture. At one end there is a chamber, which uſually ſwarms with fleas and other vermin; ſo that travellers rather chooſe to lodge among the horſes than go into it. They are obliged to carry proviſions with them, and when foreigners want a ſupply, they inform the lord of the village, who immediately provides them with neceſſaries.

The uſual diverſions of the Poles are vaulting, dancing, hunting, ſkaiting, bull and bear-baiting, and riding; of which exerciſe they are ſo exceedingly fond, that they will not ſtir a hundred yards without their horſes. They are ſo extremely hardy, that, if by chance they are benighted, they ſleep upon the ground, in froſt and ſnow, without any covering, except their uſual clothing.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Poland is that of the church of Rome, carried to the higheſt pitch of enthuſiaſm; the Poliſh clergy being moſt illiterate bigots, and the monks ſome of the moſt profligate of mankind; and it is chiefly owing to the conduct and influence of the Popiſh clergy, that the peaſants of Poland are ſo miſerable. The monaſteries in Poland are ſaid to amount to 576, and the nunneries to 117, beſides 246 ſeminaries or colleges, and 31 abbies. There are in this country, great numbers of Lutherans, Calviniſts, and members of the Greek church, who are all diſtinguiſhed by the common name of diſſidents, and, by the laws of that kingdom, are entitled to toleration and protection; but, owing to the bigotted ſpirit of the Popiſh clergy, who inſtil the ſame ſentiments into their deluded followers, they live in a ſtate of continual perſecution. In the year 1724, a public maſſacre was made of the Proteſtants at Thorn, in open defiance of a treaty concluded at Oliva in 1660, and guaranteed by the principal powers in Europe, for which no ſatisfaction has been as yet obtained, and ſeveral other ſtipulations, made in their favour at different times, have been regarded with the ſame inattention: ſo that they have often ſuffered the moſt cruel outrages, while Jews, Turks, and other infidels, have been tolerated and encouraged. The Jews particularly are indulged with great privileges, and are ſo numerous, that their poll-tax is ſaid to amount to near fifty-ſeven thouſand rix-dollars annually. The principles of Socinus made a very early and conſiderable progreſs in Poland; which is no wonder, as before his time, it is computed, 32 congregations denied the doctrine of the Trinity. It is at length reſolved, that all diſſidents ſhall be tolerated, but to have no ſeat in the diet, ſenate, or permanent council, though they may ſit in the inferior courts of juſtice.

The Poliſh language is a dialect of the Sclavonic, being neither copious nor harmonious, but abounds in conſonants, and many of the words have not a ſingle vowel in them. The Lithuanians and Livonians talk a language peculiar to themſelves, among which are found ſeveral corrupted Latin words; but the Ruſſian and German tongues are underſtood in the provinces bordering on thoſe countries. The High Dutch and Latin are frequently ſpoke here, but very incorrectly.

In Poland are two archbiſhoprics, viz. Gneſna and Lemburg. The former of theſe is always a cardinal, and, during an interregnum, prince regent, or interrex of the kingdom. Gneſna has for its ſuffragans the biſhops of Cracow, Cujavia, Culin, Liuke, Mednick, Poſna, Ploſko, and Wilna; and thoſe of Lemburg are the biſhops of Cholm, Kaminieck, and Prenyzil.

There were three univerſities here, viz. Cracow, Poſna or Poſen, and Wilna, but they are now almoſt entirely neglected. The firſt conſiſts of eleven colleges, and has the ſuperviſorſhip of fourteen grammar-ſchools, which are diſperſed through that city: in 1778, the number of ſtudents amounted to 600. That of Poſna is rather a Jeſuits college than an univerſity; Wilna was under the ſuperintendence of the Jeſuits; but ſince their ſuppreſſion, the king hath eſtabliſhed a committee of education, who appoint profeſſors, and direct their ſalaries and ſtudies.

Learning in Poland is in a very low ſtate, notwithſtanding ſeveral efforts have been made to raiſe it. The clergy, we have already obſerved, are illiterate bigots, conſequently averſe to the light of learning. The nobility deſpiſe it, placing their chief importance in the privileges of their rank; and the lower claſs are too wretched ever to think of ſtudy: of late, however, a taſte for ſcience has begun to ſpread itſelf among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accompliſhment. This kingdom has formerly produced ſeveral great geniuſes, particularly Copernicus, Vorſtius, and ſome Proteſtant divines, who are highly received by the literati of Europe.

The natural curioſities of Poland are more numerous than the artificial. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deſerts of Podolia, are ſeveral grottoes containing a great number of human bodies, which, notwithſtanding the time they muſt have lain there, are ſtill entire: and among them are two princes in the habits they uſed to wear. Theſe bodies are neither ſo hard nor ſo black as the Egyptian mummies, and no art having to all appearance been uſed for their preſervation, this phænomenon is attributed to the nature of the ſoil, which in that part is dry and ſandy. The ſalt mines may be juſtly placed among the natural curioſities of Poland.

A modern traveller has given us the following accurate deſcription of thoſe at Wielitſka, which are ſituated within eight miles of Cracow: "Theſe mines," ſays he, "are excavated on a ridge of hills at the northern extremity of the chain which joins to the Carpathian mountains: they take their appellation from the ſmall village of Wielitſka; but are ſometimes called, in foreign countries, the mines of Cracow, from their vicinity to that city.

"Upon our arrival at Weilitſka, we repaired to the mouth of the mine; having faſtened three ſeparate hammocks in a circle round the great rope that is uſed in drawing up the ſalt, we ſeated ourſelves in a commodious manner, and were let down gently, without the leaſt apprehenſion of danger, about 160 yards below the firſt layer of ſalt: quitting our hammocks, we paſſed a long and gradual deſcent, ſometimes through broad paſſages or galleries capable of admitting ſeveral carriages abreaſt; ſometimes down ſteps cut in the ſolid ſalt, which had the grandeur and commodiouſneſs of the ſtaircaſe in a palace. We each of us carried a light, and ſeveral guides preceded

us

us with lamps in their hands; the reflection of those lights upon the glittering sides of the mine was extremely beautiful, but did not cast that luminous splendour which some writers have compared to the lustre of precious stones.

"The salt dug from this mine is called ziebna, or green salt, for what reason I cannot determine; for its colour is an iron grey: when pounded, it has a dirty ash colour, like what we call brown salt: the quality improves in proportion to the depth of a mine; towards the sides and surface it is mixed with earthy or stony particles; lower down it is said to be perfectly pure, and requires no other process before it is used than to be pounded. The finest of this grey salt, however, is of a weak quality, when compared with our common sea salt; it is therefore, undoubtedly, by no means perfectly pure, but is blended with extraneous mixtures, though it serves very well for common purposes. Being almost as hard as stone, the miners hough it with pick-axes and hatchets, by a tedious operation, into large blocks, many of which weigh seven or eight hundred pounds: those large masses are raised by a windlass, but the smaller pieces are carried up by horses along a winding gallery, which reaches to the surface of the earth.

"Beside grey salt, the miners sometimes discover small cubes of white salt, as transparent as crystal, but not in any considerable quantity: they find likewise, occasionally, pieces of coal and petrified wood buried in the salt.

"The mine appears to be inexhaustible, as may easily be conceived from the following account of its dimensions: its known breadth is 1115 feet, its length 6691, and depth 743; and the best judges on the spot suppose, with the greatest appearance of probability, this solid body of salt to branch into various directions, the extent of which cannot be known: of that part which has been perforated, the depth is only calculated as far as they have hitherto dug; and who can tell how much further it may descend? The revenue arising from these and other salt-mines is very considerable, and formed part of the royal revenue before seized by Austria: the aunual average profit of those of Wielitska was about 98,000l. sterling.

"Our guide did not omit pointing out to us what he considered as one of the most remarkable curiosities of the place—several small chapels excavated in the salt, in which mass is said on certain days of the year: one of those chapels is thirty feet long, and twenty-five broad; the altar, the crucifix, the ornaments of the church, the statues of the saints, are all carved out of the salt.

"Many of the excavations, or chambers, from whence the salt has been dug, are of an immense size; some are supported with timber, others by vast pillars of salt, which are left standing for that purpose; several of vast dimensions are without any support in the middle. I remarked one of this latter sort in particular, which was certainly eight feet in height, and so extremely long and broad, as almost to appear amid the subterraneous gloom without limits. The roofs of those vaults are not arched, but flat. The immense size of the chambers, with the chapels abovementioned, and a few sheds built for the horses, which are foddered below, probably may rise to the exaggerated accounts of some travellers, that those mines contain several villages, inhabited by colonies of miners, who never see the light. It is certain that there is room sufficient for such purposes; but the fact is, that the miners have no dwelling under ground, none of them remaining below more than eight hours at a time, when they are relieved by others from above. In truth, those mines are of a most stupendous extent and depth, and are sufficiently wonderful without the least exaggeration. We found them as dry as a room, without the least damp, or moisture; observing only in our whole progress one small spring of water, which is impregnated with salt, as it runs through the mine.

"Such an enormous mass of salt exhibits a wonderful phenomenon in the natural history of this globe. Monsieur Guetard, who visited these mines with great attention, and who has published a treatise upon the subject, informs us, that the uppermost bed of earth at the surface immediately over the mines is sand; the second clay, occasionally mixed with sand and gravel, and containing petrifactions of marine bodies; the third, calcareous stone: from all those circumstances, he conjectures that this spot was formerly covered by the sea, and that the salt is a gradual deposit formed by the evaporation of its waters."

In the centre of the mountain called the Wonderful, frequently mentioned by modern geographers, is a spring of very clear water, which rises with a remarkable noise and vibration; and its ebullition or swelling increases or decreases with the moon. This spring, which is called by the inhabitants, Ignis Fatuus, never freezes by any degree of cold; and by holding a lighted torch over it, it immediately flames like spirits of wine, when the only way of extinguishing this fire is by brushing the surface of the water with brooms. Some years ago this fountain was set on fire by lightning, and the people neglecting to extinguish the flame, it communicated itself through subterraneous cataracts to a neighbouring wood, great part of which it destroyed by burning the roots of the trees, and it was three years before this conflagration entirely ceased; since which time watchmen have been appointed to prevent a repetition of this accident. The water itself, and the slime which it deposits, are said to be highly beneficial in most disorders of the human body, and that, owing to them alone, the people who reside near this spring are seldom ill, and are remarkable for their longevity, few of them dying before they arrive at the age of an hundred, or an hundred and fifty. There have been found in the woods, both of Poland and Germany, certain beings which seemed divested of almost all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all-fours, and were dumb; but some of them, it is said, by proper management, have attained to the use of speech. Probably, when the Tartars, and other barbarous nations, made inroads into Poland, the women were sometimes forced to leave their children exposed in the woods, where they might be nursed by bears and other wild beasts, otherwise it is difficult to account for their subsistence.

The most considerable cities in Poland are the following, viz.

Warsaw, the capital of Poland, situated 154 miles south-east of Dantzick, on the river Vistula, and nearly in the centre of the kingdom. This city is large, populous, tolerably well fortified, and contains a considerable number of churches, palaces, and convents. The chief church, dedicated to St. John the Baptist, is very fine; as also many other public buildings. The streets are spacious, but ill paved; and the greatest part of the houses, particularly in the suburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The king usually kept his court here, in a noble palace which forms a large square, surrounded with elegant gardens and groves. Here were likewise held the general diets, to which such multitudes of people resorted, that great numbers were obliged to reside in tents. The ordinary diets were held at the royal palace; but during the interregnum, in a field, not far from the city, near the village of Wola. In the year 1746, count Zaluski's library was opened, which is said to contain 200,000 volumes. Goods are brought to the city, by the Vistula and other rivers, and sent from thence to Dantzick; but has little commerce. It is said to contain 70,000 inhabitants.

Cracow, situated on the conflux of the Vistula and Radawa, is very populous, and the largest and best built

built town in Poland, and was formerly the capital: the houſes are of free-ſtone, four or five ſtories high, and covered with boards cut in the form of tiles. The public buildings are magnificent; among which are the cathedral of St. Staniſlaus, the church of St. Mary, and 50 other churches, 17 religious houſes in the caſtle, city, and ſuburbs, with the noble and well-built monaſteries of the Jeſuits and Dominicans. The ſuburbs occupy a vaſt ſpace of ground. Near the city are ſome admirable ſalt mines, diſcovered in 1548; it is defended by walls, towers, and baſtions; the garriſon conſiſts of 600 Ruſſians. The commerce is inconſiderable.

Grodno, the largeſt town in Lithuania, next to Wilna, is ſituated on the river Niemen, 160 miles north-eaſt of Warſaw. Here is a fine palace, a caſtle, a college, a Jews ſynagogue, a Carmelite nunnery, three Greek, and nine Roman Catholic churches. Beſides theſe, here are two other palaces, the one belonging to prince Radzivil, and the other to the Sapietian family. Very few of the ſtreets of this city are paved; and a great part of the town was conſumed by fire in the year 1753. It is a place of good trade, has a provincial diet, a court of judicature, &c. In 1776, the king eſtabliſhed here ſeveral new manufactures of cloths, camblets, linen, cotton, &c. and alſo an academy of phyſic and ſurgery, which, but for the late unfortunate troubles, bid fair to become of conſiderable conſequence to the country. The number of inhabitants is eſtimated at 7000.

Dantzick, the capital of Poliſh Pruſſia, is ſituated on the Viſtula, and conſiſts of the old and new town, with their ſuburbs. It is large, populous, and rich, and may well be conſidered as the chief mart and magazine of Poland, and one of the greateſt granaries in the world; for ſo conſiderable is the trade of this city, that a whole fleet come hither every year to load with corn alone; and it is computed that 365,000 laſts of Poliſh wheat are ſhipped from hence one year with another. Its houſes are generally five ſtories high; and many of its ſtreets are planted with cheſnut trees. It has a fine harbour, and is ſtill a moſt eminent commercial city, though it ſeems to be ſomewhat paſt its meridian glory, its trade getting into other channels, and daily diminiſhing. It is a republic, claiming a ſmall adjacent territory, about 40 miles round it, which were under the protection of the king and republic of Poland. Its magiſtracy, and the majority of the inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romaniſts and Calviniſts are equally tolerated in it. This city is rich, contains 26 pariſhes, with ſeveral public buildings, convents, and hoſpitals. The inhabitants are computed at 150,000: they have often changed their maſters, and have ſometimes been under the protection of the Engliſh and Dutch; but have generally ſhewn a peculiar regard for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being leſs likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their valuable privileges, among which are thoſe of coining money, gathering amber, and ſending repreſentatives to the general diet of Poland and the Pruſſian ſenate. Though ſtrongly fortified, and poſſeſſed of 150 large braſs cannon, it could not, through its ſituation, ſtand a regular ſiege, being ſurrounded with eminences. This city, as well as Thorn and Elbing, enjoy large and ample privileges, both civil and religious, very different from thoſe of the reſt of Poland, which they were permitted to retain when they put themſelves under the protection of that kingdom, not being able any longer to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights.

The king of Pruſſia exempted this city, and that of Thorn, from the claims he had lately made in the neighbouring countries; notwithſtanding which, he ſoon after thought proper to ſeize on the territory belonging to Dantzick, under pretence of their having formerly belonged to Poliſh Pruſſia. He next proceeded to poſſeſs himſelf of the port duties belonging to that city, and erected a cuſtom-houſe in the harbour, where he laid arbitrary and inſupportable duties upon goods exported or imported. Not ſatisfied with theſe oppreſſions, he cauſed cuſtom-houſes to be erected at the very gates of Dantzick, ſo that no perſons could go in or out of the town, without undergoing a ſtrict ſearch. So lately as in 1784, it was blockaded by his troops, on various pretences; but by the interpoſition of the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negociation carried on by deputies at Warſaw, and concluded on the 7th of September, by which it was agreed, that the place and trade of the city ſhould be reſtored to its former ſtability.

Thorn, an ancient city in Poliſh Pruſſia, is alſo ſituated on the Viſtula. This town is defended by a double wall and moats, and is ſaid to be the handſomeſt and beſt built in this country. The ſtreets are broader, and the houſes more elegant, than thoſe at Dantzick. This city has ſhared the fate of that above-mentioned, and is now added to the dominion of the king of Pruſſia.

Commerce, in this country, is chiefly confined to the city of Dantzick, and the other towns on the Viſtula and Baltic: ſome linen and woollen cloths, and hard-wares, are their principal manufactures, which are carried on in the interior parts.

Concerning the form of government in Poland, it is to be obſerved, that the Poles live under one head, who bears the title, and lives in the ſplendor becoming a king; but if you conſider his power, as it is circumſcribed within very narrow bounds, he is in effect no more than the prime or chief regent in a free commonwealth; ſince he can do nothing without the bounds of that authority which the laws of the land have given him, and the nobles take care to maintain.

The people elect the king on horſeback; and in caſe there ſhould be a refractory minority, the majority has no controul over them, but to cut them in pieces with their ſabres; but if the minority are ſufficiently ſtrong, a civil war enſues. The king, immediately after his election, ſigns the *pacta conventa*, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the kingdom or government; ſo that in fact, he is no more than preſident of the ſenate, which is compoſed of the primate, the archbiſhop of Lemburg, fifteen biſhops, and 130 laymen, conſiſting of the great officers of ſtate, the Palatines, and the Caſtellans, in all, 147.

The Poliſh diets are of two kinds, viz. either ordinary or extraordinary. The ordinary diets meet every ſecond year, but the extraordinary diets only upon particular occaſions when ſummoned by the king. They ſit but ſix weeks, and the diſſenting voice impedes the paſſing of any law, or coming to any final reſolution concerning what had been propoſed by the throne. Here are not only general diets, but dietines or provincial diets, and when the nobility enter into an aſſociation, either during an interregnum, or while the king is living, it is termed a confederacy. Indeed, to the great misfortune of the country, confederacies have been too frequent, as anarchy and confuſion are uſually their certain conſequences.

The chief ſecular ſenators are in number 36, viz. 32 palatines, who are, properly, governors of provinces; three caſtellans, viz. of Cracow, Wilna, and Troki; and the ſtaroſt of Samogitia. It is obſerved, that though the quality of caſtellan and ſtaroſta is inferior to that of palatine, theſe four laſt mentioned, poſſeſs almoſt the firſt rank among the lay ſenators.

The office of a palatine is, to lead the troops of his palatinate to the army, to preſide in the aſſemblies of the nobility in his province, to ſet a price upon goods and merchandize, to ſee that the weights and meaſures be not altered, and to judge and defend the Jews. He has a vice-palatine under him, who muſt take

take an oath to him, and who ought to have an eſtate in land, which they call Poſſeſſionatus.

The caſtellans are the next in dignity to the palatines, and there are two ſorts of them in the kingdom, who are uſually diſtinguiſhed by the title of great caſtellans, and petty or ſub-caſtellans. The number of the former, both in the kingdom, and duchy, amount to 32, and that of the latter to 49; and they are all ſenators, lieutenants, or deputies of the palatines, and heads of the nobility in their reſpective juriſdictions.

A king of Poland may nominate the great officers of ſtate, but they are accountable only to the ſenate; neither can he diſplace them when once appointed; he alſo makes archbiſhops, biſhops, &c. appoints judges and magiſtrates of provinces; and upon invaſions or rebellions, can ſummon the nobility to his ſtandard; he has all power to remit fines and capital puniſhments: but he can neither marry, nor divorce a wife, without conſent of the republic; and if he marries after his coronation, the queen cannot be crowned without his aſking their conſent, nor even then, unleſs ſhe be a Roman Catholic.

From the imperfect ſketch above given of this motley conſtitution, we may diſcern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet inveſt him with an ample prerogative, are worthy of a wiſe people. The inſtitutions of the diet and dietines, are favourable to the public liberty, as are many other proviſions in the common-wealth: but even in its beſt ſtate, it has laboured under incurable diſorders. The exerciſe of the *veto*, or negative veſted in each member of the aſſembly, muſt nevertheleſs be deſtructive of order, and embarraſſing to government; and appears to be founded upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited juriſdiction which the great lords, in former ages, uſed to enjoy all over Europe. The government of Poland cannot be otherwiſe improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would in a ſhort time render the common people independent on the nobility; and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their ſovereign, and to maintain thoſe unequal privileges which are ſo prejudicial to the community.

Beſides diſmembering the beſt provinces of Poland, the partitioning powers have proceeded to change and fix the conſtitution and government, under pretence of amending it; confirming all its defects, and endeavouring to perpetuate the principles of anarchy and confuſion.

This change of the conſtitution was intended by the partitioning powers to give a large ſcope to influence and faction over that part of the kingdom they had not ſeized, in order the more effectually to ſerve their own ſiniſter purpoſes.

The revenue of the king of Poland was clear to himſelf, and ſufficient to maintain him and his houſehold with great ſplendour; for he pays no troops, not even his own body-guards; all the public expences being provided for by the ſenate; and all the officers of the houſehold are Poliſh gentlemen, who ſerve without ſalary, in expectation of ſome office. The late king had one million and a half of florins (at 3s. 6d. each) ſettled upon him by the commiſſion of ſtate; and the income of his predeceſſors generally amounted to 140,000l. ſterling. The public revenues were collected chiefly from the crown-lands, the ſalt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, now in Auſtrian Poland, which alone amounted to nearly 100,000l. ſterling; the rents of Marienburg, Dirſhau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow, and diſtrict of Niepoliomiez, beſides ancient tolls and cuſtoms, particularly thoſe of Elbing and Dantzick.

The greateſt loſs to Poland was Weſtern Pruſſia, as by the diſmemberment of that province the navigation of the Viſtula depends entirely upon the king of Pruſſia. This was a fatal blow to the trade of Poland, ſince Pruſſia has laid ſuch heavy duties on the merchandize paſſing to Dantzick, as greatly to diminiſh the trade of that town, and to tranſfer a conſiderable part of it to Memel and Koningſburgh, ſo that Poland having, by the diſmemberment, loſt near half her annual income, it became neceſſary to new-model and increaſe the taxes, in order to ſupply this deficiency.

All the imports in 1775 amounted to 323,012l. the nett revenue of the king (which ariſes from his royal demeſnes, ſtaroſties, and 74,074l. out of the treaſury) is 194,500l. out of which he only pays his houſehold expences and menial ſervants. The whole revenue is 443,938l. out of which if we deduct 194,500l. for the king's privy purſe, there will remain the ſum of 249,438l. for army, ſtate officers, and all other charges.

Reſpecting the military ſtrength of Poland, we have already obſerved, that the innate pride of the Poliſh nobility is ſo great, that they always appear in the field on horſeback, and hence the principal force of the kingdom conſiſts in cavalry; indeed, the infantry, which are generally hired from Germany, and ſoon diſmiſſed, are ſeldom conſidered as any part of the Poliſh army. The nobility who have ſeized the reins of government, together with all the honours and emoluments of the ſtate, have alſo undertaken to defend it, leaving all the reſt of the nation to cultivate the lands. Hence the Poliſh cavalry are all gentlemen; and it is ſaid that Poland can raiſe 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 of ſuch horſemen, including their ſervants, who always attend their maſters on horſeback in the field. This combined army, or rather two armies, conſiſting of Poliſh and Lithuanian cavalry, have each their grand general, entirely independent of each other. It has been already obſerved that the office of grand-marſhal is the ſecond in dignity, but the grand-general is ſuperior in power, being confined only by the limits he preſcribes to himſelf, nor is this authority ever ſuſpended but when the king commands the army in perſon.

Beſides theſe, there is a third army, called the poſpolite, conſiſting of all the nobility and their followers in the kingdom, except the ſtaroſts and generals of the frontier places. This army can be ſummoned by the king on extraordinary occaſions; but he cannot keep them above ſix weeks in arms, nor are they obliged to march above three leagues beyond the frontiers of the kingdom.

A fourth army has been for ſome time maintained in Poland, conſiſting of infantry and light horſe, generally called huſſars. The latter are reckoned the fineſt and moſt ſhowy body of troops in Europe. They wear defenſive armour, and their horſes are remarkably ſwift, ſo that they greatly haraſs the army of an enemy. But want of diſcipline has rendered the Poliſh troops, notwithſtanding all their bravery, very incapable of facing an army of veterans belonging to the other powers of Europe in the field. Formerly indeed, eſpecially under the command of the famous John Sobieſki, they made a noble figure againſt the Turks, and proved the bulwark of Europe againſt all the attacks of the infidels: but the Saxon princes, who ſucceeded that hero, did not think it prudent to encourage the martial ſpirit of the Poles. On the contrary, they perpetually over-awed them with their electoral troops. At the ſame time they neglected to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military: the ignorance of the Poles ſuited better with their plan of ſubordination. This neglect, which was not felt for many years, has now been ſeverely felt in this devoted kingdom.

A great variety of coins have been ſtruck in Poland; but the following only are at preſent current in that kingdom, viz. the gold ducat of Poland, valued at 9s. 3d. the old ſilver dollar of Dantzick, 4s. 6d. the old rix-dollar of Thorn, 4s. 5d. the rix-dollar of Sigiſmund III. and Uladiſlaus IV. 4s. 6d.

The Poles never had any order of knighthood before

fore that of the Immaculate Conception, erected by Sigiſmund III. with ſome privileges above the reſt of the gentry, who ſo much deſpiſed it, that the order ſoon came to nothing. King Auguſtus, in 1705, revived the order of the White Eagle, in remembrance of his happily meeting the diet in Lithuania, when the Swedes and Staniſlaus thought to have intercepted him. This order was firſt inſtituted by Uladiſlaus, in the year 1325. The badge is a white eagle, crowned with diamonds. He conferred it on ſeveral lords, but the ſenators are diſtinguiſhed by wearing a golden croſs, with a badge in the middle of it: the motto is, *pro fide rege, et lege*; "for the faith, the king, and the law."—His late majeſty, on the 26th of September 1736 (which was the anniverſary of his birth) created eight knights of a new order, in honour of St. Henry, of which he aſſumed the title of grand-maſter. The badge of this order is a red ſtar with eight points, in the middle of which there is a repreſentation of the emperor Henry, and upon each ray or point appears the electoral ſword of Saxony. The ſtar is appendent, by a ſilver ſtring, to a ribband of crimſon velvet. The preſent king, ſoon after his election to the crown in 1765, inſtituted the order of St. Staniſlaus. The badge is a gold croſs enamelled red, and in the centre of it a medallion with the image of St. Staniſlaus enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red ribband edged with white. The ſtar of the order is ſilver, and in the centre is a cypher of S. A. R. (Staniſlaus Auguſtus Rex) encircled with the motto, *Premendo incitat*; "he ſtirs up by oppreſſing."

HISTORY OF POLAND.

THIS kingdom was originally inhabited by the Sarmatians, who were expelled by the Ruſs and Tartars. The government was, in proceſs of time, divided between twelve palatines, who were ſovereigns of ſo many diſtricts, and independent of each other. About the year 700, one Cracus, either by force, or by conſent of theſe petty princes, became ſovereign of the whole, and he it was that built the city of Cracow. The line of Cracus being extinct, Poland was again governed by twelve palatines, who agreed, in the year 760, to elect Leſcus their ſovereign, with the title of duke, which was retained till the year 999, when Boleſlaus firſt aſſumed the title of king; and, about this time, Chriſtianity was firſt eſtabliſhed in Poland; ſince which it appears to have been an hereditary monarchy, his poſterity ſucceeding to the throne for ſeveral generations, among whom was Caſſimir I. Boleſlaus II. marrying Viciſlava, the daughter and heireſs of Red Ruſſia, that province was united to Poland anno 1059. The kings of Poland, among whom was Caſſimir III. were abſolute ſovereigns until the reign of Lewis, anno 1370, but then the Poles inſiſted on limiting the prerogative, probably becauſe Lewis was king alſo of Hungary, and they ſuſpected he would favour his native country to their prejudice. Lewis being ſucceeded by his daughter and heireſs, Hedwigis, anno 1382, ſhe married Uladiſlaus V. great duke of Lithuania, on condition he ſhould become a Chriſtian, and their iſſue ſhould ſucceed both to the crown of Poland and the duchy of Lithuania, which have been united ever ſince. Uladiſlaus, their ſon, ſucceeded them, who was alſo king of Hungary. This prince was killed in a battle with Amurath, the Turkiſh emperor, and, leaving no iſſue, was ſucceeded by his brother Caſſimir IV. between whom and the knights of the Teutonic order, who had been placed in Pruſſia by the pope, there were continual wars, until it was agreed, that the knights ſhould remain poſſeſſed of Eaſtern or Ducal Pruſſia, the grand-maſter taking an oath of fealty to the king of Poland. In the reign of Sigiſmund II. the Ruſſians invaded Livonia, then poſſeſſed by the Teutonic knights, who called in the Poles to their aſſiſtance; other provinces called in the Swedes, and theſe three powers contended for the dominion of Livonia many years. Henry of Valois, duke of Anjou, was elected king of Poland anno 1574; but his brother Charles, the French king, dying, he quitted Poland, and ſucceeded to the crown of France anno 1577. Stephen Batory, prince of Tranſylvania, was elected king of Poland on the abdication of Henry. In his reign the ſupreme courts of juſtice were firſt erected, before which time the king and council were the laſt reſort in caſes of appeal. Sigiſmund III. ſon of John, king of Sweden, was elected king on his renouncing Lutheraniſm, anno 1587. Uladiſlaus, his ſon, ſucceeded him, anno 1632, and invading Ruſſia, took the capital city of Moſcow, and, in a treaty that enſued, he obliged the Ruſſians to confirm the provinces of Smolenſko and Zernigoff to Poland. Uladiſlaus, leaving no iſſue, was ſucceeded by his brother John Caſſimir, anno 1648, though he was then a cardinal. In this reign, the old Coſſacks, being diſobliged, renounced their allegiance to the Poles, and became ſubjects to the Ruſſians and Turks. Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, conquered Poland, but loſt it again in ſix months; after which, John Caſſimir introduced an army of 30,000 Germans to defend the kingdom againſt the Swedes; but the Poles, ſuſpecting he intended to render himſelf abſolute, depoſed him; whereupon he retired into France, and was made abbot of the abbey of St. Germain. Michael Wiſnoweſki being elected in 1670, the Turks conquered Podolia in his reign, but were defeated by John Sobieſki, who was elected king on the death of Wiſnoweiſki. This prince died after a glorious reign, in the year 1697, and the greateſt anarchy and confuſion ſucceeded. Confederacies were formed in ſupport of different candidates, and the moſt horrid ravages were committed on the territories of each party. In the mean time, Poland was inſulted by the Tartars, and its crown in a manner offered to the higheſt bidder. In 1603, Frederic Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, was placed on the throne, in oppoſition to the prince of Conti, who had been proclaimed king by the French faction; but, being unable to ſupport his pretenſions againſt the armies of Auguſtus, he retired into France; but it was not till the year 1712 that Auguſtus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and diſagreeable terms. The year after his acceſſion, the Turks, by the peace of Carlowitz, reſtored the province of Podolia to Poland.

Auguſtus was not ſo fortunate in his alliances againſt Charles XII. of Sweden. He was defeated in ſeveral battles, and afterwards depoſed by that monarch, who placed Staniſlaus Leſczinſki on the throne of Poland in 1704. That prince continued to enjoy the royal dignity till the year 1709, when Charles XII. being totally defeated at the battle of Pultowa, and obliged to take refuge among the Turks, Auguſtus was replaced on the throne of Poland by Peter the Great. The Poles, were, however, ſo ſtrongly attached to the intereſt of their countryman Staniſlaus, that Auguſtus was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon forces. In the year 1725, his natural ſon prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was elected duke of Courland; but Auguſtus was not able to ſupport him in his new dignity.

Auguſtus died in 1733, after doing every thing in his power to inſure the ſucceſſion of the throne of Poland to his ſon Auguſtus II. but Staniſlaus being elected by a conſiderable party, with the primate at their head, Auguſtus found it neceſſary to ſupport his pretenſions with the ſword. This brought on a war, in which the intereſt of Staniſlaus was ſupported by the French. But Auguſtus entering Poland at the head of a powerful army, compoſed of Saxons and

Ruſſians,

Ruſſians, Staniſlaus was obliged to retreat to Dantzick from whence he afterwards, with great difficulty, eſcaped into France. Auguſtus, however, could not acquire the affections of his Poliſh ſubjects: ſo that when he was driven from his electorate by his Pruſſian majeſty, he could obtain nothing more than ſhelter for himſelf and his friends; the Poles abſolutely refuſing to take any part in the war. Auguſtus died at Dreſden in 1763, when count Staniſlaus Poniatowſki was unanimouſly choſen king by the name of Staniſlaus Auguſtus. He was born in 1732, and crowned king of Poland in 1764. While a private nobleman, he reſided ſome time in London, and is a member of the Royal Society. As he was peculiarly favoured by the empreſs of Ruſſia and ſome Proteſtant powers, the papers which he ſigned, at the time of his election, were deemed too favourable to the Proteſtants in general, and the Greeks in particular. Hence the army, which the empreſs of Ruſſia had in Poland, gave a pretence for various confederacies to be formed againſt the king by the Roman Catholics; and the conſpiring nobles at length were ſo unnatural as to throw off all allegiance to the ſovereign, and to put themſelves under the protection of the grand ſeignior. This mad ſtep of ſome of the Poliſh nobles occaſioned the Ottoman Porte to declare war againſt Ruſſia, and to invade Poland with a powerful army. Since which time, that unhappy country has been a ſcene of confuſion, rapine, horror, oppreſſion, and bloodſhed. Hurried on either by blind zeal, or miſtaken bigotry, the confederates precipitated the ruin of their devoted country, and ſome of the neighbouring powers, invited by their incautions enthuſiaſm, took an advantage of this abſurd civil war, and, under the maſk of friendſhip, diſmembered this once powerful kingdom.

So far was diſſimulation uſed in the diſmemberment, or partitioning of Poland, as the powers concerned think proper to term it, that they all expreſsly deny having had the leaſt intention to ſeize any of the Poliſh provinces, or in any wiſe to divide that country. In the act of renunciation tranſmitted to the court of Warſaw in the year 1764, and ſealed with the ſeal of the Ruſſian empire, the empreſs of Ruſſia ſays, "She did by no means arrogate, either to herſelf, her heirs and ſucceſſors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the diſtricts or territories which were actually in poſſeſſion or ſubject to the authority of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her ſaid majeſty would guarantee to the ſaid kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania all the immunities, lands, territories, and diſtricts, which the ſaid kingdom and duchy ought by right to poſſeſs, or did now actually poſſeſs; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, againſt the attempts of all and every perſon or perſons who ſhould at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to diſpoſſeſs them of the ſame."

The king of Pruſſia, in the ſame year, ſigned an act, in which he declared, "That he had no claims, formed no pretenſions on Poland, or any part thereof; and that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Pruſſia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the ſame inſtrument, he guarantees the rights and territories of Poland againſt every other power whatever. The empreſs-queen of Hungary, likewiſe, in the year 1771, wrote a letter, with her own hand, to the king of Poland, in which ſhe gave him the ſtrongeſt aſſurances, "That her friendſhip for him and the republic was firm and unalterable; that the motion of her troops ought not to alarm him, that ſhe had never entertained a thought of ſeizing any part of his dominions, nor would even ſuffer any other power to do it." Yet theſe very ſovereigns, ſo liberal in their proteſtations of protection, and warm in their profeſſions of friendſhip, are the perſons who have jointly invaded the unhappy kingdom of Poland, diſtreſſed its inhabitants, ſeized on its moſt valuable revenues, diſmembered its palatinates, duchies, &c. and partitioned out ſome of its richeſt cities and provinces among themſelves.

Since theſe illuſive declarations and fallacious proteſtations were made and given, the partitioning powers publiſhed each a manifeſto, in which they reſpectively laid claim to certain of the Poliſh territories. In theſe pretenſions the king of Pruſſia ſhewed himſelf a deep politician, by contriving to lay claim to the moſt valuable ſhare, and thereby obtaining the richeſt, moſt populous, and moſt commercial parts. It was in the year 1770 that theſe falſe and pretended friends threw off the maſk, and began to avow their intentions. The Pruſſian conſul, having received his political leſſon, took occaſion to quarrel with the magiſtrates of Dantzick, and having been palpably the aggreſſor, was, according to his inſtructions, the firſt to complain. The king of Pruſſia pretended to be highly offended: but inſtead of coming to an explanation, or hearing both parties, he determined to be at once judge, jury, and executioner; he, therefore, to make a deciſion, not by the ſword of juſtice, but by the ſword military, ſuddenly ſurprized the city with a ſtrong body of troops, fined the magiſtrates 100,000 ducats for what he termed their inſolence, ſeized upon 1000 men to recruit his army, and, having thus executed his intentions firſt, he began very calmly to argue the matter with the magiſtrates afterwards; and having coolly remonſtrated with them on their imprudence, as he called it, told them to do ſo no more, and he would freely forgive them. Amazing condeſcenſion, and truly characteriſtic of the moderation of an arbitrary prince!

This, however, was a trifling prelude to what was to follow; for in the enſuing year, 1771, the Pruſſian troops entered Great Poland, and carried off from that province and its neighbourhood above 12,000 families; and, about the latter end of the ſame year, his Pruſſian majeſty publiſhed an edict, commanding, under the moſt ſevere penalties, that all perſons ſhould take in payment for forage, proviſions, corn, horſes, &c. the money offered by his troops and commiſſaries. This money was either ſilver bearing the impreſſion of Poland, and worth only one-third of its nominal value, or ducats ſtruck in imitation of Dutch ducats, but above ſeventeen per cent. inferior in value to the real ducats of Holland. With this very baſe money he bought up a ſufficient quantity of forage and proviſions to ſtock his magazines and ſupply his army for two years: and the poor inhabitants, after having been thus obliged to part from their property much below its value, were, through neceſſity, compelled to come to repurchaſe corn from thoſe magazines, and to pay good ſubſtantial money for it; for the Pruſſian commiſſaries abſolutely refuſed to receive again the ſame coin which they had paid: from this curious, though not very honeſt manœuvre, the king of Pruſſia cleared 7,000,000 of dollars. The country being thus ſtripped of money and proviſions, the next plan of his Pruſſian majeſty was, to clear it of its inhabitants. To increaſe the population of his own dominions, at the expence of Poland, had long been his aim. To this end he enacted, that every city, town, village, &c. in the places which his troops poſſeſſed, ſhould furniſh a certain number of marriageable young women, and the parents were ordered to give, as a portion, a feather bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. This cruel order was rigorouſly executed. The parents were ſtripped, in the moſt tyrannical and oppreſſive manner, to ſupply extorted portions for the children raviſhed from their arms. The young women were inhumanly dragged from their parents, their friends, and their connections; and, being bound hand and foot, like criminals, were carried off, in ſpite of the lamentations of themſelves and relations, in carts, waggons, &c. After this horrid exertion of arbitrary power, the exactions from the abbeys, convents, cathedrals,

nobles, &c. were ſo great and unreaſonable, that the people of fortune fled from their eſtates, and retired into foreign countries, and the prieſts abandoned their churches. Theſe exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and poſſeſſion taken of the provinces wreſted from Poland; when Poliſh Pruſſia, and ſome diſtricts bordering upon Brandenburg, were allotted to the king of Pruſſia; almoſt all the ſouth-eaſtern parts of the kingdom, with the rich ſalt-works of the crown, fell to the empreſs-queen of Hungary: and the empreſs of Ruſſia took poſſeſſion of a large territory about Mohilow.

Every perſon of good ſenſe, moderation, and equity, will certainly conſider the violent diſmemberment and partition of Poland as the firſt great breach in the modern political ſyſtem of Europe; and notwithſtanding the deſtruction of a great kingdom, with the conſequent diſarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been beheld by the other nations of Europe with the moſt aſtoniſhing indifference and unconcern, yet future ages will regard this unjuſtifiable meaſure with the greateſt indignation; thoſe who projected it with horror; and thoſe who acquieſced in it with contempt. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonſtrated againſt the uſurpations, but made no attempt to oppoſe them; ſo that Poland was forced to ſubmit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. There was a majority of ſix in the ſenate; but, in the lower houſe, the aſſembly of nuncios, there was a balance of but one vote in favour of the meaſure, fifty-four againſt fifty-three. This is a very alarming circumſtance, and ſhews that a moſt important, though not happy change, has taken place in that general ſyſtem of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had been for ſome ages an object of unremitting attention with moſt of the ſtates of Europe.

REVOLUTION IN POLAND,

Which took place in 1791.

Every perſon, whoſe attention has at all been directed to political events, muſt recollect the diſmemberment of Poland in the year 1773. From that period the republic has been reduced to a moſt humiliating ſtate of ſervitude and dependence upon Ruſſia. Notwithſtanding the advances of Pruſſia were favourably received by the nation during Ruſſia's conteſt with the Porte; yet the enlightened part of the Poliſh patriots flattered themſelves with no advantages from Pruſſia, which were not to be paid by ſacrificing the beſt intereſts of the republic; they determined, therefore, to make a wiſer uſe of the interval of relief from foreign oppreſſion, which they now enjoyed; and they found themſelves warmly ſeconded in their views by the greateſt part of the nation, when it appeared that the ceſſion of Thorn and Dantzick to Pruſſia was the immediate object of that inſatiable court.

Every nation muſt find its own ſupport within itſelf; ſince, by depending on a foreign power, it will ever find its proſperity precarious, and its government contemptible. Poland wanted not induſtry nor valour; but what ſhe ſtood moſt in need of was unity, a conſtitution, an active and efficient government. Happily for her, ſhe was at this time poſſeſſed of ſome men of the moſt rational abilities, and apparently of the moſt exalted patriotiſm. The king had indeed been elected by the Ruſſian intereſt; but he has ſhewn that foreign obligations have not been able to eradicate from his breaſt an attachment to his country.

During the ſeſſion of the diet many excellent decrees had been paſſed in favour of general liberty, and calculated to attach the citizens to the intereſts of their country: that of the 18th of April, 1791, in particular, which ſecured to the freemen the rights which had been previouſly confined to the order of nobles, and which opened the door of nobility to the inferior orders, was a conſiderable advance in favour of human nature, in a nation which had ſo long been devoted to the ſlaviſh principles of the feudal ſyſtem. The minds of the public were alſo prepared for the change, by the apprehenſions which the deſigns of Pruſſia upon Thorn and Dantzick had excited, and by the juſt alarms, which agitated the people, of a future diviſion of their territory. The new conſtitution, however, was digeſted and prepared with the utmoſt ſecreſy and caution; and but few were entruſted with the projected deſign.

On the memorable 3d of May, 1791, at three o'clock in the morning, a ſelect body of patriots aſſembled in the royal chamber; there, in preſence of the king, they ſolemnly engaged never to ſeparate till the intended revolution ſhould be happily accompliſhed. The galleries of the hall, in which the diet was held, were crowded at an early hour, as if in expectation of ſome important event.

The ſeſſion was opened by the king in perſon, inſtead of the marſhal; and inſtead of recurring to the order of the day, which was a report on the finances, his majeſty addreſſed the aſſembly on the general ſtate of the nation; and obſerved, that "whatever aſſurances foreign powers might amuſe them with, he had undoubted proofs that the alarming rumours which had been ſpread concerning a freſh diſmemberment of the territories of the republic, reſted upon too ſure a foundation; and that the contending powers were about to terminate their differences at the expence of Poland. That one way remained, and but one, to ſecure the poſſeſſions of the republic, and to preſerve the ſtate from ruin; and that was, to give it ſuch a conſtitution as might impart unity to its government, and attach the people to its ſupport.—That, with this view, a conſtitution had been prepared, principally founded on the Engliſh and American conſtitutions, and adapted as much as poſſible to the circumſtances of the country: and he truſted that they would adopt this conſtitution."

A tumultuous debate enſued, after the reading of the conſtitution. The nuncios of Volhynia and Podolia proteſted againſt the proceeding. M. Suchorzowſky, who has been the author of the decree in favour of the citizens, threw himſelf at the feet of the throne, aud beſought his majeſty, that he would not perſiſt in his intention to make the crown hereditary. Others referred to the inſtructions of their conſtituents, and intreated that the further conſideration of this buſineſs ſhould be deferred to a future day; but this propoſal did not meet with the ſentiments of the majority. The king then, riſing from his ſeat, reſpectfully called the biſhop of Cracovia, and took a ſolemn oath to maintain the conſtitution: "He that loves his country," exclaimed his majeſty, "let him follow me to the church, and repeat this oath at the foot of the altar." The king was attended to the church by all the nuncios, except between thirty and forty. Te Deum was ſung; all the deputies preſent took the oath; and the new conſtitution was announced to the people by the firing of 200 pieces of cannon. It was reported that, on the preceding day, a foreign miniſter had diſtributed the ſum of 50,000 ducats for the purpoſe of obſtructing the revolution. The attempt, however, proved abortive; the moſt perfect tranquillity prevailed; and nothing but exclamations of joy was heard throughout Warſaw. Thus without bloodſhed, and even without tumult, was effected a revolution honourable to thoſe who projected it, and promiſing to be eſſentially conducive to the happineſs of the people.

General

General Outlines of the New Conſtitution.

"By this new conſtitution, a full and free toleration is permitted to all ſects and religions; the peaſants, who were formerly in a ſtate of the moſt abject vaſſalage, or rather ſlavery, are received under the protection of national law and government, and all contracts between the lords and vaſſals are declared equally binding. The ſovereignty is declared to reſide altogether in the will of the people; and three diſtinct powers are eſtabliſhed in the government—the legiſlative, the executive, and the judicial. With reſpect to the firſt of theſe powers, the diet or legiſlature is to be elected every two years from the order of nobles, and is divided into two houſes, namely, the houſe of nuncios, and the ſenate; the former, however, poſſeſſes the pre-eminence, and every law which paſſes in it is immediately to be ſent to the ſenate, where, if it is accepted, it becomes a law in full force: if ſuperſeded, it muſt be reſumed at the next diet; and if a ſecond time, it paſſes the houſe of nuncios, the ſenate muſt ſubmit to it.

"With reſpect to individuals the crown of Poland is hereditary, and elective as to families; and the houſe of Saxony is the family now (1791) choſen for the vacancy. To the king and his council is entruſted the execution of laws. The king's perſon is inviolable. He may pardon all criminals but ſtate priſoners: he commands the forces, appoints commanders, patentees, officers, biſhops, ſenators, miniſters. But no miniſter or ſenator can ſit in the houſe of nuncios.

"The judiciary power is thus divided: firſt, primary courts in each diſtrict or palatinate; ſecond, courts of appeal in each of the three provinces. There are ſome other local inferior courts, and a comitial tribunal for the trial of crimes againſt the ſtate.

"Citizens in general are empowered to purchaſe landed eſtates; and, whoever purchaſes a village or townſhip, paying 200 florins land-tax, is ennobled. Thirty citizens are alſo ennobled at every diet. The army, the law, and the church, are all thrown open to the citizens. Perfect and entire liberty is proclaimed to all new ſettlers, whether foreigners, or emigrants returned from foreign parts."

The oppoſition which at firſt was made to the conſtitution, chiefly on account of the hereditary ſucceſſion, ſoon began to ſubſide. Count Braniki, grand-general of the kingdom, who at firſt had declared againſt the conſtitution, acceded to it, and ſigned it at the diet on the 5th; and the celebrated friend of liberty, Malackowſky, great chancellor of the crown, who on that event had reſigned the ſeals, re-accepted them at the requiſition of the diet, and accepted the office of miniſter of juſtice, and for the interior department. On the 17th M. Goltz, charge des affaires from the court of Berlin, announced his Pruſſian majeſty's approbation of the new arrangement.

The ready concurrence of the king of Poland in a meaſure adapted to promote the welfare of his people, and the animated ſupport which he gave to the new conſtitution, evinced the goodneſs of his heart, and the liberality of his principles. But here our commendation muſt end; we cannot give to his Poliſh majeſty the praiſe of political ſagacity, of foreſight, of activity, or even of courage. Lulled into a fatal ſecurity by the inſidious profeſſions of a court, noted for its perfidy, as well as for its verſatile and ſelfiſh politics; a court which appeared to promote the revolution, while it meditated ſecretly the diſmemberment of Poland; the unfortunate monarch appears to have neglected every means of defence; nor was even the heſitating and undecided conduct of Saxony ſufficient to excite his vigilance. No alliances were formed, no preparations made for ſupporting with vigour the infant conſtitution. This neglect, great as it was, was even exceeded by the indifference of the king as to the means of internal defence. While the diſcontented nobles, who from perſonal reſentment, or diſappointed ambition, manifeſted the moſt earneſt hoſtility to the conſtitution; while theſe were openly received and encouraged at Peterſburg, neither the ſtanding force of Poland was properly organized, nor the militia embodied. Not a magazine was erected, nor an intrenchment thrown up to oppoſe the entrance of the enemy. It was all a dead calm, and the Ruſſians appeared upon their frontiers before the diet had recovered from its ſurpriſe at the firſt hoſtile declaration of the empreſs.

On the 21ſt of April, 1792, the diet received the firſt notification from the king, of the inimical and unjuſt intentions of Ruſſia. He informed them, that without the ſhadow of pretence, this avowed enemy of the rights of mankind had determined to invade the territory of the republic with an army of 60,000 men. This formidable banditti, commanded by generals Soltikow, Michelſon, and Koſakowſki, was afterwards to be ſupported by a corps of 20,000, and by the troops then acting in Moldavia, amounting to 70,000. The king, however, profeſſed that he was not diſcouraged, and declared his readineſs to put himſelf at the head of the national troops, and to terminate his exiſtence in a glorious conteſt for the liberties of his country. Then, and not before, the diet decreed the organization of the army, and its augmentation to 100,000. The king and the council of inſpection were inveſted with unlimited authority in every thing that regarded the defence of the kingdom. Magazines were ordered to be conſtructed, when it was too late, and quarters to be provided for the army.

In conſequence of theſe preparations, the diet and the nation roſe, as one man, to maintain their independence. All private animoſities were obliterated, all private intereſts were ſacrificed; the greateſt encouragements were held forth to volunteers to enrol themſelves under the national ſtandard, and it was unanimouſly decreed by the diet, that all private loſſes ſhould be compenſated out of the public treaſury.

In 1792, Ruſſia, ſeeing war declared between Auſtria and France, and finding herſelf likely to be called upon to fulfil her engagements with the former of thoſe powers, avowed her intentions, in the month of May, to overturn the preſent conſtitution of Poland, and give it a form of government which might beſt ſuit herſelf. An official declaration was accordingly delivered to the Poliſh government on this ſubject, dated the 18th of May, and filling twelve pages, in the Poliſh, French, and Ruſſian languages: it announces the entrance of the Ruſſian troops on the territory of Poland, and the formation of a new confederacy. When the declaration of the court of Ruſſia was read at the diet, the king immediately roſe, and explained to the members how far he thought the republic menaced, and its independence wounded; and declared he thought there were but two ways left for the republic to chooſe out of, viz. whether they ſhould go to war, or endeavour to keep the republic at peace by means of negotiation; if the laſt is reſolved upon, the kings of Hungary and Pruſſia, and the elector of Saxony, ſhould be requeſted to uſe their good offices. His majeſty ſaid, that with reſpect to himſelf, he ſhould always be found, wherever he could, either by council or perſonally, to render moſt ſervice to his country, without any regard to his own life. The king ſaid, what hurt him moſt was, that for their critical ſituation they were indebted to Polanders by birth, who miſrepreſented every thing to the empreſs of Ruſſia, and concluded by recommending the neceſſary arrangements to be immediately taken.

With reſpect to the declaration itſelf, it was in general conſidered as a tiſſue of falſehood and hypocriſy. It aſſerted, that this wanton invaſion, which was evidently againſt the ſenſe of almoſt every individual Polander, was meant entirely for the good of the republic.

public. It cenſured the precipitancy with which the new conſtitution was adopted, and aſcribed the ready conſent of the diet to the influence of the Warſaw mob. It repreſented the conſtitution as a violation of the principles on which the Poliſh republic was founded—complained of the licentiouſneſs with which the ſacred name of the empreſs was treated, in ſome ſpeeches of the members; and concluded, by profeſſing, that on theſe accounts and in behalf of the emigrant Poles, her Imperial majeſty had ordered her troops to enter the territories of the republic.

This declaration was no ſooner delivered to the diet, than the Ruſſian troops, accompanied by counts Potocki, Rzewuſki, Branicki, and a few Poliſh apoſtates, appeared upon the frontiers, and entered the territories of the republic, in ſeveral columns, before the cloſe of the month. The ſpirit manifeſted by the nobility was truly honourable. Some of them delivered in their plate to the mint. Prince Radzivil engaged voluntarily to furniſh 10,000 ſtand of arms, and another a train of artillery. The courage of the new and haſtily embodied ſoldiers, correſponded with the patriotiſm of their nobles. Prince Poniatowſki, nephew to the king, was appointed commander in chief, and though his force was greatly inferior to the enemy, it muſt be confeſſed that he made a noble ſtand. On the 24th of May, the enemy's coſſacks were repulſed, and purſued by the patroles of the republic to the very entrenchments. On the 26th, about one o'clock, the picquets of the republic diſcovered a large body of Don Coſſacks approaching the outpoſts; and a ſquadron of cavalry, commanded by lieutenant Kwaſniewſki, ſupported by lieutenant Golejowſki, with two ſquadrons more, in all about 300, marched out to meet them. They attacked the Coſſacks with ſucceſs, but purſued them with more valour than prudence, to the ſide of a wood, where they found themſelves drawn into an ambuſcade, and ſurrounded by 2000 horſe, two battalions of chaſſeurs, and ſix pieces of cannon. The intrepid Poles bravely fought their way through the Ruſſian line, and killed upwards of 200 of the enemy. The Poles, in this engagement, loſt 100 men, and two officers; one of whom, lieutenant Kwaſniewſki, was wounded, and made priſoner. The remainder of the detachment reached their quarters in ſafety.

The hiſtory of man can ſcarcely furniſh an inſtance of perfidy, meanneſs, and duplicity, equal to that which was manifeſted by Pruſſia on this occaſion. By the treaty of defenſive alliance, ſolemnly contracted between the republic of Poland and the king of Pruſſia, and ratified on the 23d of April, 1790, it is expreſsly ſtipulated, "That the contracting parties ſhall do all in their power to guarantee and preſerve to each other reciprocally the whole of the territories which they reſpectively poſſeſs. That, in caſe of menace or invaſion from any foreign power, they ſhall aſſiſt each other with their whole force, if neceſſary;" and by the 6th article, it is further ſtipulated, "that if any foreign power whatever ſhall preſume to interfere in the internal affairs of Poland, his Pruſſian majeſty ſhall conſider this as a caſe falling within the meaning of the alliance, and ſhall aſſiſt the republic according to the tenor of the 4th article," that is, with his whole force. Poſterity will ſcarcely believe, or will believe with indignation after this, that on application to the court of Berlin, for the ſuccours thus ſolemnly contracted for, the only anſwer they received, was—"That the treaty was dated previous to the new conſtitution, and that conſtitution eſtabliſhing a new order of things, his Pruſſian majeſty held himſelf abſolved from his engagements." Of ſuch value are treaties in the eyes of deſpotic princes! But what enhances the treachery, is this, that it is confidently aſſerted, that moſt of the obnoxious acts, of which the empreſs complained in her declaration againſt the Poles, were done by the influence and advice of Pruſſia; that the king of Pruſſia, when the conſtitution was propoſed, never gave the ſmalleſt intimation that "the new order of things" would diſſolve the alliance; and that ſo far from this being the caſe, our readers will find, that "on the 17th of May, 1791, M. Goltz, charge des affaires from the court of Berlin, formally announced his Pruſſian majeſty's approbation of the new arrangement."

The great ſcene of action, in the beginning of the war, was the duchy of Lithuania; but the Ruſſians had made little progreſs before the middle of the month of June. On the 10th of that month, general Judycki, who commanded a detachment of the Poliſh troops, between Mire and Swierzna, was attacked by the Ruſſians; but, after a combat of ſome hours, he obliged them to retire with the loſs of 500 men dead on the field; the general was deſirous of profiting by this advantage, by purſuing the enemy, but was prevented by a moſt violent fall of rain. On the ſucceeding day, the Ruſſians rallied again to the attack; and it then too fatally appeared, that the Poles were too young and undiſciplined to contend with an inferior force againſt experienced troops and able generals. By a maſterly manœuvre, the Ruſſians contrived to ſurround their antagoniſts, at a moment when the Poliſh general ſuppoſed that he had obliged the enemy to retreat; and though the field was conteſted with the utmoſt valour by the troops of the republic, they were at length compelled to give way, and to retire towards Nieſwieſz.

Another engagement took place on the 14th near Lubar, on the banks of the river Sluez, between a detachment of the Ruſſian grand army, and a party of the Poliſh cavalry, diſpatched by prince Joſeph Poniatowſki, to intercept the enemy. The patriotic bravery of the Poles was victorious in this conteſt; but upon reconnoitring the force of the enemy, the prince found himſelf incapable of making a ſucceſsful ſtand againſt ſuch ſuperior numbers. He therefore gave orders to ſtrike the camp at Lubar, and commenced a precipitate retreat. During their march, the Poliſh rear was haraſſed by a body of 4000 Ruſſians, till arriving at Boruſkowee, the wooden bridge unfortunately gave way, under the weight of the cavalry. The enemy, in the mean time, brought their artillery to play upon the rear of the fugitives, who loſt upwards of 250 men. The Poliſh army next directed its courſe toward Zielime, where meeting, on the 17th, with a reinforcement from Zaſlow, it halted to give battle to the enemy. The Ruſſians were upwards of 17,000 ſtrong, with twenty-four pieces of cannon, and the force of the republic much inferior. After a furious conteſt from ſeven in the morning till five in the afternoon, the Ruſſians were at length obliged to retreat, and leave the field of battle in poſſeſſion of the patriots. The Ruſſians were computed to have loſt 4000 men in this engagement, and the Poles about 1100.

The Poles, notwithſtanding theſe exertions, were obliged gradually to retire before their numerous and diſciplined enemies. Nieſwieſz, Wilna, Minſk, and ſeveral other places of leſs conſequence, fell into their hands one after another. On a truce being propoſed to the Ruſſian general Kochowſki, the propoſal was haughtily rejected; while the deſertion of vice brigadier Rudnicki, and ſome others, who preferred diſhonour to perſonal danger, proclaimed a tottering cauſe. The progreſs of the armies of Catharine was marked with devaſtation and cruelty, while, ſuch was the averſion of the people both to the cauſe and the manner of conducting it, that, as they approached, the country all around became a wilderneſs, and ſcarcely a human being was to be ſeen.

A ſeries of little defeats happening in the mean time, to which the inexperience of the commanders, and the intemperate valour of new raiſed troops, appear to have greatly contributed, ſerved at once to diſtreſs and to diſpirit theſe defenders of their country. Prince Poniatowſki continued to retreat, and on the 17th

17th of July, his rear being attacked by a very ſuperior force, it ſuffered a conſiderable loſs, though the ſkill and courage of general Koſciuſko enabled him to make a moſt reſpectable defence. On the 18th, a general engagement took place between the two armies. The Ruſſian line extended oppoſite Dubienka, along the river Bug, as far as Opalin. The principal column, conſiſting of 14,000 men, was chiefly againſt the diviſion of general Koſciuſko, which conſiſted of 5000 men only. After a moſt vigorous reſiſtance, in which the Ruſſians loſt upwards of 4000 men, and the troops of the republic only ſome hundreds, the latter was compelled to give way before the ſuperior numbers of the enemy, and to retire further into the country. Thus was this unequal conteſt at length prematurely terminated.

The king, whoſe benevolent intentions were, perhaps, overpowered by his mental imbecility, and whoſe age and infirmities, probably, rendered him unequal to the difficulties and dangers which muſt attend a protracted war, inſtead of putting himſelf, according to his firſt reſolve, at the head of his army, determined, at once, to ſurrender at diſcretion. On the 23d of July, he ſummoned a council of all the deputies at that moment in Warſaw. He laid before them the laſt diſpatches from the empreſs, which inſiſted upon total and unreſerved ſubmiſſion. He pointed out the danger of a diſmemberment of the republic, ſhould they delay to throw themſelves upon the clemency of the empreſs, and to entreat her protection. He mentioned the fatal union of Auſtria and Pruſſia with Ruſſia; and the diſgraceful ſupineneſs manifeſted by every other court of Europe.

The intrepid and patriotic Malachowſki, the princes Sapieha, Radzivil, and Soltan, were the four citizens who vehemently proteſted againſt theſe proceedings; and the following evening a company of gentlemen, from the different provinces, aſſembled for the ſame purpoſe. The aſſembly waited immediately on theſe four diſtinguiſhed patriots, and returned them their acknowledgments for the ſpirit and firmneſs with which they had reſiſted the uſurpations of deſpotiſm. The ſubmiſſion of the king to the deſigns of Ruſſia was no ſooner made known, than Poland was bereft of all her beſt and moſt reſpectable citizens. Malachowſki, as marſhal of the diet, and prince Sapieha, grand-marſhal of Lithuania, entered ſtrong proteſts on the journals of the diet againſt theſe hoſtile proceedings, and declared ſolemnly that the diet legally aſſembled in 1788 was not diſſolved.

On the 20th of December, 1794, a curier arrived from the empreſs, demanding the arreſtation of count Ignatius Potocki, and ſeveral of the other patriots, whom ſhe ordered to be ſent to Peterſburg. The ſame meſſenger brought a command from the empreſs to the unhappy monarch of Poland to repair to Grodno, who, in obedience to the ſummons, ſet off from his capital on the 7th of January 1795.

The unfortunate king has ſince removed to Peterſburg, where he at preſent remains, and has a palace and a ſuitable penſion aſſigned him.

CHAP. XXIII.

SWITZERLAND;

AND THE COUNTRIES OF THE ALLIES OF THE SWITZERS.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Towns, Climate, Produce, Mountains, Inhabitants, Religion, Curioſities, Government, Hiſtory, &c.

THIS country is ſituated between the 6th and 11th deg. eaſt long. and between the 45th and 48th of north lat. being about 260 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. It is bounded on the weſt, by France; on the ſouth, by Italy; on the eaſt, by the lake of Conſtance, Tirol, and Trent; and, on the north, by Alſace and Suabia, in Germany. The whole is divided into thirteen cantons; viz. Zurich, Berne, Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, Underwalden, Zug, Glaris, Baſil, Fribourg, Soleure, Schaffhauſen, Appenzel.

The following are the names of the principal towns of each canton in Switzerland:

Countries Names.		Chief Towns.
Calviniſts	Berne	Berne.
	Zurich	Zurich.
	Schaffhauſen	Schaffhauſen.
	Baſil	Baſil.
Papiſts	Lucerne	Lucerne.
	Underwalden	Stantz.
	Uri	Alborf.
	Suiſſe	Suiſſe.
	Fribourg	Fribourg.
	Zug	Zug.
	Soleure	Soleure, or Soloturn.
Calviniſts and Papiſts	Appenzel	Appenzel.
	Glaris	Glaris.
Subjects of the Switzers, Calviniſts and Papiſts	Baden	Baden.
	Bremgarten	Bremgarten.
	Mellingen	Mellingen.
	Rheinthall	Rheinſick.
	Thurgau	Frowanfield.
	Lugano	Lugano.
	Locarno	Locarno.
	Mendris	Mendris.
	Maggia	Maggia.

The names of the principal towns of each canton belonging to the allies of Switzers.

Calviniſts	Griſons	Coire.
Calviniſts and Papiſts	Chiavanna	Chiavanna.
	Bormio and Valtcline	Sondrio.
Calviniſts	Tocklenburg	Liechtenſteg.
	Geneva	Geneva.
	Neufchatel	Neufchatel.
Papiſts	Valais	Sion.
	Baſle	Delſperg.
	St. Gall	St. Gall.

To theſe, Mulhauſen in Alſace is alſo united.

Switzerland enjoys in general a healthy climate. The air, in winter, is exceedingly cold, both in the vallies and on the mountains; but during the ſummer it is delightfully cool in the latter, though ſultry hot in the former. The inequality of the ſoil renders the ſame province very unequal in its ſeaſons: ſometimes the north ſide of a mountain will be clothed in all the horrors of winter, while the oppoſite is decked in the cheerful robes of ſummer: on one ſide of the mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are ſowing on another. The vallies are, however, warm, fruitful, and well-cultivated, and the ſummer months in this charming country are extremely delightful. The water is generally excellent.

The principal rivers are the Rhine, the Aar, the Ruſs, the Inn, the Rhone, the Teſin, the Oglio, and the Lutſchinen.

A very curious phænomenon preſents itſelf to our obſervation with reſpect to the dangerous bridge over the laſt mentioned river Lutſchinen, in the bailliage of Iterlacken, and canton of Berne, in Switzerland. This river is formed by the junction of two ſtreams: the one, called the Weiſs Lutſchinen, flowing through the valley of Lauterbrunnen; and the other called the Schwartz Lutſchinen, which comes from the valley of Grindelwalde. Having left the fertile plains of Giſteig, and paſſed the village of Wilderſwyl, the breadth of the valley leſſens, and continues to grow ſo narrow, that the ſtream of the Lutſchinen can hardly

public. It cenſured the precipitancy with which the new conſtitution was adopted, and aſcribed the ready conſent of the diet to the influence of the Warſaw mob. It repreſented the conſtitution as a violation of the principles on which the Poliſh republic was founded—complained of the licentiouſneſs with which the ſacred name of the empreſs was treated, in ſome ſpeeches of the members; and concluded, by profeſſing, that on theſe accounts and in behalf of the emigrant Poles, her Imperial majeſty had ordered her troops to enter the territories of the republic.

This declaration was no ſooner delivered to the diet, than the Ruſſian troops, accompanied by counts Potocki, Rzewuſki, Branicki, and a few Poliſh apoſtates, appeared upon the frontiers, and entered the territories of the republic, in ſeveral columns, before the cloſe of the month. The ſpirit manifeſted by the nobility was truly honourable. Some of them delivered in their plate to the mint. Prince Radzivil engaged voluntarily to furniſh 10,000 ſtand of arms, and another a train of artillery. The courage of the new and haſtily embodied ſoldiers, correſponded with the patriotiſm of their nobles. Prince Poniatowſki, nephew to the king, was appointed commander in chief, and though his force was greatly inferior to the enemy, it muſt be confeſſed that he made a noble ſtand. On the 24th of May, the enemy's coſſacks were repulſed, and purſued by the patroles of the republic to the very entrenchments. On the 26th, about one o'clock, the picquets of the republic diſcovered a large body of Don Coſſacks approaching the outpoſts; and a ſquadron of cavalry, commanded by lieutenant Kwaſniewſki, ſupported by lieutenant Golejowſki, with two ſquadrons more, in all about 300, marched out to meet them. They attacked the Coſſacks with ſucceſs, but purſued them with more valour than prudence, to the ſide of a wood, where they found themſelves drawn into an ambuſcade, and ſurrounded by 2000 horſe, two battalions of chaſſeurs, and ſix pieces of cannon. The intrepid Poles bravely fought their way through the Ruſſian line, and killed upwards of 200 of the enemy. The Poles, in this engagement, loſt 100 men, and two officers; one of whom, lieutenant Kwaſniewſki, was wounded, and made priſoner. The remainder of the detachment reached their quarters in ſafety.

The hiſtory of man can ſcarcely furniſh an inſtance of perfidy, meanneſs, and duplicity, equal to that which was manifeſted by Pruſſia on this occaſion. By the treaty of defenſive alliance, ſolemnly contracted between the republic of Poland and the king of Pruſſia, and ratified on the 23d of April, 1790, it is expreſsly ſtipulated, "That the contracting parties ſhall do all in their power to guarantee and preſerve to each other reciprocally the whole of the territories which they reſpectively poſſeſs. That, in caſe of menace or invaſion from any foreign power, they ſhall aſſiſt each other with their whole force, if neceſſary;" and by the 6th article, it is further ſtipulated, "that if any foreign power whatever ſhall preſume to interfere in the internal affairs of Poland, his Pruſſian majeſty ſhall conſider this as a caſe falling within the meaning of the alliance, and ſhall aſſiſt the republic according to the tenor of the 4th article," that is, with his whole force. Poſterity will ſcarcely believe, or will believe with indignation after this, that on application to the court of Berlin, for the ſuccours thus ſolemnly contracted for, the only anſwer they received, was—"That the treaty was dated previous to the new conſtitution, and that conſtitution eſtabliſhing a new order of things, his Pruſſian majeſty held himſelf abſolved from his engagements." Of ſuch value are treaties in the eyes of deſpotic princes! But what enhances the treachery, is this, that it is confidently aſſerted, that moſt of the obnoxious acts, of which the empreſs complained in her declaration againſt the Poles, were done by the influence and advice of Pruſſia; that the king of Pruſſia, when the conſtitution was propoſed, never gave the ſmalleſt intimation that "the new order of things" would diſſolve the alliance; and that ſo far from this being the caſe, our readers will find, that "on the 17th of May, 1791, M. Goltz, charge des affaires from the court of Berlin, formally announced his Pruſſian majeſty's approbation of the new arrangement."

The great ſcene of action, in the beginning of the war, was the duchy of Lithuania; but the Ruſſians had made little progreſs before the middle of the month of June. On the 10th of that month, general Judycki, who commanded a detachment of the Poliſh troops, between Mire and Swierzna, was attacked by the Ruſſians; but, after a combat of ſome hours, he obliged them to retire with the loſs of 500 men dead on the field; the general was deſirous of profiting by this advantage, by purſuing the enemy, but was prevented by a moſt violent fall of rain. On the ſucceeding day, the Ruſſians rallied again to the attack; and it then too fatally appeared, that the Poles were too young and undiſciplined to contend with an inferior force againſt experienced troops and able generals. By a maſterly manœuvre, the Ruſſians contrived to ſurround their antagoniſts, at a moment when the Poliſh general ſuppoſed that he had obliged the enemy to retreat; and though the field was conteſted with the utmoſt valour by the troops of the republic, they were at length compelled to give way, and to retire towards Nieſwieſz.

Another engagement took place on the 14th near Lubar, on the banks of the river Sluez, between a detachment of the Ruſſian grand army, and a party of the Poliſh cavalry, diſpatched by prince Joſeph Poniatowſki, to intercept the enemy. The patriotic bravery of the Poles was victorious in this conteſt; but upon reconnoitring the force of the enemy, the prince found himſelf incapable of making a ſucceſsful ſtand againſt ſuch ſuperior numbers. He therefore gave orders to ſtrike the camp at Lubar, and commenced a precipitate retreat. During their march, the Poliſh rear was haraſſed by a body of 4000 Ruſſians, till arriving at Boruſkowee, the wooden bridge unfortunately gave way, under the weight of the cavalry. The enemy, in the mean time, brought their artillery to play upon the rear of the fugitives, who loſt upwards of 250 men. The Poliſh army next directed its courſe toward Zielime, where meeting, on the 17th, with a reinforcement from Zaſlow, it halted to give battle to the enemy. The Ruſſians were upwards of 17,000 ſtrong, with twenty-four pieces of cannon, and the force of the republic much inferior. After a furious conteſt from ſeven in the morning till five in the afternoon, the Ruſſians were at length obliged to retreat, and leave the field of battle in poſſeſſion of the patriots. The Ruſſians were computed to have loſt 4000 men in this engagement, and the Poles about 1100.

The Poles, notwithſtanding theſe exertions, were obliged gradually to retire before their numerous and diſciplined enemies. Nieſwieſz, Wilna, Minſk, and ſeveral other places of leſs conſequence, fell into their hands one after another. On a truce being propoſed to the Ruſſian general Kochowſki, the propoſal was haughtily rejected; while the deſertion of vice brigadier Rudnicki, and ſome others, who preferred diſhonour to perſonal danger, proclaimed a tottering cauſe. The progreſs of the armies of Catharine was marked with devaſtation and cruelty, while, ſuch was the averſion of the people both to the cauſe and the manner of conducting it, that, as they approached, the country all around became a wilderneſs, and ſcarcely a human being was to be ſeen.

A ſeries of little defeats happening in the mean time, to which the inexperience of the commanders, and the intemperate valour of new raiſed troops, appear to have greatly contributed, ſerved at once to diſtreſs and to diſpirit theſe defenders of their country. Prince Poniatowſki continued to retreat, and on the

17th of July, his rear being attacked by a very ſuperior force, it ſuffered a conſiderable loſs, though the ſkill and courage of general Koſciuſko enabled him to make a moſt reſpectable defence. On the 18th, a general engagement took place between the two armies. The Ruſſian line extended oppoſite Dubienka, along the river Bug, as far as Opalin. The principal column, conſiſting of 14,000 men, was chiefly againſt the diviſion of general Koſciuſko, which conſiſted of 5000 men only. After a moſt vigorous reſiſtance, in which the Ruſſians loſt upwards of 4000 men, and the troops of the republic only ſome hundreds, the latter was compelled to give way before the ſuperior numbers of the enemy, and to retire further into the country. Thus was this unequal conteſt at length prematurely terminated.

The king, whoſe benevolent intentions were, perhaps, overpowered by his mental imbecility, and whoſe age and infirmities, probably, rendered him unequal to the difficulties and dangers which muſt attend a protracted war, inſtead of putting himſelf, according to his firſt reſolve, at the head of his army, determined, at once, to ſurrender at diſcretion. On the 23d of July, he ſummoned a council of all the deputies at that moment in Warſaw. He laid before them the laſt diſpatches from the empreſs, which inſiſted upon total and unreſerved ſubmiſſion. He pointed out the danger of a diſmemberment of the republic, ſhould they delay to throw themſelves upon the clemency of the empreſs, and to entreat her protection. He mentioned the fatal union of Auſtria and Pruſſia with Ruſſia; and the diſgraceful ſupineneſs manifeſted by every other court of Europe.

The intrepid and patriotic Malachowſki, the princes Sapieha, Radzivil, and Soltan, were the four citizens who vehemently proteſted againſt theſe proceedings; and the following evening a company of gentlemen, from the different provinces, aſſembled for the ſame purpoſe. The aſſembly waited immediately on theſe four diſtinguiſhed patriots, and returned them their acknowledgments for the ſpirit and firmneſs with which they had reſiſted the uſurpations of deſpotiſm. The ſubmiſſion of the king to the deſigns of Ruſſia was no ſooner made known, than Poland was bereft of all her beſt and moſt reſpectable citizens. Malachowſki, as marſhal of the diet, and prince Sapieha, grand-marſhal of Lithuania, entered ſtrong proteſts on the journals of the diet againſt theſe hoſtile proceedings, and declared ſolemnly that the diet legally aſſembled in 1788 was not diſſolved.

On the 20th of December, 1794, a curier arrived from the empreſs, demanding the arreſtation of count Ignatius Potocki, and ſeveral of the other patriots, whom ſhe ordered to be ſent to Peterſburg. The ſame meſſenger brought a command from the empreſs to the unhappy monarch of Poland to repair to Grodno, who, in obedience to the ſummons, ſet off from his capital on the 7th of January 1795.

The unfortunate king has ſince removed to Peterſburg, where he at preſent remains, and has a palace and a ſuitable penſion aſſigned him.

CHAP. XXIII.

SWITZERLAND;

AND THE COUNTRIES OF THE ALLIES OF THE SWITZERS.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Towns, Climate, Produce, Mountains, Inhabitants, Religion, Curioſities, Government, Hiſtory, &c.

THIS country is ſituated between the 6th and 11th deg. eaſt long. and between the 45th and 48th of north lat. being about 260 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. It is bounded on the weſt, by France; on the ſouth, by Italy; on the eaſt, by the lake of Conſtance, Tirol, and Trent; and, on the north, by Alſace and Suabia, in Germany. The whole is divided into thirteen cantons; viz. Zurich, Berne, Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, Underwalden, Zug, Glaris, Baſil, Fribourg, Soleure, Schaffhauſen, Appenzel.

The following are the names of the principal towns of each canton in Switzerland:

Countries Names.		Chief Towns.
Calviniſts	Berne	Berne.
	Zurich	Zurich.
	Schaffhauſen	Schaffhauſen.
	Baſil	Baſil.
Papiſts	Lucerne	Lucerne.
	Underwalden	Stantz.
	Uri	Alborf.
	Suiſſe	Suiſſe.
	Fribourg	Fribourg.
	Zug	Zug.
	Soleure	Soleure, or Soloturn.
Calviniſts and Papiſts	Appenzel	Appenzel.
	Glaris	Glaris.
Subjects of the Switzers, Calviniſts and Papiſts	Baden	Baden.
	Bremgarten	Bremgarten.
	Mellingen	Mellingen.
	Rheinthall	Rheinſick.
	Thurgau	Frowanfield.
	Lugano	Lugano.
	Locarno	Locarno.
	Mendris	Mendris.
	Maggia	Maggia.

The names of the principal towns of each canton belonging to the allies of Switzers.

Calviniſts	Griſons	Coire.
Calviniſts and Papiſts	Chiavanna	Chiavanna.
	Bormio and Valtcline	Sondrio.
Calviniſts	Tocklenburg	Liechtenſteg.
	Geneva	Geneva.
	Neufchatel	Neufchatel.
Papiſts	Valais	Sion.
	Baſle	Delſperg.
	St. Gall	St. Gall.

To theſe, Mulhauſen in Alſace is alſo united.

Switzerland enjoys in general a healthy climate. The air, in winter, is exceedingly cold, both in the vallies and on the mountains; but during the ſummer it is delightfully cool in the latter, though ſultry hot in the former. The inequality of the ſoil renders the ſame province very unequal in its ſeaſons: ſometimes the north ſide of a mountain will be clothed in all the horrors of winter, while the oppoſite is decked in the cheerful robes of ſummer: on one ſide of the mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are ſowing on another. The vallies are, however, warm, fruitful, and well-cultivated, and the ſummer months in this charming country are extremely delightful. The water is generally excellent.

The principal rivers are the Rhine, the Aar, the Ruſs, the Inn, the Rhone, the Teſin, the Oglio, and the Lutſchinen.

A very curious phænomenon preſents itſelf to our obſervation with reſpect to the dangerous bridge over the laſt mentioned river Lutſchinen, in the bailliage of Iterlacken, and canton of Berne, in Switzerland. This river is formed by the junction of two ſtreams: the one, called the Weiſs Lutſchinen, flowing through the valley of Lauterbrunnen; and the other called the Schwartz Lutſchinen, which comes from the valley of Grindelwalde. Having left the fertile plains of Giſteig, and paſſed the village of Wilderſwyl, the breadth of the valley leſſens, and continues to grow ſo narrow, that the ſtream of the Lutſchinen can hardly

force a paſſage. In the rainy ſeaſon, the river forms a torrent, which ruſhes impetuouſly through the great maſſes of rock that obſtruct its courſe, and, with inconceivable violence, forces from their beds the moſt enormous fragments. The road to Twey-Lutſchinen and Lauterbrunnen is over this river, by a kind of bridge, which, to a ſtranger to the country, exhibits a very terrific appearance. Suſpended over a roaring torrent, and fixed againſt the ſides of rocks that are almoſt in a leaning poſition, it exhibits the idea of a double danger. A huge vertical ſtone, raiſed in the middle of the river, ſupports ſome thick planks, ſo badly joined as to be neither ſteady nor ſolid; and theſe form a wretched inſecure bridge, over which the country people daily paſs, with a firm ſtep and undaunted eye; a paſſage, which the traveller, unaccuſtomed to ſuch ſtrange communications, would tremble to attempt. From this place the river flows till it falls into the lake of Brientz.

The chief lakes are thoſe of Geneva, Conſtance, Neufchatel, Biel, Brin, Thun, Zurich, Lucerne, and Brientz.

In the mountains are mines of iron, marble of various colours, cryſtal, ſpar, common gypſum, ſlate, ſand-ſtones, chalk, mundic, terra ſigillata, ſulphur, ſalt-petre, rock-ſalt, and pit-coal.

The cattle and ſheep in Switzerland are very numerous; and they have an exceeding good breed of horſes. On the mountains are white and yellow foxes; hares, which turn white in winter; marmouſets, and the Alpine mice, which are in reality a ſpecies of badger. Here are alſo the bouquetin and the chamois, whoſe activity in ſcouring along the ſteep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both theſe animals is of ſo hot a nature that the inhabitants of ſome of theſe mountains, who are much ſubject to pleuriſies, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that diſorder: the fleſh of the chamois is eſteemed very delicious. Tame and wild fowl are very plentiful here; among the latter is a very large kind of eagle; and the rivers and lakes are ſtored with fiſh. The mountains produce good timber and paſture; and in the vallies there are vaſt quantities of wheat, barley, oats, rye, ſpelt, flax, and hemp; alſo apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and cheſnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, pomegranates, and grapes; in other parts, ſaffron is cultivated with good ſucceſs. In a word, Switzerland produces ſufficient for the ſubſiſtence of its inhabitants; and in order to provide againſt the ſcarcity which would be felt, if, from the ſudden rains and tempeſts, to which the country is ſubject, or any other cauſe, the crops ſhould fail, public granaries, well ſupplied with corn, are eſtabliſhed in various places.

The mountains in Switzerland are many and ſtupendous: they not only divide almoſt every canton from each other, but the whole country is ſeparated from Italy by a long chain of them, called the Alps, which muſt be croſſed in order to paſs from one place to the other; and accordingly there are four beaten roads over them, which in many parts will allow of no other method of travelling than on horſes, aſſes, or mules. The feet of the mountains, and ſometimes alſo the very ſummits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and paſture-grounds. In winter, prodigious maſſes of ice and ſnow fall from theſe mountains, which is generally attended with conſiderable damage to the inhabitants.

There are ſeveral mineral waters and baths in this country; but the moſt excellent baths are thoſe at Baden, which, Tacitus obſerves, were known even in the time of our Saviour: they are uſed for drinking as well as bathing, and are recommended for the cure of ſeveral diſorders: the town of Baden owes its riches and grandeur to this bath, which is much reſorted to by the gentry, from all parts of Switzerland.

At the diſtance of two leagues north from the town of Le Valais are the celebrated baths of Leuk, ſituated at the foot of Mount Gemmi, in a narrow profound vale, cloſed in on all ſides by high mountains, leaving only a ſmall entrance through a wood to the ſouth. In the vale are five ſprings of warm mineral water, which are conveyed to divers baths in convenient houſes for the uſe of the ſick.

Theſe baths are greatly frequented in ſummer: the water is clear, and without any colour; yet ſome of the ſprings are ſo hot, that they will boil an egg, or ſcald the feathers from a fowl. From the pretty village containing theſe baths, there is a way to paſs to the canton of Berne, by aſcending mount Gemmi; but it is uncommonly ſteep, and the declivity remarkably rugged: in ſhort, if it had not been for facilitating the acceſs to the baths for the inhabitants of Berne, no mortal could have thought of making this mount paſſable. The deep ſighs that are occaſioned by the fatigue of aſcending it, have given its name to this rocky mountain. Little ſerpentine narrow roads, cut into the rock, in ſome places defended by walls, in others by beams faſtened croſs-ways, to keep paſſengers from falling over, render travelling this way very dangerous, and impracticable for thoſe who are ſubject to giddineſs, or bleeding at the noſe; who, upon fainting, would be liable to fall down a ſteep craggy road at the peril of life. An engineer meaſured the aſcent of this mount, and found it to be one million and ten feet

The thirteen cantons of Switzerland, according to the beſt computation, are ſuppoſed to contain about two millions of inhabitants. The men are generally tall, robuſt, well made, with bad complexions, owing chiefly to their laborious way of life, which expoſes them to tempeſtuous and ſtormy weather. The women are uſually handſome, well-ſhaped, ſenſible, and modeſt, yet frank and eaſy in their converſation and behaviour. They are a brave, honeſt, hoſpitable, induſtrious, hardy people; very friendly and humane, and always ſtedfaſt to their engagements. The gentry are much improved of late years, both in their converſation and behaviour; but they are generally haughty, and value themſelves very highly on their privileges as citizens, or ſharers in the government, and diſdain the profeſſion of trade and manufactures, for it is very difficult for a man to render himſelf of any conſequence among them, either as an adept in his profeſſion, or by poſſeſſing a ſuperior genius. The merchants have great privileges, and many of them are very rich. The peaſants, equally inured to arms and agriculture, are brave and laborious, making at once excellent ſoldiers and huſbandmen. The ſtate of matrimony is held in the higheſt eſteem among the Switzers, and ſerval privileges belong to ſuch as enter into it. The women are generally very fruitful, and their country being but narrow, parents are obliged to ſend their ſons to ſeek a ſupport in foreign climates, and as they are uſually of a martial ſpirit, and accuſtomed to arms from their youth, they moſt commonly enter into foreign ſervice; thoſe of the Popiſh cantons into the French and Spaniſh, and thoſe of the Proteſtant into the pay of the States General, and of the Proteſtant princes in Germany. They are ſo tenacious of their rights and privileges, that they diſcourage foreigners from ſettling among them, which is a great detriment to the arts and manufactures. Sumptuary laws are in force in ſome parts, by which ſuperb clothes, and ornaments of lace, gold, ſilver, and jewels, are prohibited both ſexes; but, of late years, they have made ſome alterations in the ancient ſimplicity of their dreſs, in which they now conform more to the French taſte: moſt of the men wear their own hair, and whiſkers. Their diverſions are of the warlike and active kind, of which hunting ſeems to be that they moſt delight in. As to plays, gaming, and even balls, except at weddings, the magiſtrates of moſt of the cantons have thought proper

per to impoſe fines upon them, as tending towards an introduction of extravagance and luxury into the country.

The Switzers are in general a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the ſame rank of men in moſt other countries; a taſte for literature is very prevalent among thoſe who are in better circumſtances, and even among many of the lower rank; and a genuine and unartful good-breeding is extremely conſpicuous in the Swiſs gentry. On the firſt entrance into this country, a traveller cannot but obſerve the air of content and ſatisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants: a general ſimplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankneſs, joined with an invincible ſpirit of freedom, are their diſtinguiſhed characteriſtics. With reſpect to domeſtic œconomy, the cleanlineſs of the houſes and of the people is peculiarly ſtriking; in ſhort, in all their manners, behaviour, and dreſs, ſome ſtrong outlines may be traced which diſtinguiſh this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppreſſions of deſpotic government.

The two eſtabliſhed religions in Switzerland are Calviniſm and Popery, which differences formerly occaſioned great commotions, but at preſent they are entirely ſubſided. Proteſtantiſm was introduced into this country by Zuing, or Zuinglius, and is profeſſed in the cantons of Zurich and Berne, the towns of St. Gall, Geneva, Mulhauſen, and Biel, the principality of Neufchatel, the greater part of Baſil, Schaffhauſen, the country of the Griſons, the Thurgau, Toggenburg, Glaris, and the Rhine valley, the frontiers of Appenzel, with a ſmall part of Solothurn, and ſome places in the countries of Baden and Sargans. All the other parts of Switzerland profeſs the tenets of the church of Rome.

Several languages are ſpoken in Switzerland, but the moſt common is the German, and in that all public affairs are tranſacted. In the cantons bordering on Italy, the inhabitants ſpeak a corrupted Latin, or Italian.

The Swiſs are not celebrated for their extenſive learning or deep erudition, though there are among them many learned men, but their knowledge is generally confined to divinity and law. Rouſſeau, whoſe works have been much admired in the preſent age, and who gave a ſurpriſing force to the French language, was a native of Geneva, where the laws inſtituted by Calvin for that city are held in high eſteem. M. Bonnet, and Meſſ. de Sauſſure and de Luc will alſo be mentioned with applauſe to the lateſt poſterity. Some Switzers have alſo diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the fine arts, particularly painting and engraving.

The only univerſity in Switzerland, is that of Baſil; it was founded in 1459, and has a curious phyſic-garden, well ſtocked with choice exotics. The library and muſeum belonging to it are very noble, and contain ſome valuable manuſcripts, with an excellent collection of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Eraſmus and Amerbach, which alſo belong to this univerſity, there are no leſs than 20 original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, repreſenting Chriſt, 1000 ducats have been offered. The colleges are thoſe of Zurich, Berne, Lauſanne, and Geneva; beſides which, there are gymnaſiums, and ſcholæ illuſtres, in moſt of the cantons: they have alſo ſome ſocieties for the improvement of the German language, and the ſciences.

The natural curioſities of Switzerland are very numerous, but none are more deſerving of notice than the glacieres, or ice-vallies, which, notwithſtanding this appellation, are ſituated a conſiderable height above the contiguous rivers and lakes. The aſcent to them is very ſteep, craggy, and ſlippery. Theſe vallies are only frequented in July and Auguſt, when the ice is found to be eight feet thick, and in ſome places of ſuch a height, that it ſeems to have been accumulating ever ſince the creation. There are alſo ſeveral wonderful hermitages in Switzerland, eſpecially one, about two leagues from Fribourg, among woods and rocks, which conſpire to form a moſt beautiful ſolitude. It conſiſts of a chapel, oratory, ſteeple, hall, refectory, kitchen, rooms, ſtairs, cellar, well, and other conveniences, all hewn out of a rock, even to the chimney and ſteeple, though the latter is fifty-four feet in height. The aſtoniſhment, which this of itſelf may excite, will not be a little increaſed, when it is known to have been the labour only of a ſingle man and a boy. Nature had indeed provided a fine ſpring, but the induſtrious architect had hewn little channels for bringing the water of the rock into ſmall ciſterns; and of earth brought from other places, he made a ſmall kitchen-garden.—This edifice it is impoſſible to view without pleaſure, but likewiſe a mixture of concern for the fate of its owner, a man of ſuch contrivance and induſtry: in the year 1708, in carrying back ſome young people who came to viſit him on the conſecration of his chapel, he was drowned in the river Sane, running by the hermitage, on which river he uſed once a week to fetch neceſſaries from the town in a little boat.

At Lauffen, on the north-eaſt part of the canton of Zurich, is a wonderful cataract of the Rhine, which falls from a height of between 40 and 50 cubits, with a noiſe that, in a calm night, may be heard at the diſtance of two leagues. And in the bailiwick of Interlacken and canton of Berne, in Switzerland, is Lauterbrunnen, a village, or rather collection of cottages, ſprinkled, like thoſe of Grindelwald, about the valley and acceſſible parts of the hills. Near the clergyman's houſe is the celebrated cataract of Stuabbach, to view which is almoſt the only motive that induces a great number of travellers, every ſummer, to viſit the valley of Lauterbrunnen. "This torrent," ſays Mr. Coxe, "rolls perpendicularly from ſo conſiderable a height, as to reſolve itſelf into a fine ſpray; the greateſt part of it falls clear of the over-hanging mountain, during its whole deſcent: but the remainder daſhes about half way againſt a projection from the rock, and flies off with great violence. The clergyman meaſured, a ſhort time ago, its perpendicular height, and found it nine hundred and thirty feet. The ſun ſhining in an oppoſite direction, a miniature rainbow was reflected toward the bottom of the fall: while I ſtood at ſome diſtance, the rainbow aſſumed a ſemicircular figure; as I approached, the extreme points gradully coincided, and formed a complete circle of the moſt lively and brilliant colours. In order to have a ſtill finer view, I ventured nearer and nearer; the circle at the ſame time becoming ſmaller and ſmaller; and as I ſtood quite under the fall, it ſuddenly diſappeared. When I looked up to the torrent, in this ſituation, it reſembled a cloud of duſt: and from this circumſtance indeed it takes its name; Staubbach ſignifying, in the German language, a ſpring of duſt. I paid for my curioſity, by being extremely wet; but then I had the ſatisfaction, at the ſame time, of ſeeing a rainbow in miniature: no uncommon phænomenon, as it may be obſerved in any caſcade, upon which the ſun ſhines directly in a certain poſition. In the preſent inſtance, however, it was ſome conſolation to me, that the object happened to be peculiarly ſtriking."

With ſuch impetuous violence the torrent ruſhes down a precipice upwards of one hundred feet high, that its waters, in a manner, leave near two thirds of the rock dry, and do not reach, but at this diſtance, the lower projecting rocks which it covers with froth, ruſhing with a roaring noiſe into the baſon below; accompanied by a tempeſt, occaſioned by the violent agitation of the air, excited by the rapidity of this fall. The circular hillock, near the rainbow, at the foot of the rock, from the top of which we may contemplate this beautiful phænomenon, forms one of the ſides of the reſervoir. Above the great torrent, is

ſeen another ſmaller fall, floating in the air, at the pleaſure of the winds. This brook is named the Kupferbacklein, or Rivulet of Copper. The ſide of the rock, beyond that of Staubbach, is called Schnepff. At the extremity of it, which is almoſt perpendicular, a maſs of rock overhangs, and from which ruſhes a conſiderable brook. On the oppoſite part of the landſcape, is ſeen, at the extremity of the mount of the Virgin, an inſolated conical point, called the Monk, from its exact reſemblance to a monk's hood. In the diſtance appear mountains of ſnow and glaciers.

Among the other natural curioſities of this country may be reckoned two wells, one of which ebbs and flows once a day; and another which flows three months, and is dry the other three; and alſo the marcaſites, falſe diamonds, which are pieces of the pureſt cryſtal, and other ſtones, found in the mountains.

Berne, though it holds the ſecond in rank, may be deemed, in power and extent, the firſt canton of Switzerland, as it comprehends about a third of the country, and its population is a fourth of the whole. It is 60 leagues in length. The reformation was introduced here in 1528. The city of Berne, which gives name to the whole canton, and is the capital, is almoſt ſurrounded by the river Aar. The houſes are moſtly built of white free-ſtone, and, in the principal ſtreets, have piazzas, or arches, under them, for the convenience of walking dry in wet weather. Here are a college, public library, muſeum, granary, guild-hall, arſenal, ſeveral hoſpitals, a handſome ſtone bridge, and a platform with a fine proſpect. The city of Berne is ſovereign of the whole canton, and the ſovereignty reſts entirely in the great council, compoſed of 200 counſellors, and 99 aſſeſſors. The ſonale, or little council, compoſed of 27 members, have the executive power.

Lauſanne, capital of the Pais de Vaud, conſiſts of ſteep aſcents and deſcents; at the eaſt ſide is a pleaſant walk, with a beautiful view of the city, and of the country round, which is a delightful variety of hills, vallies, corn-fields, meadows, vineyards, and woods. The great church, ſaid to have been 200 years in building, is a noble Gothic ſtructure.

Bale, the largeſt city in Switzerland. Its environs are beautiful, conſiſting of a fine level track of fields and meadows. The city is divided into two parts by the Rhine, over which there is a handſome bridge. It is fortified with walls, moats, towers, and baſtions, and contains ſeveral churches, beſides the cathedral, which is an elegant Gothic ſtructure; a commandery of the order of St. John, and another of the Teutonic order; a public granary, an arſenal, a ſtately town-houſe, an univerſity, a gymnaſium, a ſtately palace belonging to the margrave of Baden-Dourlach, beſides a chamber of curioſities, ſeveral hoſpitals, &c. In the arſenal is ſhewn the armour in which Charles the Bold loſt his life, with the furniture of his horſe, and the kettle-drums and trumpets of his army. On the ſtair-caſe of the council-houſe is a picture of the Laſt Judgment. Over-againſt the French church, on a long covered wall, is painted the dance of Death. St. Peter's-ſquare, planted with elm and lime trees, forms a pleaſant walk; but a ſpot regularly planted with trees, cloſe by the river, and near the minſter, makes a finer, as commanding a moſt beautiful and extenſive proſpect. The celebrated Eraſmus died here in 1536, in the 70th year of his age, and was buried in the great church. Some of the merchants here are opulent; but the ſumptuary laws are ſtrict, and a ſimplicity of manners ſtill prevails at Baſil. A ſtrange cuſtom prevails here, that the town clocks are always an hour too faſt; ſo that when it is really noon, it is one o'clock at Bale, and ſo on. Several reaſons are aſſigned for this ſingularity; which the magiſtrate cannot yet perſuade the common people to alter. Trade flouriſhes here, eſpecially in ſilk, ribbons, and wines; and the police is under excellent regulations. The two Buxtorffs, father and ſon, and the famous painter Holbein, were natives of this place.

Zurich is far leſs conſiderable than Berne. The ſtreets are neat, and houſes well built, but not magnificent In the arſenal is ſhewn the bow of the famous William Tell, with the croſs-bow from which he ſtruck the apple from his child's head; and in the library is a manuſcript of excellent letters written by the unfortunate lady Jane Gray to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German. This town is is fortified in the modern way, and has wide ditches faced with free-ſtone The ſumptuary laws are obſerved here.

Baden is an ancient town, ſituated on the Limmot; it is famous for its hot-baths: here are ſeveral churches and convents, and a council houſe.

Geneva is pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the river Rhone, juſt where it emerges from the lake. The ſtreets are, in general, wide, clean, and well paved. The houſes are moſtly built of free-ſtone, with lime-ſtone baſements. The Maiſon de Ville, or town-houſe, is a large, plain, ancient building, with great rooms for the council to aſſemble in, and for public entertainments. In one of them there is a weekly concert by ſubſcription, during the winter ſeaſon. There are five churches here, beſides French, Italian, and German chapels. The academy has about 600 ſcholars, and eleven profeſſors. Small medals are annually diſtributed to thoſe who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in each claſs. The public library has near 40,000 volumes of printed books, beſides a good collection of manuſcripts. The citizens have the liberty both of reſorting here, and borrowing books. The arſenal is in good order, and furniſhed with arms for 12,000 men. The hoſpital is a large handſome building. The public founta ns are ſupplied by an hydraulic engine. The fortifications are in the modern ſtile on the ſide of Savoy, but are commanded by ſome of the neighbouring ground. On the ſide of France, they are old faſhioned. They are calculated rather to prevent a ſurpriſe, than to ſuſtain a regular ſiege. They have three gates towards France, Savoy, and Switzerland. All acceſs by the lake is barred by a double jetty and chain. The garriſon conſiſts of 720 men, Swiſs or Germans. The inhabitants are computed at 24,000, chiefly Calviniſts.

The ſovereign power reſides in the general aſſembly of citizens and burgeſſes, who have attained the age of 25 years. The executive power, and adminiſtration of juſtice, are entruſted, 1. to the council of 25, called the ſenate, or little council. 2. The council of 60. 3. The council of 200, comprehending the other two, and conſiſting now of 250 members. The ſupreme magiſtrates are four ſyndics, elected annually by the general aſſembly. Other officers are, 1. The lieutenant, choſen alſo annually. 2. The treaſurer, elected for three years. 3. The procurator-general, alſo for three years. Inferior departments of government and police are managed by committees, called Chambers.

We ſhall here inſert an account of the ſmalleſt republic in Europe. It is the village of Geriſau, which is ſituated on the eaſtern branch of the lake of Schweitz, at the foot of Mount Rigi. Its territory is only ſix miles in length, and three in breadth; ſituated partly on a ſmall neck of land at the edge of the lake, and partly lying upon the rapid declivity of the Rigi. It contains about 1200 inhabitants. They have their general aſſembly of burgeſſes, their landamman, their council of regency, their courts of juſtice, and their militia: but there is not a ſingle horſe in the whole territory of the republic, as indeed may well be ſuppoſed; for the only way of arriving at the town is by water, excepting a narrow path down the ſteep ſides of the mountain, which is almoſt impaſſable. Geriſau is compoſed entirely of ſcattered houſes and cottages, of a very neat and picturesque appearance. Each dwelling

dwelling is provided with a field or ſmall garden. The inhabitants are much employed in preparing ſilk for the manufactures of Baſle. This little republic is under the protection of the four cantons of Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, and Underwaldew; and, in caſe of war, furniſhes its quota of men. To the ambitious politician, who judges of government by extent of dominion and power, ſuch a diminutive republic, thrown into an obſcure corner, and ſcarcely known out of its own contracted territory, muſt appear unworthy of notice; but the ſmalleſt ſpot of earth on which true civil freedom is cultivated and flouriſhes, cannot fail to intereſt thoſe who know the real value of liberty and independence, and are convinced that political happineſs does not conſiſt in great opulence and extenſive empire.

With reſpect to manufactures, the principal are ſnuff and tobacco, linen of ſeveral ſorts, lace, thread, ſilk and worſted ſtockings, neckcloths, cotton ſtuffs, gloves, handkerchiefs, ſilks of ſeveral ſorts, gold and ſilver brocades, a variety of woollen manufactures, hats, paper, leather of all ſorts, earthen wares, porcelain, toys, watches, clocks, and other hardwares, &c. The trade of Switzerland is greatly promoted by many navigable lakes and rivers. In ſome of the above manufactures, and in cheeſe, butter, ſheep, horſes, black cattle, hides, and ſkins, the exports are conſiderable; and as the imports are chiefly grain and ſalt, with ſome American and Aſiatic goods, there is probably a large balance in their favour.

Before we give an account of the government and conſtitution of Switzerland, it may not be amiſs to obſerve in general, that there is no part of Europe which contains, within the ſame extent of territory, ſo many independent commonwealths, and ſuch a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet with ſuch wiſdom was the Helvetic union compoſed, and ſo little have the Swiſs, of late years, been actuated by the ſpirit of conqueſt, that, ſince the firm and complete eſtabliſhment of their general confederacy, they have ſcarcely ever had occaſion to employ their arms againſt a foreign enemy; and have had no hoſtile commotions among themſelves that were not ſoon happily terminated; and, indeed, there is no country in which happineſs and content more univerſally prevail among the people; for, whether the government be ariſtocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general ſpirit of liberty pervades and actuates the ſeveral conſtitutions; ſo that even the oligarchical ſtates, which are uſually the moſt tyrannical, are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the ſubject is ſecurely guarded againſt every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their ſumptuary laws, and equal diviſion of their fortunes among their children, ſeem to inſure its continuance. But, to be more particular reſpecting the nature of the Swiſs conſtitution:

In ſome of the cantons the government is ariſtocratical, and in others democratical. The former are thoſe of Zurich, Berne, Lucerne, Baſil, Friburg, Solothurn, and Schaffhauſen; the other ſix are democratical. In the firſt, both the legiſlative and executive power is lodged in the burghers, or citizens of the capital of each canton; and in the latter the legiſlative power is lodged in the whole body of the people; and every male, above ſixteen, whether maſter or ſervant, has a vote in making laws, and in the choice of magiſtrates.

The thirteen cantons are in fact ſo many independent ſtates, only united by ſtrict alliances for their mutual defence. This confederacy, conſidered as a republic, comprehends three diviſions: firſt, the Switzers, properly ſo called; ſecondly, the Griſons, or the ſtates confederated with the Switzers for their common protection; and, thirdly, thoſe prefectures, which, though ſubject to the other two, by purchaſe or otherwiſe, preſerve each its own particular magiſtrates.

In Switzerland, there are two kinds of diets held; general and partial. The general diet, which repreſents the whole Helvetic body, uſually ſits at Baden, and conſiſts of two deputies from each canton; beſides which, the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and of Bienne, ſend deputies as allies. When any controverſy ariſes that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, where each canton having a vote, every queſtion is decided by the majority. The general diet aſſembles annually an the feaſt of St. John the Baptiſt, and ſeldom ſits longer than a month. The partial or extraordinary diets are ſummoned according to the will of the reſpective ſtates which conſtitute them.

The revenues of the different cantons cannot eaſily be aſcertained, but it is ſuppoſed that thoſe of Berne, which is the largeſt, amount to 300,000 crowns; thoſe of Zurich to 150,000; and thoſe of the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever remains, after the neceſſary expences of government are defrayed, is laid up in the treaſury. The Swiſſes are ſaid be poſſeſſed of 500,000l. ſterling in the Engliſh funds, beſides monies in other banks. Their revenues ariſe chiefly from the profits of the demeſne lands; the tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country, the cuſtoms and duties on merchandize, ſome caſual taxes, and the ſale of ſalt; but this laſt article forms by far the moſt conſiderable part.

The Switzers maintain but few regular troops, and thoſe are employed in the garriſons. Their internal ſtrength (independent of the militia, which is eſteemed the beſt in Europe) conſiſts of 13,400 men, raiſed according to the population and abilities of each canton. Every burgher, peaſant, and ſubject, is obliged to learn the uſe of arms, appear on the days appointed for ſhooting at a mark, furniſh himſelf with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder, and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiſs engage in the ſervice of foreign princes or ſtates, either as guards or in marching regiments. Such powers as are in alliance with the cantons, are, on paying them an annual ſubſidy, allowed to make levies there, when the inhabitants may enliſt with their own conſent, and with the concurrence of the magiſtracy, for what number of years they pleaſe; at the expiration of which they are always at liberty to return home. Thus the ſervice of foreign princes forms a ſchool for the young recruits of Switzerland, where, having perfectly learnt the art of war, they return to their native country able and experienced officers and ſoldiers, or die nobly in endeavouring to obtain thoſe characters in the ſervice.

The coins of Germany, France, and Italy, paſs current in Switzerland, there being none peculiar to the country.

HISTORY OF SWITZERLAND.

The Switzers and Griſons are the deſcendants of the ancient Helvetii, and were reduced under the Roman yoke by Julius Cæſar, who added their country to the province of Gaul. They continued under the Roman government till the time of Honorius and Valentinian II. when their country was conquered by the Burgundians and Germans; but their government was little more than nominal. About the year 635, part of Switzerland was given to Sigebert, count of Hapſburg, the founder of the houſe of Auſtria: and, in the year 1032, the reſt of this country was given by Rodolph, the laſt king of Burgundy, to Conrad II. emperor of Germany; and, from that period, Switzerland was conſidered as part of that empire. This government continued about 300 years, during

which period the Auſtrian governors exerciſed almoſt every ſpecies of oppreſſion.

Wearied with continual acts of injuſtice, the Switzers applied to Albert I. for redreſs; but this petition was ſo far from procuring the removal of their grievances, that their hardſhips were increaſed. Greſler, the Auſtrian governor, exaſperated at their laying their complaints before the emperor, exerted the moſt wanton tyranny. He even placed a hat upon the top of a pole, commanding the Switzers to pay the ſame reſpect to that mock repreſentation of authority, as to himſelf. William Tell, a native of Berne, and one of the beſt markſmen of the age, beheld this inſtance of Greſler's malice with contempt; he paid no regard to the Auſtrian's ridiculous commands, and frequently paſſed the ſpot without taking the leaſt notice of the hat. Exaſperated at the diſobedience of Tell, the tyrant condemned him to ſuffer death, unleſs he cleft an apple placed on his own ſon's head, who ſtood at a certain diſtance, with an arrow. Tell peformed the taſk with amazing dexterity; and Greſler obſerving another arrow ſtuck in his belt, told him, he imagined a ſingle arrow was all he could want on this occaſion. Tell nobly replied, "That arrow was intended to have pierced your heart, had the firſt unfortunately killed my ſon." Provoked at this reply, Greſler ſent Tell to priſon: but the Swiſs eſcaping from his confinement, watched an opportunity, and ſhot the governor. It appears, however, that a plan had been for ſome time concerted by the principal perſons of this diſtreſſed country, for the recovery of their liberty; and this action of Tell haſtened its execution. They defeated the forces of Auſtria and France, an union of the cantons was formed, and they defended the liberty they had obtained with ſo much valour and intrepidity, that by the treaty of Munſter, often called the treaty of Weſtphalia, concluded in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent ſtate.

Their union was effected in the following manner: Zurich, driven by oppreſſion, ſought firſt an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Suiſſe, and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent ſucceſſes of their arms againſt Albert, duke of Auſtria, inſenſibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They firſt conquered Glaſis and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itſelf in 1353; Friburg and Soleure 130 years after; Baſil and Schaffhauſen in 1501; and, in 1513, Appenzal completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till, at the treaty of Weſtphalia in 1648, their mutual alliance was acknowledged as a free and independent ſtate.

Since the year 1707, Neufchatel hath been ſubject to Pruſſia, but the inhabitants are nevertheleſs free to ſerve any prince whatever, and not compellable to take an active part in his wars. The king may recruit among them, and name a governor; but he derives from them a revenue of only 5000l. yearly, great part of which is expended on the roads and other public works.

CHAP. XXV.

SPAIN.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Soil, Animals, Vegetables, Fiſh, Corn, Fruits, Rivers, Bays, People, Learning, Commerce, Religion, Language, Hiſtory.

THIS kingdom, including Portugal, was anciently called Iberia, from the river Iberus; and Heſperia, from its ſituation, being the moſt weſtern part of the continent of Europe. It lies between the 36th and 44th deg. of north lat. and between the 3d of eaſt and 10th deg. of weſt long. Its greateſt length, from eaſt to weſt, is about 700 miles; and its greateſt breadth, from north to ſouth, about 480; being bounded by the Mediterranean on the eaſt; by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt; by the Bay of Biſcay and the Pyrennean-Hills on the north; and by the Streights of Gibraltar on the ſouth.

Spain is now thrown into fourteen grand diviſions, beſides the iſlands belonging to it.

Names of Provinces.	Chief Cities.
Caſtile, New	Madrid.
Andaluſia	Seville.
Caſtile, Old	Burgos.
Arragon	Saragoſſa.
Eſtremadura	Badajos.
Galicia	Compoſtella.
Leon	Leon.
Catalonia	Barcelona.
Granada	Granada.
Valencia	Valencia,
Biſcay and Ipuſcoa	Bilboa.
Aſturia	Oviedo.
Murcia	Murcia.
Upper Navarre	Pampeluna.
Iſlands in the Mediterranean.	
Majorca	Majorca.
Yvica	Yvica.
Minorca	Citadella.

The town and fortreſs of Gibraltar are ſubject to Great-Britain.

The ſubdiviſions of Spain are:

1. *Galicia, Kingdom, N. W.*

Archbiſhopric of Compoſtella; chief town Compoſtella.

Biſhoprics of Mondonedo, chief town Mondonedo; Lugo, chief town Lugo; Ortenſe, chief town Ortenſe.

Territory of Tuy, chief town Tuy.

Other conſiderable towns in this province are, Corunna, Ferrol, Vigo, Betawzes, and Rivadavia.

2. *Aſturia, Principality, N.*

Principality of Aſturia de Oviedo, chief town Oviedo; Aſturia de Santillana; chief town Santillana.

Other conſiderable towns in this province are, Avilles and St. Vincent.

3. *Biſcay, Lordſhip, N. W.*

Biſcay Proper, chief town Bilboa; Guipuſco, chief town Tholoſa; Alva, chief town Vittoria.

Other conſiderable towns in this province are, Fontarabia, St. Andrew, Lacedo, Ordunna, and Placentia.

4. *Navarre, Kingdom, N.*

Majorſhips of Pampeluna, chief town Pampeluna; Olita, chief town Olita, Tudela, chief town Tudela; Eſtella, chief town Eſtella; Sangueſa, chief town Sangueſa.

5. *Arragon, Kingdom, E.*

Archbiſhopric of Saragoſſa, chief town Saragoſſa.

Biſhoprics of Jaca, chief town Jaca; Hueſca, chief town Hueſca; Balbeſtro, chief town Balbeſtro; Taracona, chief town Taracona; Albaraſin, chief town Albaraſin; Teruel, chief town Teruel; Sobarbe, chief town Ainſa.

Other conſiderable towns in this province are, Calataiud, and Boria.

6. *Catalonia, Principality, E.*

Diſtricts of Barcelona, chief town Barcelona; Urgel, chief town Urgel; Balaguer, chief town Balaguer;

guer; Lerida, chief town Lerida; Tortoſa, chief town Tortoſa; Girona, chief town Girona; Tarragona, chief town Tarragona; Lampredun, chief town Roſes; Vich, chief town Vich; Cardonna, chief town Cardonna; Solſonna, chief town Solſonna; Puycerda, chief town Puycerda.

Maureſa, is another conſiderable town in this province.

7. *Valencia, Kingdom, S. E.*

Diſtricts of Xucar, chief town Valencia; Millaros, chief town Villa Hermoſa; Segura, chief town Origuela.

Other principal towns in this province are, Segorbe, Xativa, Alicant, Denia, Gandia, Morviedro, Villareal, Alzira, Altea.

8. *Murcia, Kingdom, S.*

Diſtricts of Murcia Proper, chief town Murcia: Lerea, chief town Lerea; Carthagena, chief town Carthagena.

Caravaca Mula are the other conſiderable towns in this province.

9. *Granada, Kingdom, S.*

Archbiſhopric of Granada, chief town Granada; Malaga, chief town Malaga; Almeria, chief town Almeria, Guadix, chief town Guadix.

Other conſiderable towns in this province are, Renda, Antiquera, Braga, and Loya.

10. *Andaluſia, Province, S. W.*

Archbiſhopric of Seville, chief town Seville.

Biſhoprics of Jaen, chief town Jaen; Corduba, chief town Corduba.

Duchy of Medina Sidonia, chief town Medina Sidonia.

Other conſiderable towns in this province are, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Port St. Mary, Ezeja, Baeza, Oſſuna, St. Lucar, Anduxar, Carmona, Alcalareal, Luena, Arcos, Marchena, Ayamont, Ubeda, and Moguer.

11. *Old Caſtile Province, near the Middle.*

Burgos, chief town Burgos; Rioxa, chief town Rioxa; Calahorra, chief town Calahorra; Soria, chief town Soria; Oſma, chief town Oſma; Valladolid, chief town Valladolid; Segovia, chief town Segovia; Avila, chief town Avila; Siguenſa, chief town Siguenſa.

The other conſiderable towns in this province are, Roa, Aranda, Calzada, Negera, and St. Domingo.

12. *New Caſtile, in the Middle.*

N. of the Tajo, chief town Madrid; Upon the Tajo, chief town Toledo; E. of Toledo, chief town Cuenca; On the Guadiana, chief town Cividad Real; E. of Madrid, chief town Alcalade Henarez; Frontiers of Valencia, chief town Almanza; N. W. of Madrid, chief town Eſcurial; N. E. of Madrid, chief towns Guadalaxara, Brihuega; La Moucha, S. La Sierra, E. On the Guadiana, chief town Calatrava; Frontiers of Valencia, chief town Villena Requena.

13. *Leon, Kingdom, N. E.*

North of Douro, chief towns, Leon, Palencia or Placentia, Toro, Zamora, Aſtorga.

South of Douro, chief towns Salamanca, Alva, Cividad Rodrigo.

14. *Eſtremadura, Province, S. W.*

On the Guadina, chief towns Merida, Badajox; North of the Tago, chief towns Placenia, Coria.

Between the Tajo and Guadina, chief town Truxillo; South of the Guadina, chief town Lerena, or Ellerena; on the Tajo, chief town Alcantara; on the Guadina, chief town Medelin.

Spaniſh Iſlands, E.

Majorco, chief town Majorca; Minorca, chief towns Citadella, Port Mahon; Yvica, chief town Yvica.

The climate and air of Spain vary greatly in different parts. In the ſouth, the heat is exceſſive during the months of June, July, and Auguſt, and would be almoſt inſupportable, were it not for the cool breezes which blow off the mountains, but the remainder of the year is delightful and temperate. In the north, and near the ſea-coaſt, the air in ſummer is much leſs ſultry, and in winter very cold. If the natural luxury of the ſoil in Spain was ſeconded by the induſtry of her inhabitants, it would be the moſt fruitful country in Europe. In many places it produces fruit almoſt ſpontaneouſly, and formerly vaſt quantities of corn grew there, but at preſent there is a great ſcarcity of it, entirely owing to the want of tillage, and not, as ſome have aſſerted, to the barrenneſs of the ſoil: for excepting ſome ſandy deſerts in the ſouth, and the mountains in the north, it is exceeding rich, particularly in the plains and vallies; and were it not for the generous qualities of the ſoil, the vaſt number of inhabitants in this country, who neither toil nor ſpin for their food, could never be maintained.

The Spaniſh wheat is eſteemed the fineſt in Europe; barley is produced there in great quantities, and very good: it is the common food for the horſes and mules, oats and hay being very ſcarce in that kingdom, and there is not much flax or hemp. Beſides the fruits which are produced in England, Spain yields citrons, lemons, oranges, almonds, raiſins, prunes, olives, dates, figs, cheſnuts, pomegranates, and capers. Valencia is famous for the growth of lemons; and in the kingdom of Arragon, the trees bear fruit three, and ſometimes four times in a year. Grapes are cultivated in moſt parts with the greateſt ſucceſs, and produce ſome exceeding rich wines, among which are ſack and ſherry. Dr. Buſchin ſays, that the inhabitants of Malaga, and the neighbouring country, export wines and raiſins to the amount of 268,759l. ſterling annually. Sugar-canes and ſaffron are cultivated in Granada; and the kingdom of Murcia abounds in mulberry-trees, for the ſuſtenance of its ſilk-worms, which are ſaid to produce 200,000l. worth of raw ſilk every year. The mountainous parts yield prodigious quantities of wild thyme, marjoram, and other aromatic herbs, which renders the taſte of their kids and ſheep, that feed on them, of a moſt delicate flavour. Villa Franca produces the herb eſcurzonera, eſteemed by the Spaniards an antidote againſt all ſorts of poiſons, and a certain cure in the plague: likewiſe the herb euſtracia, which being ſoaked in warm wine, and the eyes waſhed with it, is very beneficial to the ſight. Great quantities of the plant eſparto are found on the rocky lands, of which they make ropes and other cordage; and upon the banks of the river Guadina, there grows a very extraordinary ſhrub called the laurel-roſe, from the reſemblance which the flowers bear to a roſe, but the leaves are of ſuch a quality, that all animals die who happen to feed on them.

Spain is much infeſted with locuſts: in 1754, La Mancha was covered with them, and the horrors of famine attacked the fruitful provinces of Andaluſia, Murcia, and Valencia. They have ſometimes appeared in the air in ſuch numbers as to darken the ſky; the clear atmoſphere of Spain has become gloomy; and the fineſt ſummer day of Eſtremadura has been rendered more diſmal than the winter of Holland. Their ſenſe of ſmelling is ſo delicate, that they can ſcent a corn-field or garden at a great diſtance, and which they will ravage almoſt in an inſtant.

Spain is remarkable for a very fine breed of horſes, and thoſe of Andaluſia are eſteemed the handſomeſt in Europe, and at the ſame time exceeding fleet and ſtrong. The Spaniſh mules are very ſerviceable, and the

the aſſes of a prodigious ſize. The wild bulls of this kingdom have long been famous for their fierceneſs, and are chiefly bred in Andaluſia. Chamois and other goats are found in Spain, as are ſtags, many ſpecies of deer, and vaſt quantities of game, but the only beaſts of prey there are wolves. Here are great numbers of black cattle and ſheep, the latter of which produce the fineſt wool in the world. The number of ſhepherds in Spain are computed to be about 40,000, who move regularly with their flocks every ſummer from ſouth to north, along the mountains, which yield a great variety of ſweet herbs and plants, and return again towards the winter. During this progreſs, large quantities of ſalt are diſtributed among the ſheep, and all poſſible care is taken both of their health and fleeces.

Moſt of the feathered race in Spain are birds of paſſage, but two of them are worthy deſcription, viz. the flamencoes, and the ſea-cock. The firſt is about the ſize of a ſtork, but in its form ſeems a compound of the duck and the ſwan; the body is white, and the wings are ſpotted with a beautiful ſcarlet. The colour of the ſea-cock is blue, or ſcarlet and blue, extremely brilliant, with ſcarlet creſts and feet; they fly very ſlow, are good to eat, and, if taken young, may be brought up tame. The tame fowl are of various kinds, and very fine: and at Gorga there is a particular breed of hens of a prodigious ſize.

Fiſh of all kinds, particularly anchovies, is very plenty in the ſeas; there are alſo great quantities in many of their lakes and rivers; and the port of Carthagena, with ſome adjacent places, are noted for large ſhoals of herrings.

Many ſalutiferous ſprings are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. All the waters in Spain are poſſeſſed of ſuch healing qualities, that they are outdone by thoſe of no country in Europe; and by incloſing and encouraging a reſort to them, they grow every day more and more in vogue, eſpecially at Alhamar in Granada. The medicinal-waters of Spain are little known.

It would be almoſt impoſſible to particularize all the mountains in Spain, the whole country being interſected by them. The principal, and the higheſt, are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the Bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. The Aſturian and Biſcayan mountains are a conſiderable chain, which branch out from the Pyrenees, and, running weſtward, form the ſouthern boundary of Biſcay and Aſturias. Near Gibraltar is ſituated the famous mount Calpe, oppoſite to mount Abyla, in Africa: theſe two mountains were called Hercules' Pillars by the ancients. Among the mountains of Spain, Montſerrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller, being one of the moſt ſingular in the world for ſituation, ſhape, and compoſition. It ſtands in a vaſt plain, about 30 miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. When this mountain is firſt ſeen at a diſtance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, or like a pile of grotto-work, or Gothic ſpires. Upon a nearer view, each cove appears of itſelf a mountain, and the whole compoſes an enormous maſs about 14 miles in circumference: the Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height, but Mr. Swinburne eſtimates its height at only 3,300 feet. This wonderful mountain appears, at a diſtant view, to be the work of man; but on a nearer approach, the obſerver is convinced that it is the production of the God of nature.

The principal rivers in Spain are, the Ebro, the ancient Aberus; the Douro, formerly Durius; the Turo, formerly Guadalaviar; the Guadiana, formerly the Anas; the Tajo, the ancient Tagus; and the Bœtis. Here is alſo the famous river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary: it riſes in Sierra Morena, and has the name of Tinto given it from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening and putrifying the ſand, in a moſt ſurpriſing manner. If a ſtone happens to fall in, and reſts upon another, they both become in a year perfectly conglutinated and united. This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dyes of the ſame hue as the waters. No kind of verdure will ſpring up where it reaches, nor any fiſh live in its ſtream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but no animals will drink out of the river, excepting goats, whoſe fleſh has nevertheleſs an excellent flavour. Theſe ſingular properties continue till other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature; for when it paſſes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean ſea, ſix leagues lower down, near Huelva.

The chief lakes are, 1. Bonaventa, which runs in the middle with ſuch violence, that waves riſe like thoſe in the ſea; it abounds with fiſh, particularly excellent trout. 2. A lake on the top of the Pyrenees, of vaſt depth: it is aſſerted, that a ſtone flung into it, cauſes a prodigious vapour. 3. A lake near Antiquera, the waters of which are by the heat of the ſun made into ſalt.

There are many bays belonging to this country, the chief of which are Biſcay, Ferrol, Corunna, (commonly called the Groyne) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagena, Alicant, Altea, Valencia, Roſes, Majorca, and Port Mahon in Minorca.

There were formerly mines of gold and ſilver in this kingdom, and the latter in ſuch plenty, that Strabo obſerves, when the Carthagenians took poſſeſſion of Spain, they found the domeſtic and agricultural utenſils of that metal. There is no doubt, but that theſe mines are ſtill in the country, but they have been entirely neglected ſince the Spaniards have been able to draw ſuch immenſe quantities from America. Here are mines of lead, copper, and iron, the beſt of which is dug from the mountains of Biſcay, and ſent all over Europe, as exceeding any other in goodneſs. Here is alſo great plenty of ſulphur, alum, calamine, vermillion, and quickſilver, of which they ſend large quantities to the Weſt Indies. Near the town of Cardona are mines of ſalt of various colours, which the inhabitants term foſſile ſalt: it is dug out like ſtones, and grows very faſt. At Antiquera, in the dioceſe of Malaga, are excellent ſalt-pits, and the water that runs from them is evaporated into ſalt, by the heat of the ſun. Santa Maria, in the province of Andaluſia, and Mengravica, are likewiſe famous for their mines of white ſalt. Many places in Spain are noted for beautiful marble, alabaſter, granate, cryſtal, jaſper, jet, agate, cornelian, and other ſtones.

The number of inhabitants in Spain has been computed, by one of their own writers, at 9,250,000.—This kingdom was formerly one of the moſt populous in Europe, but has never recovered the blow given to it by the expulſion of the Moors, who, from motives of religion, were baniſhed to the amount of 100,000. Other great cauſes of this depopulation are the great drains of people ſent to America; the indolence of the natives, who do not provide food for their families; and the prodigious numbers of both ſexes, who live in a ſtate of religious celibacy; to which may likewiſe be added, the natural ſterility of the women.

In their perſons, the Spaniards are of a middle ſtature, rather lean, but well made, of an olive complexion, with black gloſſy hair, fine eyes, and expreſſive countenances. They have a natural gravity in their air, great coldneſs and reſerve in their deportment, and are far from being communicative to ſtrangers; but when once they are thoroughly acquainted, and have contracted an intimacy, they are converſable, ſocial, and friendly. They have great probity

probity and integrity of principle, and poſſeſs the higheſt notions of honour, even to exceſs, which is a ſtill viſible effect of their ancient love of chivalry, and was the animating ſpirit of that enthuſiaſm. They perſevere with great fidelity and zeal in their friendſhips; but are warm, vindictive, and implacable in their reſentments. They are generous, liberal, magnificent, charitable, and religious; but their devotion too frequently degenerates into ſuperſtition.

The predominant foible of the people is pride, which at different periods has led them to form the wildeſt chimeras; ſuch as, that the ſun only roſe and ſet in their dominions; that their language was the only one fit to addreſs the Almighty in; that they were the peculiar favourites of heaven; and that wiſdom, glory, power, riches, and dominion, were their ſole monopoly. Though theſe lofty conceits are at preſent in ſome meaſure eradicated, it is owing to them that they are ſtill poſſeſſed with the higheſt notions of nobility, family, and blood; for the mountaineer of Aſturias, though a peaſant, will plume himſelf as much upon his genealogy and deſcent, as the firſt grandee; and the Caſtilian, with his coat-armour, looks upon the Galician with ſovereign contempt. This pride, however ridiculous in itſelf, is certainly productive of the moſt exalted qualities: for it inſpires the poſſeſſors with generous, humane, and virtuous ſentiments; and that a Spaniſh nobleman, gentleman, or trader, has been guilty of a mean action, is a thing ſeldom known. This, however, is not to be underſtood of the people that live on the coaſts, who too often partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in the refuſe of other nations: for in theſe places there is an aſſemblage of French, Ruſſians, Iriſh adventurers, and Engliſh ſmugglers, who being unable to live in their reſpective countries, mingle with the Spaniards, where they engage in all illicit practices, or enter into the Iriſh and Walloon guards in the Spaniſh ſervice; and, during a war, many of them follow privateering with great ſucceſs.

The Spaniards take great delight in the profeſſion of arms, and to this darling paſſion, commerce, manufactures, and agriculture, have been always ſacrificed. They bear all hardſhips with the moſt unremitting patience, and can endure heat, cold, and even hunger, with ſome degree of chearfulneſs. They have courage and conſtancy for the moſt hazardous undertakings, and though naturally ſlow, yet, when once put in action, purſue their object with great warmth and perſeverance; and as the inhabitants of ſeveral of the provinces, particularly Galicia, Granada, and Andaluſia, have thrown aſide their indolence, and employed themſelves aſſiduouſly in agriculture and manufactures, it is to be hoped their example will be followed by all their countrymen; as induſtry is the only thing wanting to render Spain the moſt fruitful and opulent kingdom in Europe. The Spaniards have a natural turn for politics, ſtudy, and thoroughly underſtand the natural intereſts of their own country; and even the common peaſants will ſometimes make reflections on public tranſactions, which would have done honour to a ſenator.

The Spaniſh ladies are in general exceedingly handſome, but are more famed for their wit, vivacity, and politeneſs, than for their beauty. They are ſmall and ſlender in their perſons, on which they beſtow a profuſion of art, not only painting their faces, but likewiſe their necks, arms, and hands; and there is not a defect in nature, which they have not the ſecret of hiding, or at leaſt of palliating; but theſe artifices ſhrivel their ſkin, and give them the appearance of old age long before they have attained it. The paſſion of jealouſy, for which the men of this nation were formerly ſo remarkable, ſeems to be totally eradicated, or at leaſt confined to very narrow bounds; for every married lady has her profeſſed lover, who attends her with impunity.

The Spaniards formerly wore black cloaks, ſhort jerkins, ſtraight breeches, long Toledo ſwords, and muſtachoes; but this dreſs is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks, that of the French court being introduced among the nobility, &c. They are very abſtemious in eating and drinking; and their breakfaſt, which is uſually chocolate, they frequently take in bed. Their dinners generally conſiſt of beef, mutton, veal, pork, bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together; and they are very fond of garlic, chives, ſalads, and radiſhes. The men drink very little wine, and the women uſe water, or chocolate. They always take their ſieſto, or afternoon's ſleep.

In this nation gallantry is a ruling paſſion, and they omit no expence in the gratification of it. A lover will frequently paſs the night under the windows of his miſtreſs, ſerenading her with the fineſt muſic in Spain; and to this paſſion may be attributed the amazing courage and agility which they exhibit at their bull-feaſts, where the ladies are always preſent, and by their looks animate their admirers to the moſt deſperate acts of valour. This diverſion, which is of Mooriſh original, is attended with infinite danger to the cavalier, who always attacks the bull on horſeback, with a lance, and endeavours to ſubdue him; but if the animal defends himſelf ſo long that the ſpectators are tired, they bait him with dogs, and ham-ſtring him. The dexterity with which the combatants manage their horſes and arms is incredible, keeping ſometimes a whole hour within a foot of the beaſt, without being touched; but if the bull inſults him, by forcing his lance out of his hand, throwing off his hat, wounding his horſe, or any of the company, he is obliged, by the rules of honour, to wound the beaſt in return, or die in the attempt, which is too often the caſe; for if his horſe, terrified at the bull, refuſes to advance, he muſt quit him, and engage on foot, in which ſituation he is ſtill more expoſed to the fury of the animal. If he is happy enough to come off conqueror, he receives the loudeſt acclamations of applauſe, and ſometimes a reward from the hands of his favourite lady. The bulls uſed on theſe occaſions are the wild ones, already mentioned to be bred in Andaluſia, and kept for ſome time in ſtables, and fed for this purpoſe.

A very favourite diverſion in Spain is dancing, from which even old age is not exempted; for it is no uncommon thing to ſee the grandmother, mother, and daughter, join in the ſame dance: but the continual round is commonly maſs in the morning, dinner at noon, and an airing in the evening. When they take theſe airings on gala or court days, all their attendants are dreſſed in laced liveries, with plumes of feathers in their hats. The number of ſervants kept by the grandees and perſons of the firſt faſhion in Spain, almoſt exceed credibility, for it is aſſerted, that they ſometimes amount to four hundred. The theatrical diverſions of this kingdom are very poor and inſipid. The prompter is placed underneath the ſtage, with his head peeping through a trap-toor, and he always performs his office loud enough to be heard by the audience. Their tragedies are for the moſt part ridiculous bombaſt, and the comedies are a jumble of religion and buffoonery, mingled together in a moſt whimſical inconſiſtent manner.

It is pretended by the Spaniards, that Chriſtianity was introduced into their country by St. James the apoſtle, four years after the death of our Saviour; and that St. Paul preached there in perſon. Admitting theſe aſſertions to be true, they have been ſo much the longer degenerating from the tenets delivered to them by thoſe great pillars of the primitive church; and at this time, the religion is that of Rome. It is computed, that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 ſecular clergy, but as to real devotion and morality, they are no where

leſs found than in Spain; ridiculous pomp and farcical parade having been long ſince ſubſtituted in its place. The churches are magnificently decorated, and, though the reſt of the nation is poor, the clergy are immenſely rich. Their avarice, which is inſatiable, is gratified by every indulgence that could be granted them; their eſtates are exempt from all public burdens, and their commerce, which is very conſiderable, is free from all duties and impoſts.

Before we conclude this article reſpecting the people of Spain, it may be proper to take notice of an agreeable piece of intelligence received in Nov. 1793, from one of their ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies; which is thus expreſſed:

"The following regulations have been recently adopted by the Spaniards at the Havannah, and other places, for the gradual enfranchiſement of ſlaves:

"As ſoon as the ſlaves is landed, his name, age, price, &c. are inſerted in a public regiſter; and the maſter is obliged by law to allow him one working-day in every week to himſelf, beſides Sunday; ſo that if the ſlave chooſes to work for his maſter on that day, he receives the wages of a freeman for it; and whatever he gains by his labour on that day is ſo ſecured to him by law, that the maſter cannot deprive him of it.

"When the ſlave is able to purchaſe another working-day, the maſter is obliged to ſell it to him at a proportionable price, namely, one fifth part of his original coſt, and ſo likewiſe the remaining four days at the ſame rate, when the black is able to redeem them; after which he is to be abſolutely free."

There are eight archbiſhoprics in Spain, viz. Toledo, Burgos, Compoſtella, Granada, Seville, Saragoſſa, Tarragoua, and Valencia. Toledo has eight ſuffragan biſhops; Burgos, four; Compoſtella, fourteen; Grenada, two; Seville, two, and the Canary iſlands; Saragoſſa, ſix; Tarragona, ſeven; and Valencia, two. The archbiſhop of Toledo is ſtyled the primate of Spain, is great chancellor of Caſtile, and hath a revenue of 100,000l. ſterling per ann. but the Spaniſh court has now leſſened the revenues of the church, by taxing them with penſions, donations to hoſpitals, premiums to ſocieties of agriculture, &c.

The language of the Spaniards, like that of the Italians, is a corruption of the Latin, to which it very nearly approaches; but it is mixed with Arabic words and terminations introduced by the Goths and Moors. In ſome provinces they uſe a dialect of the old French or Gaſcon; and in Biſcay, the language is ſaid to be a dialect of the Gothic or Celtic, and to have ſome analogy with the Welſh and Iriſh. The Spaniſh language, however, has nearly retained its purity for upwards of 200 years, and is at preſent moſt majeſtic and expreſſive: it has been obſerved, that foreigners, who underſtand it the leaſt, prize it the moſt; though it makes but a poor figure even in the beſt tranſlations. Its affinity to the Latin may be ſeen by the following ſpecimen of the Lord's prayer: Padre nueſtro, que eſtas en el cielo, ſanctificado ſe el tu nombre; venga a nos al tu reyna; hageſe tu voluntad, aſſien la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nueſtro de cada dia da nos le oy; y perdona nos nueſtras deudas paſſi como nos otros pardonamos a nueſtros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le reyno, y la potencia, y la gloria, per los ſiglos. Amen."

Bigotry and indolence have been very prejudicial to the Spaniards, not only in religion, but in the arts and ſciences, and have greatly retarded their improvement in literature; for to theſe only can be attributed the few learned men ſo extenſive a kingdom has produced; eſpecially as the Spaniards in general are poſſeſſed of excellent natural capacities. Among the men of literature, natives of Spain, the following are the principal: Iſidore, biſhop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Calderoni and Lopez de Vega, dramatic writers. Herrera, and de Solis, hiſtorians and antiquarians. Toſtatus a divine, whoſe works are exceeding voluminous, and have long been neglected: and that excellent ſatiriſt, Cervantes, who, by his Don Quixote, in a great degree, eradicated the ridiculous ſpirit of knight-errantry out of his country. The author of this moral and humourous ſatire was born at Madrid in 1549, liſted in a ſtation little ſuperior to that of a common ſoldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he loſt his left hand. Quevedo, as a poet, excelled both in the ſerious and burleſque ſtyle, and was happy in a turn of humour ſimilar to that which we admire in Butler and Swift: beſides his merit as a poet, he was well verſed in the oriental languages, and poſſed great erudition. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570. The Saracens introduced oriental poetry into Spain at a very early period; and the Spaniſh Jews afterwards made a conſiderable figure in literature; particularly in 967, Rabbi Moſes, and Rabbi Enoch, his ſon; likewiſe Rabbi Ezekias, who was put to death at Babylon in 1039. To theſe Jews the Spaniards are indebted for a curious verſion of the Hebrew books of the Old Teſtament, printed at Ferrara, in 1553, in a Gothic Spaniſh letter.

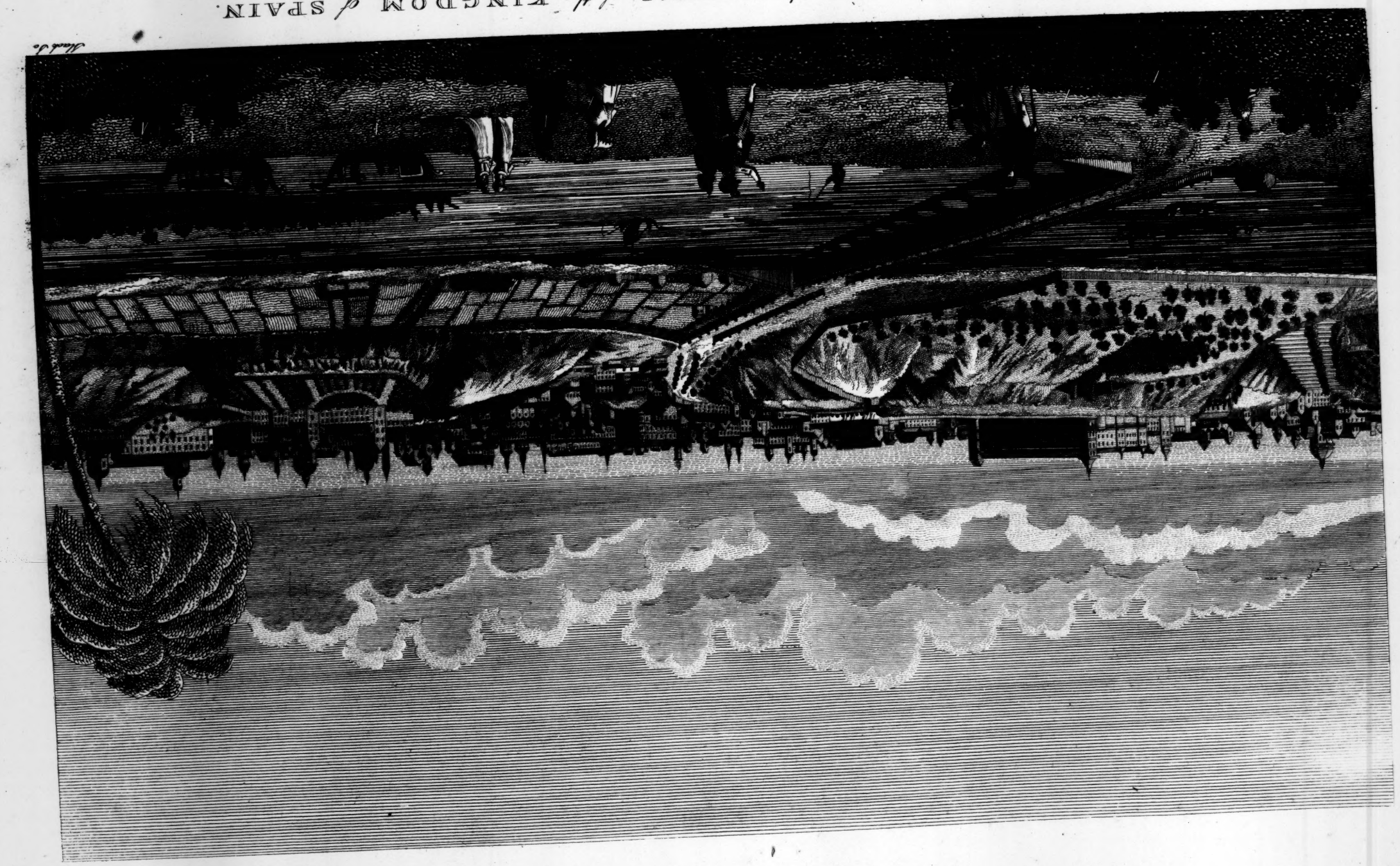
The palaces, particularly the Eſcurial, and other public buildings, do honour to the Spaniards as architects and ſculptors. Murillo has diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his paintings; and here are others that excel in the polite arts, whoſe names have not reached this part of Europe.

In Spain there are twenty-four univerſities, of which the chief is that of Salamanca, founded by Alphonſus IX. king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains twenty-one colleges, moſt of which are well endowed, and very magnificent, particularly the public ſchools. In Marineus's time this univerſity was ſuppoſed to have 7000 ſtudents, and always maintained 75 profeſſors, who have noble ſalaries. Moſt of the noblemen in Spain ſend their ſons to be educated at this univerſity. The other 23 are thoſe of Seville, Granada, Compoſtella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Hueſca, Saragoſſa, Tortoſa, Oſſuna, Onata, Gandia, Barcelona, Murcia, Tarragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

The principal cities and towns, &c. in Spain are the following:

Madrid, the capital of this kingdom, is ſituated in the centre of a large plain, on the banks of the little river Manzanares, ſurrounded with mountains, and in the heart of Spain. The ſtreets are wide, ſtraight, and handſome; the houſes in general are lofty, and built with brick; but the windows are of lattice, except thoſe of the nobility, which are of glaſs. The royal palace ſtands on an eminence, on the weſt ſide of the city, it is a ſpacious magnificent ſtructure, conſiſting of three courts, and commands a very fine proſpect. Beſides this, there are ſeveral noble palaces. Madrid alſo contains a great number of churches, convents, and hoſpitals: among the laſt is one open for patients of all nations and diſtempers, ſupported by a large revenue. Here are three royal academies, one for the improvement of the Spaniſh language, another for hiſtory, and another for medicine. There are two ſtately bridges over the Manzanares; and round the Placa-mayor, or grand ſquare, are piazzas, with houſes all uniform, and a continued line of balconies, for viewing the bull-fights and other public ſhews exhibited there. At the eaſt end of the city is the Strado, a delightful plain, planted with regular rows of poplar trees, and watered with a great many fountains; here the nobility and gentry take the air on horſeback, or in their coaches, and the common people on foot. The compaſs of the whole city is computed at about nine miles, and contains about 200,000 inhabitants. It is well ſupplied with proviſions of all kinds, at reaſonable rates; and the court, with the reſidence of the quality, and the high colleges

A View of MADRID the CAPITAL of the KINGDOM of SPAIN.



colleges and offices that are kept there, occaſion a briſk trade.

The environs are very pleaſant, and contain ſeveral royal ſeats, among which, the moſt magnificent is the Eſcurial, which takes its name from a village in the neighbourhood, above 22 miles north-weſt from Madrid. It is a ſpacious ſtructure, built of curious white ſpeckled ſtone, with ornaments of various ſorts of marble, jaſper, &c. It is ſaid to have about 11,000 windows, and contains, beſides the royal appartments and offices, a moſt ſplendid church, in which are forty chapels, and as many altars, exceedingly rich; a convent of Jeromites, a college, ſeveral hoſpitals or infirmaries, and a noble library, containing a large and choice collection of books in all languages and faculties. Here is likewiſe the burial-place of the kings and queens of Spain, called the Pantheon. In ſhort, the whole forms ſo amazing an edifice, that it reſembles more a town than a palace. The apartments are decorated with an aſtoniſhing variety of paintings, ſculpture, tapeſtry, ornaments of gold and ſilver, marble, jaſper, gems, and other curious ſtones, ſurpaſſing all imagination. Aranjuez, which is ſituated on the Tagus, about thirty miles ſouth of Madrid, is another royal palace, which is greatly admired, particularly for its noble gardens and ſurpriſing water-works.

Toledo is ſituated on the Tagus, about 36 miles ſouth of Madrid. It is an ancient, large, and well-fortified city. Here are many ſtately edifices, ſquares, convents, churches, and hoſpitals: the cathedral is a noble ſtructure, built of a beautiful white ſtone, enriched with ſculpture; the roof of it is ſupported by eighty-eight ſtately columns, and it has eight large beautiful gates of braſs, with above thirty chapels, ſome of them large enough to paſs for churches. The treaſure of this cathedral is of ineſtimable value, and the annual revenue of about one hundred thouſand ducats. The juriſdiction, power, and grandeur of this ſee, is inferior only to that of Rome. Here is alſo an univerſity, a royal palace, and a court of inquiſition. There are three noble bridges over the river; and without the walls, on the north ſide, are ſtill to be ſeen the ruins of a Roman amphitheatre; and under the city is a large common-ſewer, which is alſo ſaid to be a Roman work.

Seville, the capital, ſituated on the river Guadalquiver, 200 miles ſouth-weſt from Madrid, was anciently the capital of Bœtia; and from Julius Cæſar, who beautified and enlarged it, was called Julia Romula; but ſubſequent to this, it was the reſidence of ſeveral Gothic and Mooriſh kings. There is a bridge of boats here over the river Guadalquiver, which is navigable for large veſſels 40 miles from its mouth. The compaſs of the city walls is eight miles, and the number of its inhabitants is computed at about 120,000. It contains a great number of convents, churches, ſquares, hoſpitals, a mint, an exchange, a cuſtom-houſe, an univerſity, and a cathedral, the largeſt and fineſt in Spain. The archbiſhop has a very large income. Here are many ſecular and eccleſiaſtical courts, particularly a court of inquiſition. This city carries on a great trade, and has various manufactories. Along the river are a great many commodious quays; near which is alſo a ſtately tower, called the Golden Tower, which entirely commands the river, city, and ſuburbs. The court for the regulation of every thing relating to the Weſt-India trade and company is held here. The adjacent country is very fruitful and pleaſant, and particularly noted for fine oranges. The greateſt inconvenience to which the city is expoſed is the overflowing of the river, which ſometimes makes dreadful havock. There is a Mooriſh aqueduct in the neighbourhood worth ſeeing.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three hills and two vallies, and on every ſide ſurrounded with proſpects of fine houſes, noble ſeats, gardens, orchards, fields, and diſtant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. There are ten gates to this city, and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the ſame number of nunneries. The moſt beautiful part of this city is the great ſquare, built about forty years ago. The houſes are of three ſtories, and all of equal height and exact ſymmetry, with iron balconies, and a ſtone baluſtrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the ſquare, which extends two hundred and ninety-three feet on each ſide. Over ſome of the arches are medallions, with buſts of the kings of Spain, and of ſeveral eminent men, in ſtone baſſo relievo, among which are thoſe of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this ſquare the bull-fights are exhibited, for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by the city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Cadiz, which is ſuppoſed to have been built by the Tyrians, ſtands on an iſland, and is joined to the main land by means of the bridge Suaco, which is defended at both ends by redoubts, and other works thrown up of earth. The iſland, from Fort St. Catalina to the iſland of St. Pedro, is five miles long, and from the ſouth point near the latter to the north point, juſt by the above-mentioned bridge, almoſt two miles broad. Moſt of the ſtreets are narrow, crooked, indifferently paved, and dirty. The houſes are in general four ſtories high, handſomely built, and have each a quadrangular area. This city is computed to contain about 5000 houſes, one pariſh church, twelve convents, and a Jeſuits college, ſuppoſed, at the time it was inhabited by that order, to be the fineſt in all Andaluſia. The population is eſtimated at upwards of 100,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and as many Italians. Here is the royal audience of the Indies, or the Indian board of trade, which was formerly held at Seville. The adjacent country is extremely rural and pleaſant.

The harbour and bay of Cadiz are very fine and ſpacious: the entrance is defended by Fort Matagorda, and Fort Pontal, the latter of which is ſituated oppoſite to it, upon a point of the neck of land on which the city is built. The entrance into the harbour is about five hundred fathoms broad, and the harbour itſelf about ten leagues in circuit, but, at ebb tide, great part of it lies dry. The only ſafe landing-place is on the ſouth-weſt ſide, which is defended by a ſmall fort called St. Catalina. The number of foreigners in Cadiz are ſaid to amount to 50,000, who reſide there for the ſake of trade, and its common inhabitants are computed at 40,000.

Barcelona is ſituated on the Mediterranean, between the rivers Llobregat and Beſos, at the foot of the mountain Monjouy, on which are ſeveral forts, commanding the town and harbour. The city itſelf is well fortified, the ſtreets ſpacious, in which are 15,000 houſes, beſides churches, colleges, hoſpitals, fountains, gardens, convents, an univerſity, an academy of arts and ſciences, founded in 1752, a court of inquiſition, and the court of royal audience for Catalonia. The cathedral is a large and magnificent edifice, and there are a number of antiquities about the town, which prove it to have been a conſiderable place in the time of the Romans, when it was called Faventia. This city was formerly the reſidence of ſeveral Gothic kings, and was afterwards ſubject for a long time to counts of its own. It carries on a conſiderable trade, and the country around is very fertile and delightful. The number of inhabitants is ſuppoſed to be nearly 150,000.

Valencia, 180 miles ſouth-eaſt from Madrid, is ſituated on, and has five bridges over the Guadalquiver. It is a large, handſome, populous, trading city, and has a port within two miles of it. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, whoſe income amounts to 40,000l. ſterling a year, and contains a tribunal or inquiſition, a ſovereign court of judicature, an univerſity,

ſity, and a flouriſhing woollen manufactory. Prieſts, nuns, and friars, of every garb, ſwarm in this city, whoſe inhabitants are reckoned to be 80,000.

Carthagena is a famed ſea-port in the province of Murica, in Spain, on the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the river Guadalentin, near Cape Palos, and about one hundred and eighty miles ſouth-weſt from Madrid. Its harbour is defended by forty pieces of cannon; being one of the fineſt ports in the Mediterranean, and one of the three royal marine departments; the other two are Cadiz and Ferrol. It is a city, and the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toledo, and has a revenue of twenty-four thouſand ducats per annum.

Carthagena is a large city, but has few good ſtreets, and ſtill fewer grand or remarkable buildings. The hoſpital is a large ſquare houſe, round two courts, three ſtories high towards the ſea, and only one towards the land: the architecture and method of laying out the plan are good; but the ſtone is of ſo ſoft and friable a contexture, that the ſea air has corroded it, and cauſed much of it to crumble away. Further eaſt, at the foot of the ſummer-evening walk, is a ſmall church, erected in honour of St. James, the patron of Spain, who is piouſly believed to have landed here when he came from Paleſtine to convert this country to Chriſtianity. Carthagena much reſembles Plymouth: there are two dry docks, which were conſtructed by the late Don Jorge Juan. Here are two public walks: that of the Almeda is very long, and planted with double rows of white elms; that of Santa Lucia is near the harbour. The town is chiefly inhabited by officers of the army and navy, who are always obliged to wear their uniform; and none under the degree of captain are permitted to carry a cane. The port of Carthagena is the beſt in the kingdom, and not much inferior to any one in Europe. It is ſeated at the bottom of a ſmall bay, five hundred paces in length, and about ſix or ſeven hundred at the mouth. The anchoring is very good: the bay abounds in fiſh, particularly mackerel. The air here is temperate in ſummer, and ſo mild in winter, that the roſes blow as fine at Chriſtmas as they do in England at Midſummer. Great quantities of fine wool are exported from this city.

Malaga, an ancient, large, well built, well fortified, and populous city, with a fine harbour on the Mediterranean, is 260 miles ſouth of Madrid, and 75 ſouth-weſt from Granada. The city is of a circular form, encompaſſed with a double wall, and defended by two caſtles; the houſes are ſolid and lofty, and the ſtreets well paved and level. So great is the exportation of wines, raiſins, almonds, figs, lemons, oranges, and other fruits, from hence, beſides wool and oil, that the duties on them are ſaid to yield the king 800,000 ducats per annum. The harbour runs up into the town 530 common paces, with a good breadth, and four ſtairs to take water at, and 24 pillars of jaſper ſtone to faſten the ſhips to. The city is ſuppoſed to have been founded by the Phœnicians. The biſhop is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Seville, and has a revenue of 20,000 ducats per annum.

Granada is ſituated at the conflux of the Xenil and Dauro, 180 miles ſouth of Madrid. It ſtands in the midſt of a fruitful country, has a fine air, is capacious and populous, being one of the largeſt cities in Spain, and containing upwards of 90,000 inhabitants. It is divided into four quarters, and has 12 gates, which are always open. It is an archbiſhopric, and contains 24 pariſhes, and 29 convents, with a church to each, 11 hoſpitals, and four colleges. The ſtreets are narrow, crooked, and badly paved, and the houſes in general mean: here is an univerſity, and a royal chancery. The amphitheatre, for bull feaſts, is built of ſtone, and one of the beſt in Spain, and the environs of the city are ſtill pleaſing and healthful. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned uſeful; the ſurplus being made of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars.

Bilboa is ſituated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the ſea. It contains about eight hundred houſes, with a large ſquare by the water ſide, well ſhaded with pleaſant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river; where there are great numbers of houſes and gardens, which form a moſt pleaſing proſpect, particularly in ſailing up the river; for, beſides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landſcape, and completes the ſcenery. The houſes are ſolid and lofty, the ſtreets well paved and level, and the water is ſo conveyed into the ſtreets, that they may be waſhed at pleaſure; which renders Bilboa one of the neateſt towns in Europe.

Burgos, the capital of Old Caſtile, is ſituated by the river Arlancon, 120 miles north of Madrid. It is a large, but not a fine city. The cathedral, built in the Gothic ſtyle, is one of the nobleſt and richeſt in Spain: the archbiſhop has a revenue of 40,000 ducats per annum, and the king is always the firſt of the canons. Among other convents, here is one for ladies of quality, called Las Huelgos, the revenue of which is ſaid to be 80,000 ducats per annum. The abbeſs, who is generally a lady of one of the firſt families in Spain, has 17 other convents, 14 towns, and 50 villages ſubject to her: ſhe has alſo the diſpoſal of 12 commanderies, and takes place of all ladies, except thoſe of the royal family.

Gibraltar being once a celebrated town and fortreſs of Andaluſia, though at preſent in the poſſeſſion of Great Britain, claims our attention here from its ſituation. It was taken from the Spaniards by the confederate fleet of the Engliſh and Dutch, under the command of Sir George Rooke, in the year 1704, and, after many fruitleſs attempts to recover it, was confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713; repeated attempts have been ſince made to wreſt it from England, but without ſucceſs: the laſt war made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long ſiege againſt the united forces of Spain and France by ſea and land, but was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garriſon, to the great loſs, diſgrace, and diſappointment of the beſiegers; though it muſt be granted, the place is by nature almoſt impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon of different bores, and chiefly braſs, which were ſunk before the harbour in the ten floating batteries deſtroyed by the red-hot bullets, have been raiſed, and ſold, and the money ariſing therefrom diſtributed among the garriſon, as a reward for their toil and bravery. It is a commodious port, and formed by nature for commanding the paſſage of the Streights. The town is neither large nor beautiful, yet, on account of its fortifications, is eſteemed the key of Spain, and is always furniſhed with a garriſon, well provided, for its defence. It is built upon a rock, in a peninſula, to which on the land-ſide is only a narrow paſſage between the rock and the ſea, which paſſage is walled and fortified both by art and nature. Acroſs this iſthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, in order to prevent the garriſon of Gibraltar from having any intercourſe with the country: notwithſtanding which they carry on a clandeſtine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garriſon is confined within very narrow limits, and the ground ſcarcely produces any thing, ſo that it is ſupplied with proviſions either from England, or from Ceuta on the Barbary coaſt. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but finding that power was carried to an extravagant height, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magiſtrates. —The road of Gibraltar is neither ſafe againſt an enemy

†

enemy nor ſtorms, and is not convenient for refitting of veſſels, though they may be laid on their ſides for careening. The Streights are twenty-four miles long, and about fifteen broad; through which ſets a current from the Atlantic occean into the Mediterranean, and for the ſtemming of it a briſk gale is required.

The principal iſlands of Spain are Majorca, Minorca, and Yvica.

Majorca is ſituated 120 miles eaſtward of Spain, and oppoſite to Valencia; it is about 60 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about 56 in breadth from north to ſouth. In ſome parts of it, there are large and ſmall cattle, game, corn, ſaffron, fruits, honey, &c.

Minorca, 33 miles E. N. E. of Majorca, is about 38 miles long, and 15 broad. This iſland produces no corn, but yields wine, oil, and fruit: it alſo feeds a number of ſmall cattle. It was firſt taken by the Engliſh in 1708; from whom the French took it in 1758; was reſtored to the Engliſh at the peace of 1763, from whom the Spaniards took it in 1782, to whom it was ceded by the peace in 1783.

Yvica, ſituated between Majorca and Valencia, is about 40 miles in length, and 22 in breadth. Its chief productions are corn, wine, oil, fruits, and drugs: here are alſo ſalt-rocks and mines.

Among the natural curioſities of Spain is a very deep cavern at Algezira, the deſcent to the entrance of which is by an hundred ſteps; when the ſpectator has attained the mouth, he muſt be very cautious how he proceeds, for the paſſage is very narrow, and on a great declivity for a conſiderable way. This paſſage leads to a ſort of labyrinth, which abounds in cryſtallizations, from whence there is a communication to a much larger cave, filled with an infinite number of various kinds of figures, which reflect the light of the torches in a moſt ſurpriſing manner. It is ſaid that the echo in this cave is ſo great, that if a ſingle piſtol is diſcharged there, the ſound will reverberate for the ſpace of ſeven minutes. In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the ſtone, ſome of which have been brought to England, and depoſited in the Britiſh Muſeum. On the weſt ſide of the mountain is St. Michael's cave, 1110 feet above the horizon. Many pillars of various ſizes, ſome of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling.

In ſeveral parts of this country are the remains of Roman and Mooriſh antiquities, conſiſting of Roman ways, aqueducts, theatres, and palaces. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large ſtones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. This way was repaired by the emperor Adrian, but it is now greatly injured by time, though there are ſtill the ruins of ſome of the columns to be ſeen. Near Segovia is a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, which extends over a deep valley, between two hills, and is ſupported by a noble row of 152 arches. Notwithſtanding this aqueduct has ſtood ſo many centuries, it ſtill retains its ſtrength and beauty. Near Murviedro (once the faithful Saguntum, deſtroyed by Hannibal) are the remains of an old Roman theatre, an exact ſemicircle, about 82 yards diameter, ſome of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 perſons might attend the exhibition without inconvenience: and at Cordova is an edifice, which was formerly a moſque, but is now converted into a church, ſaid to be one of the wonders of the world. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is ſupported by 850 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aiſles, in which are 366 altars, and twenty-four gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the moſt noble and coſtly ornaments. At Granada is to be ſeen great part of a moſt magnificent palace called the Alhambra, belonging to the Mooriſh kings. The inſide is overlaid with jaſper and porphyry, and the walls contain many Arabic inſcriptions. The whole edifice is executed in the Gothic taſte. This noble royal ſtructure was built in 1280, by the ſecond Mooriſh king of Granada; and in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards.

With reſpect to commerce, the articles exported from Spain to other parts of Europe, are wines, fine oil, vinegar, fruits of various kinds, indigo, cochineal, materials for dyeing, kali or barilla, quickſilver, ſome wrought ſilks, balſam of Peru, vanilla, cake-chocolate, ſarſaparilla, ſalt-petre, ſalt, woollen counterpanes, a very fine ſort of blankets, iron, Toledo ſword-blades, gun and piſtol-barrels, vermillion, Seville and Havannah ſnuff, and ſeveral ſorts of roots of Spaniſh and American growth.

The Spaniards import principally from England dried and ſalted fiſh, meat, butter, cheeſe, beer, corn, rice, pepper, warlike and naval ſtores, particularly cables and anchors; cutlery-ware, watches, wrought braſs, and princes metal, mathematical inſtruments, toys, mahogany cabinet-work, wrought and unwrought tin, lead, leather, various kinds of ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, and broad cloths. They import from America gold, ſilver, cochineal, indigo, cocoa or chocolate-nuts, logwood, and other dyeing woods, ſugar, tobacco, ſnuff, and other valuable American productions.

Spain formerly extended the chief part of her foreign European trade to England; but it is now one-third leſs than it was fifty years ago, owing in ſome meaſure to the eſtabliſhment of ſome arts and manufactures in that kingdom ſince the above period. Unhappily, however, for themſelves, they make gold and ſilver the chief branches both for their exports and imports. This trade is chiefly carried on from the port of Cadiz; and to this port other European nations ſend their merchandize to be ſhipped off in Spaniſh bottoms for America, ſecured under the name of Spaniſh factors; for the merchandize properly belonging to Spain forms the leaſt part of the freight which theſe ſhips carry to America.

The merchants of England, Holland, France, &c. have agents and correſpondents at Cadiz, who tranſact this buſineſs for them; and their great care is, to elude the duties laid on foreign merchandize ſent in this manner to America; which, if paid, are ſo exorbitant, that the profits would ſink very low; though at this time they ſeldom amount to leſs than 20 per cent. Spain has ineffectually endeavoured to prevent this contraband trade; but no meaſure taken for that purpoſe can ſucceed, till the inhabitants, by a proper exertion of induſtry, are enabled to ſupply their American poſſeſſions with merchandize of their own manufacture and produce.

The manufactures of Spain conſiſt chiefly of ſilk, wool, copper, and hardware. The firſt of theſe is at preſent ſo greatly encouraged, that, we are told, above a million of people are employed in feeding, gathering, and curing ſilk-worms, and in ſpinning, weaving, and making all kinds of ſilks. Moſt of the laborious works in huſbandry, manufactures, and handicrafts, are performed by the French, eſpecially in the two Caſtiles.

The conſtitution and government of Spain are greatly altered from their ancient form; ſince, from being a free monarchy of hereditary ſucceſſion in males and females, it is now the moſt deſpotic kingdom in Europe; and as, in the adminiſtration of its government, no proper attention is paid to the intereſts and welfare of the people, we may from hence eaſily account for the poverty which is ſo viſible in moſt parts of the country. The cortes, or parliaments, were compoſed of repreſentatives ſent from the cities and towns, and the oldeſt member for Burgos always acted as ſpeaker. The cortes formerly poſſeſſed

great privileges, and the legiſlative authority was ſo equally blended in the king and the eſtates, that no law could be made, repealed, or ſuſpended, nor any money raiſed upon the ſubject, but with their common conſent. But theſe cortes are now aboliſhed, and Spain is become an abſolute monarchy, the whole government being ſolely in the hands of the king, his miniſters, and the councils, which are entirely at the devotion of the two former.

The privy-council is compoſed of a certain number of noblemen, nominated by the king; their buſineſs is, to prepare matters and to digeſt papers for the cabinet council, or junto, the members of which are likewiſe nominated by the king, and conſiſt of the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, and three or four more; and in theſe the direction of all the executive part of government may be ſaid to reſide. The council of war takes cognizance of military affairs only. The Spaniſh monarchs are declared out of their minority on the completion of their fourteenth year; and in regulating the ſucceſſion, after the death of Charles II. a medium was obſerved between the Salic law and the ancient law of Spain, viz. that any male heir, however diſtant, ſhould inherit before a female, who can have no right but after the extinction of every male branch.

The laws of Spain are compounded chiefly of the Roman civil law, the royal edicts, and, probably, certain provincial cuſtoms. The council of Caſtile is the higheſt law tribunal in the kingdom. In Galicia, Seville, Valencia, Barcelona, Saragoſſa, Majorca, and the Canaries, courts, called royal audiences, are eſtabliſhed, who judge primarily in all cauſes within 15 miles of their reſpective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior juriſdictions. Beſides theſe, there are many ſubordinate tribunals for the police, the finances, and other branches of buſineſs.

The tribunal of the Inquiſition is eſtabliſhed at Madrid, but there are inferior ones in the principal cities almoſt all over Spain; and theſe are the great ſtate curbs whereby the people are held in ſuch an implicit religious obedience, and preſerve their boaſted uniformity of the Roman Catholic faith.—This court was erected about the year 1251. Pope Innocent IV. authoriſed the Dominicans perpetual inquiſitors; and, in 1265, Clement IV. confirmed theſe powers, and enlarged their privileges and tribunals. It was eſtabliſhed in Caſtile by Ferdinand and Iſabella, in the year 1557, and ſome time after extended all over Spain. Formerly this office only acknowledged the power of the pope, raiſing itſelf above that of kings, who were often bridled, humbled, and even puniſhed by it. Their Auto da Fé's, or ſolemn acts of faith, uſed commonly to be exhibitted when their princes came of age, or at their acceſſion. But the power of this office is now greatly diminiſhed; the officers belonging to it can carry no ſentence into execution without the royal authority, and there has not been an Auto da Fé at Madrid for ſome years. Add to this, that ſome of the late popes, appear to be in a good degree proteſtantized, and diveſted of the ſuperſtition and zeal of their predeceſſors, there are hopes that the remaining errors of that church will continue to evaporate, and at length give place to the light of reaſon, good ſenſe, and the precepts of divine revelation. The government of Spaniſh America forms a ſyſtem of itſelf, and is delegated to viceroys and other magiſtrates, who are in their reſpective diſtricts almoſt abſolute. The towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Maſulquivir, on the coaſt of Barbary in Africa; and the iſlands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones in Aſia, are among the foreign poſſeſſions of the crown of Spain.

The revenues ariſing to the crown from Old Spain amount to five millions ſterling per annum, which ariſe chiefly from taxes on all kinds of goods, houſes, lands, timber, and proviſions: beſides which, a fifth of the produce of all the ſilver mines in America belongs to the king, but this part of his revenue is uſually very ill accounted for, and he ſeldom receives it without part having been previouſly embezzled.

The gold coins in Spain are piſtoles or doubloons, worth about 17s. and double and quadruple, half and quarter piſtoles. The ſilver coins are reals de Plata, worth about 6d. of our money; piaſters, or pieces of eight, worth about 4s. 6d. and half and quarter pieces of eight, but theſe are not common. The braſs money conſiſt of quartos and octavos, which anſwer to our halfpence and farthings. The Spaniſh eſcudos, or crowns and ducats, are imaginary coins, and both of the value of about 6s. of our money. There are alſo imaginary piaſters and piſtoles.

The land-forces of Spain, in time of peace, are computed at about 80,000, but in time of war they commonly amount to 100,000, or upwards. The marine of that kingdom has increaſed, owing to the great attention which has been paid to it by the preſent monarch. There are watch-towers from mile to mile, all along the coaſts of Spain: theſe are provided with lights and guards at night, ſo that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilboa to Ferrol, the whole kingdom, in caſe of an invaſion, may be ſoon alarmed.

The king of Spain formerly enumerated twelve kingdoms, and other places, to the amount of thirty-two, in his royal titles; but this abſurd cuſtom is now only occaſionally contrived, and he is generally contented with the appellation of His Catholic Majeſty. The cuſtom, however, of giving a number of names to the children of the royal family of Spain, is ſtill obſerved, the prince who was born in June 1786, being the ſon of the Infant Don Gabriel, by the Infanta Donna-Mariana Victoria, was baptized by the names of Pedro--Charles--Antonio--Raphael--Joſeph-Janvier--Francis-John-Nepomucene-Thomas-de-Villeneuf-Mark-colin-Vincent--Ferrier--Rainſon--Peter-de-Alcantara-Ferdinand. The Spaniſh king is never crowned, but inaugurated by the delivery of a ſword. His ſignature is, *I the King*. His eldeſt ſon is ſtyled prince of Aſturias, and his younger children of both ſexes are called infants or infanta's, by way of diſtinction.

The arms of the kings of Spain conſiſt of a ſhield, divided into four quarters, the uppermoſt of which on the right hand, and the lowermoſt on the left, contain a caſtle, Or, with three towers, for Caſtile; and in the uppermoſt on the left, and the lowermoſt on the right, are three lions, gules, for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou. The armorial bearings are loaded with the arms of all the kingdoms.

The higher nobility here conſiſt of counts, marquiſes, and dukes. The grandees, who have precedence of all others, next the king and princes of the blood, are named out of theſe. Like thoſe of Portugal, they have the privilege of being covered in the king's preſence, who ſtyles them in his letters, Illuſtrious; and, in ſpeaking to them, or of them, their Eminences: but there are others, beſides the grandees, who are covered in the king's preſence, as cardinals, nuncios, archbiſhops, the grand prior of Caſtile, and the grand prior of Malta, the generals of the orders of St. Dominic and St. Francis, ambaſſadors of crowned heads, the knights of the golden fleece, and of the three military orders of St. James, Calatrava, and Alcantara, when the king aſſiſts at their reſpective chapters, in quality of grand maſter. No grandee can be apprehended for any crime, but by the expreſs order of the king, and they have many other privileges beſides theſe. The inferior nobility ſtyle themſelves cavalleros and hidalgos. The latter of theſe is applied to thoſe who are unmixed with the Mooriſh blood.

There are ſeven orders of knighthood in Spain; viz.

1. The order of the Golden Fleece, inſtituted in 1430, by Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, and is common

common now to the kings of Spain and the houſe of Auſtria: it is generally conferred on princes and ſovereign dukes; but the Spaniſh branch of it hath many French and Italian nobility: there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

2. The order of St. James, or St. Jago de Compoſtella, which is the richeſt of all the orders of Spain: it was inſtituted in 1175, by Ferdinand II. kind of Leon. The badge is a croſs of gold enamelled crimſon, edged with gold, and worn round the neck, pendent to a broad ribband; it is charged on the centre with an eſcallop-ſhell white: it is only conferred on perſons of noble families.

3. The order of Calatrava, founded by Sancho III. of Caſtile. Their badge is, a croſs fleuri, red, worn at the breaſt, pendent to a broad ribband, the whole differing only in colour from the badge of Alcantara: the ceremonial mantle is of white ſilk, tied with a curdon and taſſels, like thoſe of the Garter, and on the left arm a croſs fleuri embroidered, gules.

4. The order of Alcantara owes its inſtitution to Ferdinand II. king of Leon. The badge is a gold croſs, fleuri, enamelled green, and worn pendent to a broad ribband on the breaſt. This order is highly eſteemed, and conferred only on perſons of ancient and illuſtrious families. On days of ceremony, they wear a mantle of red ſilk, on the left ſide of which is embroidered in ſilver, a ſtar of five points.

5. The order of the Lady of Mercy, ſaid to have been inſtituted about the year 1218. Women are alſo included in this order: the badge, which is common to both, is a ſhield per feſs, red and gold; in chief, a croſs patée, white; in baſſée, four pallets red, for Arragon, and the ſhield crowned with a ducal coronet.

6. The order of Monteſa, inſtituted at Valencia, at the cloſe of the 13th century, in the place of the Templars, whoſe poſſeſſions they enjoyed. The badge is a plain red croſs, enamelled on gold, worn pendent to a broad red ribband, ſaſh-wiſe, and a plain red croſs embroidered on the left breaſt of the outer garment.

7 The order of Charles III. inſtituted by the late king in 1771, in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge is a ſtar of eight points enamelled white, and edged with gold; in the centre of the croſs is the image of the Virgin Mary, veſtment white and blue. On the reverſe, the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre, and this motto, *Virtuti & Merito*, "To Virtue and Merit." The order is compoſed of four claſſes, variouſly diſtinguiſhed. This order is conferred on none but perſons of noble deſcent.

The hiſtory of Spain will be introduced at the end of our enſuing account of Portugal, as the events relative to both theſe kingdoms are ſo intimately blended and connected together, as not eaſily to admit of a ſeparation with propriety.

CHAP. XXVI.

PORTUGAL.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Produce, Mountains, Rivers, Population, Inhabitants, Religion, Language, Learning, Cities and Towns, Curioſities, Commerce and Manufactures, Conſtitution and Government, Revenue, Hiſtory, &c.

THIS kingdom is ſituated between the 7th and 10th degrees of weſt long. and between the 37th and 42d degrees of north lat. being about 300 miles in length and 100 in breadth. It is the moſt Weſtern kingdom on the continent of Europe, being bounded on the ſouth and weſt by the Atlantic ocean, and on the north and eaſt by Spain. This is the Luſitania of the Romans; but the etymology of its preſent name is uncertain.

The kingdom of Portugal is uſually divided into three parts, viz. the northern, middle, and ſouthern provinces.

The North Diviſion contains

Entre Mino, chief town Braga; Douro, chief towns Oporto and Viana; Tra los Montes, chief towns Braganza, Miranda and Villa-Real; containing 6814 ſquare miles.

The Middle Diviſion contains

Beira, chief towns Coimbra, Guarda; Eſtremadura, chief towns Liſbon, Ubes, and Leira: containing 12,640 ſquare miles.

The South Diviſion contains

Entre Tajo, chief town Ebora, or Evora; Guadiana, chief towns Portalegre, Elvas, and Bira; Alentejo, chief town Lagos; Algarva, chief towns Faro, Tavora, and Silves: containing 8397 ſquare miles.

The air in Portugal, eſpecially about Liſbon, is reckoned ſoft and beneficial to conſumptive patients; it is not ſo ſearching as that of Spain, being refreſhed by breezes from the ſea. The ſoil is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, eſpecially in corn, which they import from other countries. Some places produce good paſture, but in general it is very coarſe.

The fruits here are the ſame as in Spain, but not ſo highly flavoured. Herbs and flowers are very plentiful, from the odoriferous kind of which great quantities of perfumed waters are diſtilled. They are particularly attentive to the culture of their vineyards, which yield excellent grapes. The cattle in the northern parts are large and fine, but in the ſouthern they are ſmall and lean, and are in general, as well as their poultry, but indifferent eating. Their horſes are briſk and lively, but extremely ſlight. The fiſh on the coaſt are very fine, and the birds reſemble thoſe of Spain. Vaſt quantities of delicious honey are produced in this country. Here are mines, but they are not worked; alſo variety of gems, marbles, and mill-ſtones, and a fine mine of ſalt-petre, near Liſbon.

The principal mountains in Portugal are thoſe which divide Algarva from Alentejo; thoſe in Tra los Montes, and the rock of Liſbon, at the mouth of the Tajo: but they are for the moſt part barren.

The chief rivers of Portugal have been mentioned in the account of Spain. The others are, the Mondego, the Limia, Sadao, Vanga, Leſa, Ave, Cavado, Zezere, Alba, Goa, Laura, Canha, and Caſa. The Tagus, or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden ſand. There are alſo ſeveral remarkable lakes and ſprings in this kingdom; ſome of them will abſorb even the lighteſt ſubſtances, as feathers, cork, &c. ſome are medicinal and ſanative, particularly one about 45 miles from Liſbon; and ſome hot baths are found in the province of Algarva.

The number of inhabitants in Portugal, according to the beſt calculation, amount to about two millions. In 1732, the kingdom contained 3344 pariſhes, 1,742,230 lay perſons, and about 300,000 eccleſiaſtics of both ſexes. The Portugueſe are neither ſo tall, nor ſo well made as the Spaniards. The ladies are of an olive complexon, but, while young, exceedingly handſome; and their eyes, which are black and ſparkling, retain their brilliancy long after their other charms are upon the decline. In their manners they are exceeding lively and witty, but at the ſame time poſſeſs the niceſt ſenſe of female virtue and honour.

The Portugueſe are generally accuſed of being haughty, treacherous, and crafty in their dealings; malicious, cruel, and vindictive in their tempers; much given to avarice and uſury, and the meaner

ſort extremely addicted to thieving. This character, though bad, may in a great meaſure be juſt, but charity obliges us to ſuppoſe that it is not general, and that, among ſuch a number of inhabitants, many may be found, whoſe ſentiments and manners are an honour to their country; for it is certain that no people whatever are leſs beholden to the reports of hiſtorians and travellers than the Portugueſe. We will, however, hope that ſome alteration will be made in their character by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, and the diminution of the papal influence among them. In their manner of living, cuſtoms, and diverſions, they nearly reſemble the Spaniards, but they are, if poſſible, more ſuperſtitious, and affect greater ſtate. They keep an incredible number of domeſtics, for they never diſcharge any who ſurvive after ſerving their anceſtors; but they exact a veneration from them which falls little ſhort of the moſt abject ſlavery; and the ladies, in particular, are treated by them with the ſame homage as is paid to perſons of the blood royal in other countries. The houſes, particularly thoſe of the grandees, are furniſhed in the richeſt and moſt ſuperb taſte; but the poorer ſort have ſcarcely any furniture at all, and ſit always croſs-legged on the ground, like the Moors. Their dreſs, like that of the Spaniards, never uſed to vary till very lately, particularly among the men; but now both ſexes conform greatly to the modes of France. The ladies wear exceeding rich clothes, and when they walk out, put on long veils over their heads, but leave their faces uncovered. Both men and women make great uſe of ſpectacles, and that often not ſo much to aſſiſt their ſight, as to give them an appearance of wiſdom and gravity.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Portugal, and the only one tolerated there, is Popery. Jews, however, are found there in vaſt numbers, but they ſometimes eſcape the ſcrutiny of the inquiſition with great difficulty, and if they are unhappy enough to fall under its cenſure, are treated with the utmoſt cruelty. The Engliſh Proteſtants are permitted the exerciſe of their religion; but they muſt be careful not to redicule that of the country, nor endeavour to make proſelytes. The power of his holineſs, as well as that of the inquiſition in Portugal, have been very much contracted of late.

The only difference between the eccleſiaſtical government of Spain and Portugal is, that about 20 years ago there was erected a patriarchate at Liſbon. The patriarch is always a cardinal, and of the royal family. The archbiſhoprics are thoſe of Liſbon, Braga, and Evora. The firſt of theſe has ten ſuffragan biſhops, including thoſe of the Portugueſe ſettlements abroad; the ſecond has ten; and the laſt two.

The Portugueſe language does not differ materially from that of Spain, only the pronunciation is harſher to the ear. It is ſpoken on all the coaſts of Africa and Aſia, as far as China, but mixed with the language of the ſeveral nations in thoſe diſtant regions.

The anceſtors of the preſent Portugueſe were certainly poſſeſſed of more true knowledge, with regard to aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, about the middle of the 16th century, and for ſome time afterwards, than any other nation in the univerſe; but bigotry has plunged them into a deplorable ſtate of ignorance, from whence ſome weak efforts have of late been made to extricate them; for it is univerſally allowed, that this defect is not owing ſo much to the want of genius as a proper education. It is, however, to be feared, that while the papal power, and that of the eccleſiaſtics continue at ſuch a height, though greatly inferior to what it was, real learning will make but a ſmall progreſs, notwithſtanding the laudable endeavours of a few enlightened minds.

The univerſities are thoſe of Liſbon, Coimbra, and Evora. The firſt of theſe is much inferior to the ſecond which was founded in the year 1291, by king Dennis, and conſiſts of a rector, reformator, or governor, a chancellor, with fifty profeſſors, and other officers. The number of ſtudents are about 2000; and the buildings of the univerſity are very magnificent. The univerſity at Evora was founded in the year 1559, and is well endowed. There is alſo at Liſbon a college, where the young nobility are educated in the ſciences, and every branch of polite learning.

The Portugueſe antiquities chiefly conſiſt in the remains of ſome Mooriſh caſtles, the Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra, and the walls of Santarin, which are likewiſe ſuppoſed to have been built by the Romans. The principal natural curioſities are the lakes and fountains already deſcribed; to which we may add, the diamond the king is poſſeſſed of, which is perhaps the largeſt in the world, and was found at Braſil. The artificial curioſities are, the church and monaſtery near Liſbon where the kings of Portugal are buried, which are inexpreſſibly magnificent; and ſeveral monaſteries in Portugal, dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is thought to be one of the fineſt and richeſt in the world: the paintings are moſaic work, ſo curiouſly wrought with ſtones of all colours, as to aſtoniſh the beholders.

The capital city of Portugal is Liſbon: it ſtands on ſeven hills, on the north ſide of the mouth of the river Tagus; it is the reſidence of its monarchs, the ſeat of the chief tribunals and offices of the metropolitan, the receptacle of the richeſt merchandize both of the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, and eſteemed the greateſt port in Europe, next to London and Amſterdam. Here is one of the fineſt harbours in the world, having water enough for the largeſt ſhips, and room ſufficient to admit ten thouſand ſail, without being crowded.

The greateſt part of Liſbon, and the chief of the palaces and public buildings, were deſtroyed by a dreadful earthquake, on November 1, 1755. All that part of the city which was demoliſhed, is planned out in the moſt regular and commodious form. Some large ſquares and many ſtreets are already built. The ſtreets form right angles, and are broad and ſpacious. The houſes are lofty, elegant, and uniform; and being built of white ſtone, make a beautiful appearance. The inhabitants of this city, before the earthquake, did not exceed 150,000; but in the year 1790, it was computed to contain 228,612; to theſe are to be added the religious of both ſexes, with their attendants, who dwell in convents and monaſteries, the ſoldiery, the profeſſors and ſtudents of ſeminaries of education, and ſuch labourers as have no fixed dwelling. Here are ſtill remaining ſome noble edifices and fine churches; among the latter, the moſt magnificent is the chapel-royal, the ſplendor of which is amazing. The cathedral is a vaſt Gothic ſtructure, heavy and clumſy; it contains, however, great riches, and is finely adorned within. The king's principal palace is ſpacious and convenient, and ſtands on the river Tagus. The caſtle is large and ancient, has always a garriſon of four regiments of foot, and, from its ſituation, commands the whole city, being in the centre of it upon one of the higheſt hills. Here is a noble univerſity, and a large ſquare, called Roſio, ſurrounded with magnificent buildings.

The city and ſea-port of Oporto is, next to Liſbon, a place of the greateſt opulence and trade in the kingdom. It is ſurrounded with walls and towers, and the ſtreets are narrow and irregular, but well paved, the natural rock making part of the pavement in ſome places, and in others even the walls of the houſes. The buildings, which are gracefully antique, are all of ſtone; and the churches, particularly the cathedral, are ſtately and magnificent. The harbour which is much frequented by Engliſh veſſels, is very commodious, but the entrace to it is rendered dangerous by rocks and ſand-banks, called the Bar. From this place is carried on an extenſive trade, particularly in wine, to England, from thence denominated Port; and the inhabitants of half the ſhops in the city are coopers.

The

A View of the CITY of LISBON the Capital of the KINGDOM of PORTUGAL.

The commerce of Portugal is very conſiderable, but particularly with England, from whence they have moſt of the woollen manufactures, with which they furniſh their ſubjects in Aſia, Africa, and America; and in return for which the Engliſh take the wines, ſalt, and fruit of Portugal. By ſeveral treaties the Britiſh merchants in that kingdom enjoy conſiderable privileges, which of late years have been greatly infringed by the creation of new companies, and other oppreſſive regulations; and, notwithſtanding repeated complaints have been made from our court to that of Portugal, there has never been the leaſt redreſs granted, or conceſſion made.

Portugal, it is ſaid, draws more profit from her Braſils, than Spain from both Mexico and Peru. The articles from thence are gold, diamonds, pearls, indigo, copper, tobacco, ſugar, cocoa nuts, ginger, cotton, hides, gums, drugs, and dyeing woods. The king's fifth of the gold brought from Braſil, notwithſtanding the vaſt contraband trade, is ſaid to amount, one year with another, to about 300,000l. ſterling; and the whole annual produce of that metal in Braſil is computed at near 2,000,000l.

The Portugueſe have alſo very extenſive plantations on the eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa, from whence they draw gold, ivory, ebony, and ſlaves ſufficient to cultivate their ſugar and tobacco plantations in Brazil.

The Azores, or Weſtern Iſles, the Madeiras, and the Cape de Verd iſlands, likewiſe all belong to Portugal. Goa is their chief ſettlement in the Eaſt-Indies, their other poſſeſſions there are Macao, Daman, Diu, &c.

The manufactures in Portugal conſiſt chiefly of wool and ſilk, both which are inferior in beauty and goodneſs to thoſe of Spain. They alſo make a little linen, a variety of ſtraw work, and preſerve and candy fruits to admiration.

The king of Portugal is abſolute, though the appearance of liberty is ſtill preſerved in the meeting of the cortes, or ſtates, already mentioned in Spain: but they have long ſince ſold their parts in the legiſlature to the crown, and now only ſerve to record ſuch acts of ſtate as the court reſolves upon; to declare the next heir to the crown, when the king is pleaſed to nominate him; or to ratify treaties with ſuch foreign princes as may ſtill deem their conſent of any weight. The ſucceſſion in Portugal may devolve to the female branch; and the late monarch, having no male iſſue, obtained a diſpenſation from the pope, and married his daughter to his brother Don Pedro.

The council of ſtate, in this kingdom, is compoſed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the ſecretary of ſtate, and they diſpoſe of all great preferments, both ſpiritual and temporal. A council of war regulates all military affairs; and the treaſury courts, the finances.

The laws of Portugal are all contained in three ſmall volumes, and are founded on the civil law and their particular cuſtoms. The council of the palace is the higheſt tribunal that can receive appeals; and the Caſa da Supplicacao is a tribunal from which no appeals can be brought. The Inquiſition is eſtabliſhed here, as well as in Spain. They have alſo one of theſe tribunals at Goa, but none at the Braſils; the power of the Portugueſe inquiſitions has, however, been of late greatly circumſcribed.

The revenues of Portugal ſince the diſcovery of the Braſils, have been very conſiderable, and it is computed that they amount to three millions and a half annually. A conſiderable part of this ariſes from the cuſtoms and duties on goods exported and imported, which are uſually farmed out by the crown, and are immenſely high. Foreign merchandize pays twenty-three per cent. on importation, and fiſh from Newfoundland twenty-five per cent. Fiſh taken in the neighbouring ſeas and rivers pay twenty-ſeven per cent. and the tax upon land and cattle which are ſold, is ten per cent. The duty upon ſnuff alone amounts to fifty thouſand crowns; and the king draws a conſiderable revenue from the ſeveral orders of knighthood, of which he is always grand-maſter. The pope alſo, in conſideration of the large ſums he draws out of this kingdom, gives the king the money ariſing from indulgences and licences to eat fleſh at times prohibited, &c.

The nobility of Portugal are not taxed but upon extraordinary emergencies, and then not very high. By the ſuppreſſion of the Jeſuits, and other uſeleſs religious orders and inſtitutions, the king's revenue is greatly increaſed.

The king's titles are, "King of Portugal and the Algraves, on this ſide and the other ſide the ſea of Africa; lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conqueſts, and commerce, in Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, India, &c." The king's eldeſt ſon is ſtyled prince of Braſil. In the year 1749, pope Benedict XIV. dignified the king with the title of his Moſt Faithful Majeſty.

The arms of Portugal are Argent, five eſcutcheons, azure, placed croſs-wiſe, each charged with as many beſants as the firſt, placed ſalter-wiſe and pointed, ſable, for Portugal. The ſhield bordered, gules, charged with ſeven towers, Or, three in chief and two in each flanch. The ſupporters are two winged dragons, with the creſt a dragon, Or, under the two flanches, and the baſe of the ſhield appears at the end of it; two croſſes, the firſt fleur-de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Aviez, and the ſecond patée, gules, for the order of Chriſt; the motto is changeable, each king aſſuming a new one; but it frequently conſiſts of theſe words *Pro Rege et Grege*, "For the King and the People."

His Moſt Faithful Majeſty, Peter III. late king of Portugal, died in July 1786, of an apoplexy, in the 69th year of his age. He was ſucceeded in the throne by his conſort Maria Frances Iſabella.

There are ſeveral orders of knighthood here, viz. 1. The order of Chriſt, founded in 1317, by Dennis I. of Portugal, the badge of which is a red croſs within a white one, and the number of the commanderies 454. 2. The order of St. James, inſtituted in 1310, by the laſt-mentioned prince, the badge of which is a red ſword, in the ſhape of a croſs. A great number of towns and commanderies belong to this order. 3. The order of Aviz, or Aviez, inſtituted by Alphonſus Henriquez king of Portugal, in 1147, as a military and religious order, whoſe badge is a green croſs, in form of a lily, and the number of its commanderies 49. Though theſe three orders are religious, yet the knights are at liberty to marry. 4. The order of St. John, which has alſo ſeveral commanderies.

HISTORY OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

SPAIN, together with Portugal, anciently formed but one kingdom, ſuppoſed to have been firſt peopled from Gaul, to which it is contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only ſeparated by the narrow ſtreight of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians ſent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the riſe of Rome and Carthage, the poſſeſſion of this kingdom became an object of contention between thoſe powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their poſſeſſion until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. Theſe in their turn were invaded by the Saracens, who about the end of the 7th century had poſſeſſed themſelves of the fineſt kingdoms of Aſia and Africa; and not content with the immenſe regions that formerly compoſed great part of the Aſſyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they croſſed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in the ſoutherly provinces of that kingdom.

The firſt Spaniſh prince, mentioned in the hiſtory of this country, was Don Pelago, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt theſe infidels (afterwards known by the name of Moors;) and, about the year 720, took upon himſelf the title of king of Aſturia. His ſucceſſes animated other Chriſtian princes to take arms likewiſe, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars. In the mean time every adventurer was entitled to the conqueſts he made upon the Moors, till Spain was at laſt divided into twelve kingdoms; and about the year 1095 Henry of Burgundy was declared, by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his ſon Alphonſo threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſucceſſion of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1475, when all the Spaniſh kingdoms, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand king of Arragon, and Iſabella the heireſs and afterwards queen of Caſtile, who took Granada, and expelled the Moors and Jews, to the number of 170,000 families, out of Spain. This expulſion greatly depopulated the country of artiſts, labourers, and manufacturers; and the diſcovery of America (which happened a few years after) not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards moſt deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Iſabella introduced the Popiſh inquiſition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a ſafeguard againſt the return of the Moors and Jews.

Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his grandſon Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, afterwards emperor of Germany. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria in Europe, Africa, and above all, America, from whence he drew immenſe treaſures, began to alarm the jealouſy of neighbouring princes, but could not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles: he was almoſt conſtantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his Proteſtant ſubjects in Germany, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the Catholic church. At length, after a long and turbulent reign, he reſolved to withdraw himſelf entirely from any concern in worldly affairs, in order that he might ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement and ſolitude. In conſequence of this reſolution he reſigned Spain and the Netherlands to his ſon Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, dividing the power of the houſe of Auſtria with two branches. Spain, with all its poſſeſſions in Africa and the New World, alſo the Netherlands, and ſome Italian ſtates, remained with the elder branch, whilſt the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, but poſſeſſed few of his good qualities. He was auſtere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cauſe of Popery. He married Mary queen of England, an unfeeling bigot like himſelf; and after her death he paid his addreſſes to her ſiſter Elizabeth, but without ſucceſs. His reſentment on this occaſion produced very diſadvantageous wars with that princeſs, which occaſioned the revolt and loſs of the United Provinces. But in Portugal he was more ſucceſsful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wiſe and brave princes, fell to Sebaſtian about the year 1557. Sebaſtian loſt his life and a fine army, in a headſtrong, unjuſt, and ill-concerted expedition againſt the Moors in Africa; and ſoon after Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal pretended to a prior right. By this acquiſition Spain became poſſeſſed of the Portugueſe ſettlements in India, ſome of which ſhe ſtill retains.

The deſcendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had ſo totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almoſt unmoleſted in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once ſo tyrannical and inſolent over the Portugueſe, that in the year 1640 the nobility of that nation, by a well concerted conſpiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza on the throne, by the title of John IV. almoſt without bloodſhed; and the foreign ſettlements alſo acknowledged him as their ſovereign. A fierce war ſubſiſted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to re-unite them proved vain, ſo that a treaty was concluded in February 1668; by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent, and has ever ſince been a diſtinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Auſtrian line, failing in the perſon of Charles II. who left no iſſue, Philip, duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the dauphin of France, and grandſon to Lewis XIV. mounted the throne, by virtue of his predeceſſor's will, in the name of Philip V. anno 1701; and after a long and bloody ſtruggle with the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria, ſupported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity at the concluſion of the peace of Utrecht in the year 1713. And Lewis XIV. through a maſterly train of politics, accompliſhed his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich poſſeſſions in America and the Eaſt-Indies, from the houſe of Auſtria to that of his own family of Bourbon; an event which proved fatal to the commerce of Great-Britain; eſpecially in the American ſeas, where a glaring partiality has been ſhewn to the French nation ever ſince, and renders the Engliſh being poſſeſſed of a port in the South-Seas of equal importance to that of Gibraltar, at the entrance of the Mediterranean, which ſerves as a curb on the united ſtrength of France and Spain in Europe.

Philip, after a long and turbulent reign, which was diſturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, died in 1746, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand VI. a mild and peaceable prince, who reformed many abuſes, and was deſirous of promoting the commerce and proſperity of his kingdom; but he died in 1759 without iſſue, through grief for the loſs of his wife. Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his brother Charles III. the late reigning monarch of Spain.

The Portugueſe could not have ſupported themſelves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and upon the reſtoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princeſs of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain, in 1668, to give up all pretenſions to that kingdom. Alphonſo, ſon to John IV. was their king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to diſagree with his wife and his brother Peter, and they uniting their intereſts, not only forced Alphonſo to reſign his crown, but obtained a diſpenſation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually conſummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a ſecond marriage, had ſons, the eldeſt of whom was John, his ſucceſſor, and father to his late Portugueſe majeſty. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much ſervice in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, they had almoſt ruined the allies, by occaſioning the loſs of the great battle of Almanza in 1707.

John died in 1750, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, who, in 1760, was attacked by ſome aſſaſſins, and narrowly eſcaped with his life. From this conſpiracy is dated the expulſion of the Jeſuits (who were ſuppoſed to have been deeply concerned in it) from all parts of the Portugueſe dominions. Joſeph having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter was married, by diſpenſation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown falling into a foreign family; and the next year 1761, ſhe was brought to bed of a ſon, called the prince of Beira.

When

An ACCURATE MAP of ITALY

Pubd Sc Holborn

PT OF SWITZERLAND
PT Tirol OF
GERMANY
CROATIA
SAVOY
MILAN
PARMA
MANTUA
MODENA
GENOA
GULPH OF VENICE OR ADRIATIC SEA
CHURCH
TUSCANY
CORSICA I.
SARDINIA I.
LIPARI I.
SICILY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
PART OF TURKY IN EUROPE
LIVADIA
MOREA
PART OF AFRICA
Mediterranean Sea
Geneva
Chamberry
Grenoble
Avignon
Arles
Aix
Marseilles
Toulon
Hyeres
Nice
Turin
Milan
Venice
Trent
Florence
Genoa
Leghorn
Naples
Rome
Bologna
Ferrara
Ancona
Pescara
Gulph of Manfredonia
Gulph of Venice
Gulph of Tarranto
Trieste
Fiume
Zara
Ragusa
Durazzo
Corfu
Cephalonia
Lepanto
Patras
Corinth
Messina
Palermo
Malta
Tunis
Algiers
Bona
Carlstadt
Laubach
Gorlitz
Belluno
Udina
Belgrade
Jablonitz
Novigradt
Scanderoon
Aleppo
Tripoli
Smyrna
Candia
Rhodes
Cyprus
Alexandria
Grand Cairo
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
Bona
Constantina
Bastia
Ajaccio
Sassari
Cagliari
Oristagni
Porto Longone
Elba I.
Capraia I.
Gorgona I.
Meloria
Pianosa
Monte Christo
Giglio I.
Ponza
Ventotene
Stromboli
Lipari
Volcano
Alicuri
Filicuri
Panari
Salina
Ustica
Favagnana
Marettimo
Trapani
Marsala
Mazzara
Girgenti
Sciacca
Augusta
Syracusa
Melazzo
Cape Bon
Cape Zibbe
Cape Blanco
Cape Serrat
Cape Negro
Cape Farina
Cape Carthage
Cape Boeder
Cape Bizerta
Cape Roma
Cape Tabarca
Cape Negro
Cape Bona
Cape Tenes
Cape Matifou
Cape Caxine
Cape Sidi Ferruch
Gulph of Bugia
Gulph of Stora
Gulph of Algiers
Bay of Bona
Bay of Tunis
Bay of Biserta
Bay of Tabarca
Bay of Bugia
Bay of Algiers
Bay of Sidi Ferruch
Bay of Constantina
Bay of Stora
Bay of Bastia
Bay of Ajaccio
Bay of Porto Longone
Bay of Naples
Bay of Salerno
Bay of Gaeta
Bay of Genoa
Bay of Marseilles
Bay of Toulon
Bay of Hyeres
Bay of Nice
Bay of Venice
Bay of Trieste
Bay of Fiume
Bay of Zara
Bay of Ragusa
Bay of Durazzo
Bay of Corfu
Bay of Lepanto
Bay of Patras
Bay of Corinth
Bay of Navarin
Bay of Modon
Bay of Coron
Bay of Malta
Bay of Augusta
Bay of Syracusa
Bay of Messina
Bay of Palermo
Bay of Trapani
Bay of Marsala
Bay of Mazzara
Bay of Girgenti
Bay of Sciacca

When the war broke out between England and Spain in 1762, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, pretended to force Joſeph into their alliance, and to garriſon his ſea-towns againſt the Engliſh with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, who, without reſiſtance, entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a whole body of French threatened it from another quarter. But by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh, an effectual ſtop was put to the invaſion; and a peace was concluded at Fontainbleau in 1763.

Joſeph died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was ſucceeded by his niece Maria Frances Iſabella, one of whoſe firſt acts was, the removing from power the marquis de Pombal, an event which excited univerſal joy throughout the kingdom, ſince his arbitrary and oppreſſive adminiſtration had rendered him odious to the people; though it has been alledged in his favour, that ſeveral of the public meaſures he had adopted were calculated to promote the real intereſts of the country.

On the 10th of March, 1792, the prince of Braſil, as preſumptive heir to the crown, publiſhed an edict, declaring, that as his mother, from her unhappy ſituation, was incapable of managing the affairs of government, he would place his ſignature to public papers, till the return of her health; and that no other change ſhould be made in the forms.

Charles III. of Spain was ſo warmly attached to the family compact concluded with the houſe of Bourbon, that two years after his acceſſion he even hazarded his American dominions to ſupport it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, and thereby rendered herſelf entirely miſtreſs of the navigation of the Spaniſh plate fleets. Notwithſtanding the ſucceſs of the Engliſh, their miniſtry thought proper haſtily to conclude a peace; in conſequence of which, Havannah was reſtored to Spain.

In 1775 an expedition was concerted againſt Algiers by the Spaniſh miniſtry, which had a moſt unſucceſsful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of 24,000, and who were commanded by lieutenant-general Conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half from the city of Algiers; but were diſgracefully beaten back, and obliged to take ſhelter on board their ſhips, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded, beſides 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wounded. In the years 1783 and 1784, they alſo renewed their attacks by ſea to deſtroy the place; but after ſpending much ammunition, and loſing many lives, were forced to retire without effecting their purpoſe.

When the war with Great Britain and her American colonies had ſubſiſted for ſome time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was alſo prevailed upon to commence hoſtilities againſt Great Britain. The Spaniards cloſely beſieged Gibraltar, both by ſea and land; it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortreſs ſhould be poſſeſſed by the Engliſh. The grand attack was on the 13th of September, 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by ten battering ſhips, from 600 to 1400 tons burden, carrying in all 212 braſs guns, entirely new, and diſcharging ſhot of 26 pounds weight. The ſhowers of ſhot and ſhells which were directed from them, from their land-batteries, and on the other hand from the various works of the garriſon, exhibited a ſcene, of which perhaps neither the pen nor the pencil can furniſh a competent idea. It is ſufficient to ſay, that four hundred pieces of the heavieſt artillery were playing at the ſame moment: an inſtance which has ſcarcely occurred in any ſiege ſince the invention of thoſe wonderful engines of deſtruction.

The irreſiſtible impreſſion of the numerous red-hot balls from the garriſon was ſoon conſpicuous; for in the afternoon, ſmoke was perceived to iſſue from the admiral's ſhip and another, and by one in the morning ſeveral were in flames, and numbers of rockets were thrown up from each of their ſhips as ſignals of diſtreſs; and thus ended all the hopes of the Spaniards of reducing the fortreſs of Gibraltar. Some trifling operations continued on the ſide of the Spaniards till the reſtoration of peace in 1783.

In other enterpriſes, however, the Spaniards proved more ſucceſsful. The iſland of Minorca was ſurrendered to them on the 6th of February, 1782, after having been beſieged for 171 days. The garriſon conſiſted of no more than 2692 men, while the forces of the enemy amounted to 16,000, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spaniſh commander at firſt attempted to corrupt the governor (general Murray); but this being rejected with indignation, the ſiege was commenced in form; and the garriſon would have ſhewed themſelves equally invincible with thoſe of Gibraltar, had it been poſſible to relieve them in the ſame manner. The ſcurvy ſoon made its appearance, and reduced them to ſuch a deplorable ſituation, that they were at laſt obliged to ſurrender in ſpite of every effort of human fortitude or ſkill; and ſo ſenſible were both parties that this was the true cauſe, that the Spaniſh general allowed them to march out with their arms ſhouldered, drums beating, and colours flying, while the diſconſolate Britiſh ſoldiers proteſted that they ſurrendered their arms to God, and not to the Spaniards.

CHAP. XXVII.

ITALY.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Soil, Produce, Mountains, Seas, Springs, Population, Inhabitants, Religion, Government under the Pope, Curioſities, Italian States, Hiſtory, &c.

THIS country is ſituated between the 7th and 10th deg. of eaſt long. and 37 and 46th deg. of north lat. being about 600 miles in length, and in ſome places near 400 broad; but its form is ſo irregular, that in ſome parts the breadth does not exceed 25 miles. On the north, it is bounded by France, Switzerland, and Germany; on the eaſt, by the gulf of Venice, or Adriatic ſea; and on the ſouth and weſt by the Mediterranean.

The whole of the Italian dominions, including Corſica, Sardinia, the Venetian, and other iſlands; with the chief city in each, are divided in the following manner:

Countries	Names.	Principal Cities.
Papiſts.	Piedmont	Tunis.
	Savoy	Chambery.
Subject to the king of Sardinia.	Montſerrat	Caſſal.
	Aleſſandrine	Alexandria.
	Oneglia	Oneglia.
	Sardinia Iſland	Cagliari.
To the king of Naples.	Naples	Naples.
	Sicily Iſland	Palermo.
Emperor.	Milan	Milan.
	Mantua	Mantua.
	Mirandola	Mirandola.
	Pope's territories	Rome.
Subject to their reſpective princes.	Tuſcany	Florence.
	Maſſa	Maſſa.
	Parma	Parma.
	Modena	Modena.
	Piombino	Piombino.
	Monaco	Monaco.
		Republics.

Countries Names.		Principal Cities.
Republics.	Lucca	Lucca.
	St. Marino	St. Marino.
	Genoa	Genoa.
To France	Corſica Iſland	Baſtia.
Republic of Venice	Venice	Venice.
	Iſtria, P.	Cabo d'Iſtria
	Dalmatia, P.	Zara
	Iſles of Dalmatia	
Iſlands in the Venetian dominions	Cephalonia	Cephalonia.
	Corfu, or Corcyra	Corfu.
	Zant, or Zacynthus	Zant.
	St. Maura	St. Maura.
	Little Cephalonia olim Ithaca.	

The air of Italy is very different, according to the different ſituations of the ſeveral countries contained in it. In thoſe on the north of the Apennines it is more temperate, but in thoſe on the ſouth generally very warm. The air of the Campania of Rome, and of the Ferrareſe, is unhealthful, which is owing to the lands not being duly cultivated, nor the marſhes drained. That of the other parts is generally pure, dry, and healthy. In ſummer the heat is very great in the kingdom of Naples, and would be almoſt intolerable, if it was not ſomewhat alleviated by the ſea-breezes. The ſoil of Italy in general is very fertile, being watered by a great number of rivers. It produces a variety of wines, and the beſt oil in Europe; excellent ſilk in abundance, corn of all ſorts, but not in ſuch plenty as in ſome other countries; oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, almonds, raiſins, ſugar, mulberry-trees without number, figs, peaches, nectarines, apricots, pears, apples, filberts, cheſnuts, &c. Moſt of theſe fruits were at firſt imported by the Romans from Aſia Minor, Greece, Africa, and Syria, and were not the natural products of the ſoil. The tender plants are covered in winter on the north-ſide of the Apennines, but on the ſouth-ſide they have no need of it. This country alſo yields good paſture, and abounds with cattle, ſheep, goats, buffaloes, wild boars, mules, and horſes. The foreſts are well ſtored with game, and the mountains yield not only mines of iron, lead, alum, ſulphur, marble of all ſorts, alabaſter, jaſper, porphyry, &c. but alſo gold and ſilver, with a great variety of aromatic herbs, trees, ſhrubs, and evergreens, as thyme, lavender, laurel and bays, wild olive-trees, tamarinds, juniper, oaks, pines, &c. In fine, Italy well merits the appellation which it has obtained, viz. the Garden of Europe.

The chief mountains of Italy are the Apennines and the Alps; the former run the whole length of the country from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt; the latter extend from the river Var near Nice, to the Adriatic. The principal river is, the Po, which riſes in Piedmont, and diſembogues itſelf into the Adriatic.

The ſeas of Italy are, the gulf of Venice, or the Adriatic ſea; the ſeas of Naples, Tuſcany, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policaſtro, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieſte, Iſtria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; and the Streight of Meſſina, between Italy and Sicily. The gulfs and bays in the Italian iſlands are thoſe of Fiorenzo, Baſtia, Tolada, Porto Novo, Cape Corſo, Bonifacio, and Ferro in Corſica; and the Streight of Bonifacio between Corſica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oriſtagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Meſſina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazaro, Syracuſe, and Catania; Cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Paſſaro, and Aleſſia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone, in the iſland of Elba. We have thought it neceſſary to give a particular account of the various ſeas, gulfs, and bays in Italy, becauſe, without a competent knowledge of theſe, neither the ancient Roman authors, nor the hiſtory nor geography of the reſpective countries, can be well underſtood.

In many parts of Italy mineral ſprings abound; ſome of them are hot, ſome warm, and many of ſulphurous, chalybeat, and medicinal qualities, of uſe in many diſtempers. Several of the mountains contain mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable ſtones; beautiful marble is alſo found all over the kingdom. The ridgy parts of Sardinia yield a great quantity of metals and minerals, as gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, and alum; curious cryſtals and coral are found on the coaſt of Corſica. Near Trivoli in Naples, a mill is erected for forging and fabricating iron and copper.

With reſpect to the population of Italy, the number of inhabitants, in the time of Pliny, was computed at 14,000,000. It may therefore not be thought extravagant, if we eſtimate them at 20,000,000. The king of Sardinia's ſubjects are reckoned at 2,300,000; the city of Milan, by the beſt computation, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous; and population has no doubt been greatly promoted by the encouragement which has been for ſome time given to agriculture and manufactures of all kinds. In their perſons, the Italians are generally of a middling ſize, well proportioned, with black hair, thin faces, and expreſſive countenances. Their women are well ſhaped, and very amorous; inſomuch that the marriage ties, eſpecially of the better ſort, are ſaid to be very little regarded in Italy. Every wife has been repreſented to have her cicisbeo, or gallant, with whom ſhe keeps company, and ſometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence is taken on either ſide: but this practice prevails chiefly at Venice, where parents, to prevent their ſons marrying unſuitably, or contract diſeaſes by promiſcuous amours, hire miſtreſſes for them for a month, or a year, or ſome determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenced trade: the Italian courtezans, or bona roba's, as they are called, make a kind of profeſſion in all their cities; ſo little do they reflect on the impropriety of this and many other cuſtoms, that are conſidered as criminal in other countries profeſſing Chriſtianity: they are however affable, courteous, ingenious, ſober, and ready-witted: but rather vindictive than brave, and more ſuperſtitious than devout.

The Italians are fond of greens, fruit, and vegetables of all kinds, which contributes to their contentment and ſatisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peaſant can be luxurious at a ſmall expence, the people being in general temperate both in eating and drinking. Boiled ſnails, ſerved up with oil and pepper, or fried in oil, and the hinder parts of frogs, are eſteemed delicate eating. Kites, jack-daws, hawks, and magpies, are eaten here, even by the better ſort of people; the Italian cooks, however, and the uncleanly manner of ſerving up victuals, which is for the moſt part of a very bad quality, are ſaid to be very diſguſtful to an Engliſhman. In their dreſs, they conform to the faſhions of the countries on which they border, or to which they are ſubject; but in general they affect a medium between the French volibility, and the ſolemnity of the Spaniards. They neither hunt, walk, ride, play at bowls, or take any other manly exerciſe, ſo much have they degenerated from thoſe heroes whoſe deſcendents they without ſhame boaſt themſelves to be, and on that very account look upon the reſt of mankind with contempt.—Maſquerades, operas, and other muſical entertainments, gaming, horſe-races without riders, aſſemblies, and pompous religious exhibitions, are their only amuſements.

We

We muſt not, however, omit a deſcription of the Cocagna, which is a diverſion reliſhed by people of the firſt rank in the poliſhed city of Naples, where they pretend to tell us that the very vagrants in the ſtreets are inſtructed in hiſtory, and the human mind is refined by poetry, ſoftened by muſic, and elevated by religion. The Cocagna is an entertainment given to the people four ſucceeding Sundays during the carnival. Oppoſite to the palace a kind of wooden amphitheatre is erected. This being covered with branches of trees, buſhes, and various plants, real and artificial, has the appearance of a green hill. On this hill are little buildings, ornamented with pillars of loaves of bread, with joints of meat, and dried fiſh, varniſhed and curiouſly arranged by way of capitals. Among the trees and buſhes are ſome oxen, a conſiderable number of calves, ſheep, hogs, and lambs, all alive and tied to poſts. There are, beſides, a great number of living turkies, geeſe, hens, pigeons, and other fowls, nailed by the wings to the ſcaffolding. Certain heathen deities appear alſo occaſionally upon this hill, but not with a deſign to protect it. The guards are drawn up in three ranks, to keep off the populace. The royal family, with all the nobility of the court, crowd the windows and balconies of the palace to enjoy this magnificent ſight. When his majeſty waves his handkerchief, the guards open to the right and left; the rabble pour in from all quarters, and the entertainment commences. You may eaſily conceive what a delightful ſight it muſt be to ſee ſeveral thouſand hungry beggars ruſh in like a torrent, deſtroy the whole fabric of loaves, fiſhes, and joints of meat, overturn the heathen deities for the honour of Chriſtianity, pluck the fowls, at the expence of their wings, from the poſts to which they were nailed; and in the fury of their ſtruggling and fighting for their prey, often tearing the miſerable animals to pieces, and ſometimes ſtabbing one another. It muſt be obſerved, that of late years the larger cattle have been previouſly killed.

The day here is reckoned from ſun-ſet to ſun-ſet, and their clocks are made to ſtrike the 24 hours. The houſes in Italy are far inferior to thoſe in England for convenience, the accommodations at the inns very coarſe and ſlovenly, and, which is the greateſt evil of all, travellers are infeſted day and night with infinite numbers of gnats, fleas, bugs, and lice.

The Roman-Catholic religion is the only one eſtabliſhed in Italy; but all ſects, though not tolerated, are found there, provided they do not ſcoff at or inſult the worſhip of the country.

The moſt ſolid foundations for the temporal power of the Papacy were laid by the famous Matilda, counteſs of Tuſcany, and heireſs to the greateſt part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. who, before his acceſſion in 1073, was well known by the name of Hildebrand. The ignorance of the laity, and other cauſes, operated to the aggrandiſement of the popes, and the extenſion of their authority, previous to the reformation. Ever ſince that æra, the ſtate of Europe has been ſuch ſuch, that the Roman pontiffs have had more than one great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakneſs and bigotry of temporal princes, who ſeem now to be recovering from their religious deluſions; and the papal influence has received a conſiderable check from the wiſe conduct and moderation of the emperor of Germany.

The chief part of the religion of the Italians conſiſts in an external obſervance and practice of eccleſiaſtical rites, ceremonies, and injuctions. An Italian, not enlightened by reflection and experience, will ſooner commit adultery than eat any fleſh meat on a Friday; but a foreigner, who wiſhes to paſs for a Roman-Catholic, need only to affix to his window an atteſtation, by a phyſician, that his ſtate of health requires a fleſh meat diet; and he may, without any riſk, eat fleſh meat in Lent: ſuch atteſtations may be purchaſed in coffee-houſes in Florence. The eccleſiaſtical government of the Papiſts is centered in the popes and cardinals: the latter ſhould be 70 in number, but it is ſeldom complete. They are always appointed by his holineſs, who takes care to have a majority of Italians among them, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. When foreign prelates are to be promoted to the cardinalſhip, the pope regulates himſelf according to the nomination of the princes who profeſs the tenets of the church of Rome. His chief miniſter is ſtyled the cardinal patron, and is generally a nephew, or ſome other near relation. In the conſiſtory, which is a meeting of the pope and cardinals, the latter pretend to control the former in matters both ſpiritual and temporal, and they have even been known to prevail; but this rarely happens. The conclave is an aſſembly of the cardinals upon urgent occaſions, particularly at the election of a pope; when it has been known, particularly in 1721, that animoſities and diſputes have run ſo high, that, forgetting they were to attend to divine inſpiration in their proceedings, they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the ink-ſtands at each other, thus tranſmuting the conclave, for a time, into a boxing-ſtage. The reign of a pope is ſeldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election.

The pope, on his elevation to the chair, gives in his creed, which, reſpecting the inferior articles, is in ſubſtance as follows: That he firmly admits the apoſtolical and eccleſiaſtical traditions, and the conſtitutions of the church of Rome,—admits the Holy Scriptures in the ſame ſenſe that holy mother church doth,—believes in ſeven ſacraments, as inſtituted by Jeſus Chriſt, and neceſſary to ſalvation, namely, baptiſm, confirmation, euchariſt, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage,—embraces all the determinations of the council of Trent, reſpecting original ſin and juſtification,—profeſſes, that in the maſs there is offered to God a propitiatory ſacrifice for quick and dead; that the bread and wine are tranſubſtantiated into the very body and blood of Chriſt,—and that the cup is to be denied to the lay people,—that there is a purgatory,—that departed ſaints are to be worſhipped and prayed to,—that they offer to God the prayers of the faithful, and their relics are to be revered,—that the images of Chriſt, the Virgin Mary, and other ſaints, are to be honoured and had in veneration,—that Chriſt left the power of indulgences, for the benefit of Chriſtian people,—that the holy, catholic, and apoſtolic Roman church, is the mother and miſtreſs of all churches, and that true obedience is to be paid to the biſhop of Rome, as the ſucceſſor of St. Peter, the prince of the apoſtles, and the vicar of Jeſus Chriſt,—believes all that the councils, canons, and holy ſynod of Trent, enjoin, and condemn and reject all other things contrary thereto. The whole of the confeſſion of faith, from which the above articles are extracted, was delivered to the conclave by pope Pius IV. in 1560, previous to his election.

We ſhall conclude this head with an account of an Engliſh traveller, who, ſpeaking of a religious proceſſion ſome years ago at Florence, in Italy, deſcribes it in the following manner: "I had occaſion, ſays he, to ſee a proceſſion, where all the nobleſſe of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniverſary of a charitable inſtitution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About 200 of theſe virgins walked in proceſſion, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in ſackcloth, with lighted tapers, and monks with crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies: but the greateſt object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, ſtanding within a gilt frame, dreſſed in a gold ſtuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of falſe jewels,

her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the faſhion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the croſs; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the ſhoulders of three or four luſty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt."

The Inquiſition in Italy is little more than a ſound. The papal power, as we have already hinted, is now evidently at a low ebb. The order of Jeſuits, who are not improperly called its Janiſſaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but juſt tolerated in other Popiſh countries. The pope himſelf is treated by Roman-Catholic princes with very little more ceremony than is due to him as biſhop of Rome, and poſſeſſed of a temporal principality. This humiliation, it is reaſonable to believe, will terminate in a total ſeparation from the holy ſee of all its foreign emoluments, which even, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were immenſe, and to the reducing his holineſs to the exerciſe of his eccleſiaſtical functions as firſt biſhop of Chriſtendom.

In Italy, there are thirty-eight archbiſhoprics, but the number of ſuffragans, though very great, cannot be aſcertained, as the creation or ſuppreſſion of them depends entirely on the pleaſure of the pope.

The Italian language, which in the preſent age is ſo much admired for its ſoftneſs, and ſpoken by the accompliſhed in moſt parts of Europe, is originally the old Latin, blended and corrupted with the jargons of the northern nations that over-ran this country after the declenſion of the Roman empire; but poliſhed, refined, and improved ſo, as to render it ſoft, ſmooth, harmonious, and the beſt adapted to poetry and muſic of any in the world. Almoſt every ſtate in Italy has a different dialect: the Tuſcan ſtyle and dialect is moſt in requeſt at preſent. The affinity between the Italian and the ancient Latin, will appear by the following ſpecimen of their Lord's prayer: "Padre noſtro, che ſei nel cielo, ſia ſanctificato ill tuo nome; ill tuo regno venga; la tua volunta ſia ſatta ſic come in cielo coſi anche in terra; dacci oggi ill noſtro pane cotidiana; e rimettici i noſtri debita, ſic come noi ancora rimettiamo a' noſtri debitori; e non inducici in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perchiochè tuo è il regno, è la potenza, è la gloria in ſempiterno. Amen."

With reſpect to learning and learned men, no country has produced better hiſtorians and poets, both ancient and modern, than Italy. Among the former of theſe, are Cicero, Virgil, Horace, Livy, Tacitus, and Lucretius. After the reduction of the Roman empire, learning ſuffered a total eclipſe; but ſince the revival of it, ſome Italians have ſucceeded in controverſial learning, though they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own perſuaſion. Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and ſeveral others, have ſhone in the mathematics and natural philoſophy. Strada, Fra, Paoli, Guicciardin, Bentivoglio, Davila, and Machiavel, have all been celebrated as excellent hiſtorians; and the latter yields the palm to few of his ſucceſſors, either as a political or comic writer. Boccace has been eſteemed as one of the moſt pure and correct writers with reſpect to ſtyle: he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but wrote in too licentious a ſpirit. Metaſtaſio has acquired great reputation by his dramatic pieces ſet to muſic. Sannazarius, Fracaſtorius Bembo, Vida, and ſome others, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the elegance, correctneſs, and ſpirit of their Latin poetry; as Taſſo and Arioſto have for their Italian.

The painters, ſculptors, architects, and muſicians of Italy, have never yet been equalled by thoſe of any other nation. Raphael, Titian, Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veroneſe, and many more, remain unrivalled in the firſt of theſe arts, as Michael Angelo does in all three. Bramante, Bernini, with ſeveral more of their countrymen, carried ſculpture and architecture to an amazing degree of perfection. Their profeſſors of muſic, at the head of which ſtands Corelli, are almoſt innumerable, and moſt of them inimitable.

The univerſities in Italy are thoſe at Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Piſa, Naples, Salerno, and Peruſia. Piſa hath forty-ſix profeſſors.

The natural and artificial curioſities of Italy, both in ancient and modern times, are alike ſtupendous, great, and beautiful. Mount Veſuvius, five miles diſtant from Naples, is remarkable for its eruptions of fire from the top. Its height has been computed to be 3900 feet above the ſurface of the ſea. The younger Pliny, who was a witneſs to what he wrote, has given a ſtriking deſcription of its ravages in the year 79. In 1631 it broke out with great fury, and ſpread deſolation for ſeveral miles around. There was a ſtill greater eruption in 1694, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with ſo much force, that ſome of it extended thirty miles, and a vaſt quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it. In 1707 another eruption happened, when ſuch quantities of cinders and aſhes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon-day. A violent eruption in 1767, when the aſhes, or rather ſmall cinders, ſhowered down ſo faſt at Naples, that the people in the ſtreets were obliged to uſe umbrellas, or other coverings, to guard themſelves from hurt. The tops of the houſes, and the balconies, were covered with theſe cinders; and ſhips at ſea, twenty leagues from Naples, were alſo covered with them, to the great aſtoniſhment of the ſailors. This is reckoned to be the twenty-ſeventh eruption from that which deſtroyed Herculaneum in the time of Titus. The principal eruptions of modern times, which have been recorded, happened in the years 1766, 1767, 1779, and 1794; of theſe, the laſt in 1794, appears to have been the moſt tremendous, and wonderful, and the miſchief conſiderable; the lava covered, and totally deſtroyed, 5000 acres of rich vineyards and cultivated land, and drove the inhabitants of Torre del Greco from the town, moſt of the houſes being either buried, or ſo injured, as to be uninhabitable: the damage done to the vineyards by the aſhes, likewiſe was immenſe. The declivity of this mountain, towards the ſea, is every-where planted with vines and fruit-trees; and it has been obſerved, that the ſulphureous and nitrous manure, which proceeds from this raging volcano, and the heat of its ſubterraneous fires, contribute not a little to the uncommon fertility of the circumjacent country, and to the profuſion of fruits and herbage with which it is every-where covered.

The other remarkable burning mountain is that of Ætna, in Sicily, of a circular form, and terminates in a cone: it is 10,954 feet in height, and has been computed to be ſixty miles in compaſs. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it celebrated in hiſtory: in one of theſe, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were deſtroyed, and there have been ſeveral terrible eruptions ſince that time. An earthquake, very deſtructive in its effects, commonly precedes the erruption from this mountain. In 1693, the port-town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people periſhed. The lower parts of the mountain are very fruitful in corn and ſugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is almoſt the whole year covered with ſnow. Mount Ætna is by the Italians called Monte Gibello, or Mongibello: it is ſo high, that it harbours many wild beaſts.

The valley of Soltafara, between the lakes Agnano and Puzzeli, is remarkable for the vaſt quantities of ſulphur that are continually forced out of the clifts by ſubterraneous fires. The grotto del Cani is alſo noted

noted for its poiſonous ſtreams, and is ſo called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and ſerpents, are ſaid to be very numerous in Apulia. To the natural curioſities of Italy, we may likewiſe add thoſe vaſt bodies of ſnow and ice called glaciers and ice-vallies. Of theſe there are five, which reach almoſt to the plain of the vale of Chomouny, and are ſeparated by wild foreſts, corn fields, and rich meadows; the whole affording a very romantic and ſtriking appearance. Theſe ſeveral vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are ſome leagues in length unite together at the foot of Mount Blanc; the higheſt mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world; its height, above the level of the ſea, being 2391¼ French toiſes, or 15,303 Engliſh feet.

A great variety of artificial curioſities, and monuments of antiquity, are to be found in the city of Rome only; among which are, the acqueducts and fountains; the vatican, and the other palaces; the marble monument of the emperor Alexander Severus; marble buſts of the emperors and their conſorts; three brick arches of the temple of Peace, built by the emperor Veſpaſian, and that of Concord; the Coliſeo, or amphitheatre, built by the emperor Veſpaſian, in the conſtruction of which 12,000 Jewiſh captives were employed; it is ſaid to have contained 87,000 ſpectators ſeated, and 20,000 ſtanding; Indeed it muſt be allowed, that no city in the univerſe equals Rome for the multiplicity of fine fountains, noble edifices, antiquities, curioſities, paintings, ſtatues, ſculptures, &c. The cloacæ or catacombs, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples, were places where the Chriſtians who never burned their dead, and ſuch of the Pagan Romans as could not afford the expence of burning, were buried; they are long narrow alleys, ſcarcely broad enough for two perſons to go abreaſt, but ſufficiently high for the talleſt man to ſtand upright. They extend a prodigious way under ground. On each ſide are three holes or cavities, each of which will contain the coffin of a full-grown perſon. The cave of Pauſilippo is a broad, ſtraight, ſubterraneous road, hewn through a mountain. Two holes on each ſide admit air and light. This cave is, at the entrance, 100 feet high, but diminiſhes; and the whole, which is paved with broad ſtones, is about half a mile long.

An inexhauſtible mine of curioſities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Veſuvius, which, in the reign of Nero, was almoſt totally deſtroyed by an earthquake; and afterwards, in the firſt year of the reign of Titus Veſpaſian, overwhelmed by a ſtream of the lava of Veſuvius. The ſtreets and houſes, in ſome places, were filled up with the melted lava to the height of ſixty feet above the tops of the latter, and in others 110 feet. This lava, which is now of a very hard conſiſtency, is compoſed of bituminous particles mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified ſandy ſubſtances, which form a cloſe and heavy maſs. In 1713, upon digging into theſe parts, ſomewhat of this unfortunate city was diſcovered, and many antiquities were dug out; but the people of Italy being for the moſt part indifferent about objects of antiquity, the ſearch was diſcontinued till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but alſo the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then diſcovered, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a ſtatue of gold, and the inſcription that decorated the great door of entrance. In the theatre, the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horſes of the ſame metal, likewiſe gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. Multitudes of ſtatues, buſtoes, pillars, paintings, manuſcripts, furniture, and various utenſils, were likewiſe found among the ruins of this city. The ſtreets appear to have been quite ſtraight and regular, the houſes well built and uniform; ſome of the rooms were paved with moſaic, others with fine marbles, others again with bricks three feet long and ſix inches thick. The town of Pompia was deſtroyed by the ſame eruption of Mount Veſuvius, which occaſioned the deſtruction of Herculaneum; but the ruins were not diſcovered till near forty years after thoſe of Herculaneum.

Each city and town of Italy contains many rarities in architecture, painting, and ſculpture. St. Peter's church at Rome is thought to be the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric in the univerſe. The height, from the pavement of the church to the top of the croſs, is 432 feet. In this church is a ſuperb white marble monument of the counteſs Matilda. The houſe and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithſtanding the ridiculous romance which compoſes its hiſtory. The name Loretto is derived from Laurita, the lady in whoſe field the ſanta caſa was pitched before the reformation; the number of pilgrims, who viſited the holy houſe in a year, is ſaid to have amounted to 200,000; but now they ſeldom exceed 40, or 50,000.

Every Italian ſtate having a diſtinct form of govèrnment, trade, and intereſt, that the reader may be the better enabled to form an idea of the whole, we ſhall take a diſtinct view of each.

The king of Sardinia, as duke of Savoy and prince of Piedmont, has always been conſidered as a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, againſt the French. Turin, his capital city, contains 110 churches or chapels, ſeveral hoſpitals, and about 65,000 inhabitants. The approach to it is magnificent, and the environs beautiful, though thick fogs from the two rivers are frequent in autumn and winter; ſo that the air of Turin is then very thick and moiſt. The four gates are highly ornamental; the ſtreets in the New Town are wide, ſtraight, clean, having plenty of water running through them, well built, in a good taſte, chiefly of brick ſtuccoed, and generally terminating in ſome agreeable object. No inhabitant can rebuild or repair his houſe but on an uniform plan, laid down by government, for the improvement of the city. The fortifications of Turin are regular, and kept in excellent repair. The citadel is a regular pentagon, conſiſting of five ſtrong baſtions, and is reputed one of the ſtrongeſt in Europe. At the end next the new gate is the arſenal, which beſides the armories found in ſuch places, contains a cabinet of minerals, a good chemical laboratory, a library of books in mineralogy and metallurgy, and furnaces for caſting cannon: here, alſo, are mathematical, mechanical, and other maſters, for the inſtruction of engineers, miners, &c. The garriſon of Turin is always changed at the end of two years, and then there is a general review. The univerſity was founded firſt in the year 1405, and conſiſts of ſchools, wherein twenty-four profeſſors read lectures, from the 3d of November to the 24th of June; of the royal library, wherein are about 50,000 volumes of printed books, beſides manuſcripts: this is open every day, except holidays, both morning and afternoon. The royal muſeum has a good cabinet of medals, and a collection of antiquities, found chiefly in Piedmont or Sardinia, and elegantly arranged: alſo of natural hiſtory, as ſhells, and Engliſh minerals, poliſhed marbles, and hard ſtones, petrifactions, corals, zoophytes, and ſome minerals, collected by Donati, in the Adriatic; alſo, ſome cheſts of natural curioſities, which Donati, during his travels in Egypt and Arabia, ſent from Goa. In the military academy, young gentlemen, both natives and ſtrangers, may be inſtructed in the exerciſes at a moderate expence, the king defraying a part of the charge attending this inſtitution. The king's palace is in a ſimple and noble ſtyle of architecture. The apartments are handſomely fitted up and furniſhed: the ceilings painted by Daniele di Sancterre and others. They

contain

contain a great collection of pictures, among which are many good ones. The king's theatre, or great opera-houſe, is reckoned one of the fineſt in Europe. The buildings which are moſt eſteemed in point of architecture, are, the palace of the duke of Savoy, called Caſtello Reale, by Filippo Giuvara; the Carignano palace, by Guarini; the buildings of the univerſity, and the town-houſe. There is a literary ſociety at Turin, who have publiſhed memoirs, under the title of *Miſcellanea Philoſophico-Mathematica*. The chief trade of the city and country is in thrown ſilk, which is ſent to England and Lyons; they manufacture, however, ſome of it into excellent ſtockings, and good ſilk for furniture. In the year 1536, Turin was taken by the French, and again in the year 1640, after a long ſiege. In the year 1706, the ſame enemy made another attempt, but after beſieging it upwards of three months, under the conduct of the duke of Orleans, they were driven away, with great loſs, by the duke of Savoy and Prince Eugene. The king's ordinary revenue, beſides his own family provinces, amounts to 500,000l. ſterling at leaſt, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace; but, during a war, when aſſiſted by foreign ſubſidies, he can bring 40,000 men into the field. This prince has long been an ally of Great Britain, for the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, and to that circumſtance, in which alſo his natural intereſt conſiſts, he principally owes his aggrandizement.—The king being abſolute, can levy what monies he pleaſes upon his ſubjects.

The Milaneſe, in the poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria, is a very formidable ſtate; and formerly, when governed by its own dukes, gave law, to Italy.—Milan, its capital, is fortified with a wall and rampart; and has a citadel, in which is a foundery for cannon, and an arſenal furniſhed with arms for 12,000 men. The environs are very pleaſant, being adorned with beautiful ſeats, gardens, orchards, &c. Here are 22 gates, 230 churches, of which 96 are parochial, 90 convents, 100 religious fraternities, 120 ſchools, and about 250,000 inhabitants. The nobility are very numerous, and few places can claim ſuch a freedom of living and acting as one pleaſes. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Maria and Thecla, is more remarkable for its largeneſs than its grandeur; at leaſt this grandeur wants order, the church being a vaſt pile of marble, which, with the ſtatues, alſo of marble, is diſpoſed without taſte or regularity. Its treaſury, of great value, contains, among other precious things, the almoſt invaluable coffin of rock cryſtal, wherein the body of St. Charles Boromeo, cardinal and archbiſhop of Milan, is depoſited. The chief church for antiquity is that of St. Ambroſe, where lie the bodies of that father, and the kings Pepin and Bernard. The Ambroſian college, in the centre of the town, is a foundation of Frederic Boromeo, where ſixteen profeſſors teach gratis. He alſo began to build a fine library, which cardinal Gilbert Boromeo finiſhed, with many large additions It is ſaid to contain upwards of 40,000 printed volumes, and ſome thouſands of manuſcripts. In this college is alſo an academy of painting, and a muſeum. The ſeminary for ſciences, where the ſtudents are both taught and maintained, and the college of the nobles, are ſtately buildings; but inferior to the Helvetian college, founded for a certain number of Switzers. Here is alſo a mathematical academy. The large lazaret is only made uſe of in time of any reigning contagious diſorder. The great hoſpital is a very fine building, and very liberally endowed by duke Francis Sforția IV. Its income is ſaid to be between ninety and 100,000 rix-dollars. And into it are admitted, not only ſick perſons, but alſo foundlings and lunatics. Here are alſo ſeveral other receptacles for the poor and diſtreſſed. The large hoſpital has ſix ſmaller depending on it. In the Dominican convent, near the church of Madonna della gratia, is held the court of inquiſition. Among the civil buildings is the old and ſpacious regency-houſe, near the cathedral, now the uſual reſidence of the governor-general; alſo the new and ſtately town-houſe, where ſtands an equeſtrian ſtatue of Philip II. This city, which was built by the Gauls, in the three hundred and ninety-fifth year after the foundation of Rome, was ſince beſieged forty times, taken twenty times, and four times almoſt totally demoliſhed; to which may be added, a multiplicity of other misfortunes it had been involved in, but out of which it always recovered. Here are manufacturers, artificers, and handicraftſmen of all kinds; beſides ſeveral rivers and many canals, all which are very inſtrumental to promote and increaſe its trade. The annual revenue of the duchy is above 300,000l. by which an army of 30,000 men is maintained. The beggars here aſk alms by holding out a diſh, in which is placed a human ſkull. The duchy of Mantua being now incorporated with the Milaneſe, the name of Auſtrian Lombardy is given to the whole province.

Genoa was once a very powerful republic, but is now greatly degenerated both in ſtrength and opulence, though the ſpirit of trade ſtill continues among all ranks. The capital is about ten miles in circumference, and defended towards the land by a double wall. Several baſtions are erected along the ſea ſhore, on rocks which riſe above the water. The ſtreets are in general narrow, but clean and well paved; two, called the Strada Nuova and Strada Balbi, are filled with magnificent palaces, fronted with marble. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop. The cathedral is built in the Gothic ſtyle, and paved with black and white marble, in the treaſury of which is preſerved a curious hexagon diſh, ſaid to be of a ſingle emerald, found at Ceſarea in the time of the cruſades, which the Genoeſe received as their ſhare of the plunder. Beſides the cathedral, it contains thirty-two pariſh churches, many of which are magnificent, and adorned with ſculptures and pictures by the beſt maſters. The doge's palace is large, without decoration, except two ſtatues of John Andrew Doria and Andrew Doria, larger than life, at the entrance. The arſenal contains arms for 24,000 men, machines, models for bridges, the armour worn by a number of Genoeſe women in the cruſades, a ſhield containing 120 piſtols, made by Julius Ceſar Vacche, for the purpoſe of aſſaſſinating the doge and ſenate at one time, &c. Other public buildings are the Albergo, which ſerves as a poor-houſe and houſe of correction; a large hoſpital for the ſick of all nations and religions; the Conſervatory, for educating and portioning 300 poor girls; and a great number of palaces belonging to the nobility. They reckon at Genoa ſixty-nine convents of men and women. The number of inhabitants is eſtimated 150,000. The chief ſafety of this republic conſiſts in the jealouſy of other European powers, becauſe it would be a moſt valuable acquiſition to any of them. Its maritime power is dwindled down to ſix gallies. The government of this country is ariſtocratical, being veſted in the nobility: the chief perſon is called the doge, or duke, to which dignity no one can be promoted till he is fifty years of age. The doge gives audience to ambaſſadors; all orders of government are iſſued in his name, and he is allowed a body guard of 200 Germans. Every two years a new doge is elected, and the former is deemed incapable of holding the ſame poſt again till after five years. The empire of the ſea was for many years diſputed between this ſtate and that of Venice.

The republic of Venice is one of the moſt celebrated in the world, on account of its conſtitution and the power it once poſſeſſed. It contains ſeveral fine provinces on the continent of Italy, ſome iſlands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The conſtitution was originally democratical, the magiſtrates being choſen by a general aſſembly of the people, and continued thus for 150 years; but, after various changes, a body of hereditary legiſlative nobility was formed, and a complete ariſtocracy at length eſtabliſhed

A View of FLORENCE on the RIVER ARNO the Capital of TUSCANY in ITALY.

liſhed. The nobility are divided into ſix claſſes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, at 25 years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. Theſe elect a doge, or chief magiſtrate, in a peculiar manner, by ballot. The doge is inveſted with great ſtate, and with the emblems of ſupreme authority. He annually, on Aſcenſion-day, eſpouſes the Adriatic ſea, by dropping into it a ring from his bucentaur, or ſtate-barge, attended by thoſe of all the nobility. But notwithſtanding the inſignia of royalty with which the doge is inveſted, he enjoys very little power, and is ſhut up in the city as a priſoner, while the government and laws are managed by different councils and nobles. The college, or ſeignory, is the ſupreme cabinet council of the ſtate, and alſo the repreſentative of the republic: its power is very extenſive. The council of ten takes cognizance of ſtate crimes. But the tribunal of ſtate inquiſitors, which conſiſts only of three members, and which is in the higheſt degree arbitrary in its method of proceeding, has the power of deciding without appeal on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian ſtate; the higheſt of the nobility, not excepting even the doge himſelf: they may ſeize ſuſpected perſons, and try and execute thoſe whom they think worthy of puniſhment, when they think proper. Having keys to every apartment of the palace, they have liberty to penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers; and, of courſe, may command acceſs to the houſe of every individual in the ſtate. They continue in office only one year, but are not afterwards reſponſible for their conduct while in authority.

The city of Venice is ſituated on 72 iſlands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic ſea, and is ſeparated from the continent by a marſhy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too ſhallow for large ſhips to navigate, which forms its chief ſtrength. This city contains 70 pariſh churches, beſides others; 54 convents of monks, 26 nunneries, 17 rich hoſpitals, 18 oratories, 40 religious fraternities, with their chapels: 53 ſquares, 165 marble, and 20 half ſtatues. The buildings, indeed, are all of ſtone; but the greater part make ſo mean a figure, that this city, in point of beauty and elegance, can in no wiſe ſtand the teſt with many others. St. Mark's ſquare is very fine, and ſo are the ſeveral ſtately marble palaces that border upon the great canal, though moſt of them are of Gothic architecture. They have had, however, lately, ſome ſpirited differences with the court of Rome, and ſeem diſpoſed to throw off their obedience to its head. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public places, the treaſury, and the arſenal, are beyond expreſſion. Over the ſeveral canals of Venice are laid near 590 bridges, moſt of which are of ſtone. All the orders of Venetian nobility are dreſſed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands.

With reſpect to their perſons, the Venetians are in general tall and well made, and many fine manly countenances are ſeen in the ſtreets of Venice; they are alſo a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amuſements, with an uncommon reliſh for humour. The women are of a fine ſtyle of countenance, with expreſſive features, and are of an eaſy addreſs. The common people are remarkably ſober, obliging to ſtrangers, and gentle in their intercourſe with each other. The diverſions of the Venetians are chiefly maſquerading, eſpecially during the carnivals, and other feſtivals, when debauchery, riot, and licentiouſneſs are ſaid to be carried to their greateſt height; but this opinion ſeems to exceed the truth: they have alſo ridottos, operas, and plays, which are commonly wretched performances. There are eight or nine theatres here, including the opera houſes. Great numbers of ſtrangers viſit Venice during the time of the carnival. The grand ſcene of all the ſhews and follies during the feſtivals, is the ſquare of St Mark, in which bulls are ſometimes baited, and where, at ſuch times, 15,000 people, it is ſaid, often aſſemble. The inhabitants, who are computed at 200,000, walk on foot, except the principal ladies of faſhion, who are carried in chairs, the ſtreets being too narrow, ſteep, and crooked, to admit of wheel carriages.

The Venetians have ſtill ſome manufactures in ſcarlet cloth, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and, above all, fine looking glaſſes, all which bring in a conſiderable revenue to the owners; that of the ſard annually is ſaid to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at 20d. of our money: out of this are defrayed the expences of the ſtate, and the pay of the army, which, in time of peace, conſiſts of 16,000 regular troops, under the command of a foreign general, and 10,000 militia. Their fleet, which is but ſmall, principally conſiſts of gallies, for curbing the inſolencies of the piratical ſtates of Barbary. The Venetians are, however, ſtill reckoned the greateſt naval power in Italy.

Here are two patriarchs, which preſide over eccleſiaſtical matters; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are choſen by the ſenate: every religious ſect, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting Proteſtants, are tolerated here in the free exerciſe of their religion. The inquiſition is under great reſtrictions here.

The Venetian dominions conſiſt of a conſiderable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the iſlands of Corfu, Pachſu, Antipachſu, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante. Their territories in Italy contain, beſides the duchy of Venice, the Paduaneſe, the peninſula of Rovigo, the Veroneſe, the territories of Vicenza and Breſcia, the diſtricts of Bergamo, Cremaſco, and the Marca Trurgiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The ſubjects of the Venetian republic are not oppreſſed; the ſenate being ſenſible, that mild and gentle treatment conduce more effectually than ſeverity to the welfare of the ſtate and the happineſs of individuals. One of the ſmalleſt pieces of money at Venice is called gazetta; and the firſt news-papers publiſhed there, on a ſingle leaf, having been ſold for that apiece, news-papers were from thence ſtyled gazettes.

The grand duchy of Tuſcany is now poſſeſſed by a younger branch of the houſe of Auſtria, under the title of grand duke of Tuſcany. Its annual revenues are, at preſent, computed at 550,000l. ſterling; and it is thought that the duchy of Tuſcany can bring 30,000 men into the field. The inhabitants affect great ſtate, but do not eſteem trade as beneath the firſt nobleman. Accordingly, it is not uncommon for the gentry, and even ſome of the nobility, to ſell wine by retail from their cellars. But the principal trade of this duchy is carried on at Leghorn, a handſome town, and a free-port, ſituated in the territories of Piſa, about thirty-five miles ſouth-weſt of Florence. The number of inhabitants in Leghorn are ſaid to be about 40,000, among whom are reckoned 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handſome ſynagogue, and, though ſubject to very heavy taxes, are in a thriving condition, the greateſt part of the commerce of this city being carried on by theſe people.

Florence, the capital of Tuſcany, is ſituated on the river Arno, over which are four ſtone bridges, and defended by a good citadel. The ſtreets, in general, are very narrow and crooked, are paved with a greyiſh ſtone, and are tolerably clean. There are a great number of palaces, churches, convents, and hoſpitals: the cathedral is a very noble edifice, the outſide is entirely built with poliſhed marble, and enriched with exquiſite architecture and ſculpture; and from the ball over the cupola, there is a delightful proſpect of all the palaces, churches, monaſteries, &c. within the walls, and of near two thouſand villas without. By

the church ſtands the much celebrated Campanile, or ſquare ſteeple, which is one hundred and eighty feet high, all of fine marble, of ſeveral colours, and curiouſly wrought. The baptiſtery, or fount, where all the children of the city are baptized, is well worthy attention. The reſt of the churches in general are very beautiful, and contain many fine paintings and other pieces of art. This city was long poſſeſſed by the illuſtrious houſe of Medicis, who made it the repoſitory of all that was valuable, rich, and maſterly in architecture, literature, and arts, eſpecially thoſe of painting and ſculpture. The celebrated Venus of Medicis, which has long been conſidered as the ſtandard of taſte in female beauty and proportion, ſtands in a room called the Tribunal, in a group of other ancient ſtatues, ſome of which are ſaid to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek maſters. It is of white marble, and appears, from an inſcription on the baſe of the ſtatue, to have been the performance of Cleomenes, an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. The duke has alſo ſeveral noble country ſeats, enriched and adorned in the ſame magnificent manner. The arſenal is a ſtately building, and well furniſhed with all ſorts of weapons of war. Florence is adorned with ſeven fountains, ſix columns, two pyramids, and about an hundred and ſixty public ſtatues. The great piazza, or ſquare, is very ſpacious and magnificent, with a noble fountain in the centre of it. The city is thought to contain 70,000 inhabitants. They deal, beſides wine and fruits, in gold and ſilver ſtuffs. The inhabitants boaſt of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Cruſca: ſeveral other academies are now eſtabliſhed in Florence. Since the acceſſion of the archduke Leopold, brother of the preſent emperor, to this duchy, a great reformation has been introduced, both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. The other principal towns of Tuſcany are Piſa, and Sienna, which are now much decayed.

Lucca is a ſmall republic, under the protection of the emperor, and ſituated on the Tuſcan ſea, in a moſt delightful plain. It is not above thirty Italian miles in circumference, but exceeding fruitful and populous. The inhabitants, who are ſaid to amount to upwards of 120,000, are remarkable for their induſtry and love of liberty: being in full poſſeſſion of freedom, they appear with an air of cheerfulneſs and plenty, ſeldom to be met with among their neighbours. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, ſo that the annual revenue of the ſtate amounts to 80,000l. ſterling. They are under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria. Their capital, Lucca, is an ancient city about three Italian miles in circumference. The houſes, in general, are well built, the ſtreets broad and well paved, but irregular, and the number of inhabitants about 40,000. Several manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of ſilk, are carried on here; and the fineſt oil of any in Italy is made in this republic.

St. Marino may be conſidered as a geographical curioſity, conſiſting only of a ſingle mountain, and a few hillocks ſcattered round the bottom of it. The founder of this republic was a Dalmatian maſon, called Marino, who, about the year 460, turned hermit, and choſe this mnuntain for the place of his abode. His devotion and auſterity ſoon gained him a great reputation for ſanctity, and the princeſs of that country made him a preſent of the mountain. Many, out of veneration for the ſaint, ſettled there, and laid the foundation of a republic which ſtill ſubſiſts, and bears the name of the ſaint. The town is ſituated on the ſummit of the mountain, and can be approached by one path only. It is under the protection of the pope, and the number of inhabitants are computed at 5000. The manners of this people are very inoffenſive, and the government is in the hands of a council, compoſed of half nobles and half plebeians.

Parma, Placentia, and Guaſtalla, form at preſent one of the moſt flouriſhing ſtates in Italy, for its extent. The preſent duke is a prince of the houſe of Bourbon, and ſon to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. The ſoil is remarkably fertile, produces the fineſt fruits and richeſt paſturage, and the country contains conſiderable manufactures of ſilk. The annual revenues are computed at 100,000l. ſterling. Parma is ſuppoſed to contain 50,000 inhabitants, and Placentia about 28,000. Here is a biſhop's ſee and an univerſity; and ſome of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings: but his Catholic majeſty, on his acceſſion to the throne of Naples, carried away with him many of the moſt remarkable pictures and moveable curioſities. The duke's court is thought to be the politeſt of any in Italy. This country was for ſome years paſt the ſeat of a bloody war between the Auſtrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans.

Mantua is about fifty miles in length, and thirty-five in breadth. The Po runs through the midſt of it, and it is alſo watered by other rivers, as the Oglio, Mincio, Secchia, &c. all of which empty themſelves into the Po. The land abounds in corn, fruits, and legumes, with ſome wine, great quantities of flax, and a number of good horſes. By an order of the emperor in 1785, this duchy is incorporated with that of Milan into one province, and is now to be called Auſtrian Lombardy. It formerly brought to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year. This city is divided by the water into two almoſt equal parts, which have a communication with each other over ſix bridges. The greater part of the ſtreets are long, broad, and ſtraight, with handſome ſtone houſes, fine ſquares, and ſtately churches. Here are, in all, four collegiate churches, twenty-one parochial, fourteen other churches and alms-houſes, eleven oratories, forty convents; and without the city three pariſh churches, two other churches, and ſeven convents. The Jews, of whom there are about four or five thouſand, live in a diſtinct quarter. The number of the inhabitants, excluſive of the garriſon, was formerly computed at 50,000. But ſince no court has been kept, the number has ſo dwindled away, that now the inhabitants ſcarcely exceed ſixteen thouſand. In the cathedral, which is a work of Julio Romano, are ſeen paintings of the moſt celebrated maſters.

Modena is ſtill governed by its own duke; he is abſolute within his own dominions; but a vaſſal of the empire, and under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria. The capital, alſo called Modena, is a pretty large and populous city, but the ſtreets are narrow, and the houſes without beauty or ſymmetry. Throughout all parts it has piazzas, but the walks are both low and dark. The churches alſo have little or nothing worth notice. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of the archbiſhop of Bologna. In a chamber under the cathedral tower, the Secchia rapita, ſo much talked of in travels, is ſeen hung up by an iron chain. This Secchia rapita is nothing more than a well-bucket, with iron-hoops, which was taken in a petty war, from the inhabitants of Bologna, at one of their doors, and is here preſerved as a monument of courage and victory. In the college founded by St. Boromeo, ſeventy or eighty young noblemen are maintained and inſtructed. The ducal palace is large and ſplendid. The picture gallery, including the lobby, conſiſts of ſix rooms, all filled with ſelect pieces of the moſt famous maſters. The moſt admired is Corregio's night-piece, repreſenting the birth of Chriſt, with the Virgin Mary and the Shepherds. The city is fortified, and on its ſouth ſide ſtands the citadel.

The Eccleſiaſtical State, of which Rome is the capital, lies in the centre of Italy. Under the ancient Romans this ſpot was a terreſtrial paradiſe. Here moſt of the beautiful villas of antiquity were ſituated, and every part of it cultivated with the moſt

aſſiduous

Nash Sc

ROME IN ITS ORIGINAL SPLENDOR.

With a View of the Temple of Vesta. The Imperial Palace. The Fountain of Medicinal Water. The Arch of Trajan. And the Tomb of Oestius.

aſſiduous care; but Popiſh ſuperſtition, bigotry, and oppreſſion, have rendered it thin of people, and ill cultivated; ſo that many of the luxuriant tracts are now become marſhes and quagmires, whoſe putrid effluvia render the capital itſelf very unhealthy at ſome ſeaſons of the year. Several of the popes have endeavoured to improve their country, and revive that ſpirit of induſtry which was ſo prevalent in former times, but their labours have proved abortive. Indeed the diſcouragement of induſtry and agriculture, ſeems to be interwoven in the very conſtitution of the papal government, which is veſted in eccleſiaſtics. This beautiful country is now a mere deſert, and the wretched inhabitants muſt periſh with want, did not the amazing fertility of the ſoil ſpontaneouſly afford them a ſcanty ſubſiſtence.

Though the pope is truly deſpotic, and poſſeſſes one of the moſt fertile countries in the world, the revenues of his territorial poſſeſſions do not amount to more than a million ſterling annually. His accidental income indeed formerly far exceeded that ſum; but this is now greatly diminiſhed by the ſeparation of the Proteſtant powers, and the meaſures lately taken by thoſe that ſtill profeſs the Romiſh religion, to prevent the great remittances of money to Rome; add to this, the almoſt total ſuppreſſion of the order of Jeſuits, from whom he drew vaſt ſupplies; ſo that the taxes upon proviſions and lodgings furniſhed to foreigners, who annually ſpend immenſe ſums in viſiting his dominions, form, at preſent, the greater part of the pope's accidental revenues.

The pope has his guards, or Sbirri, like other princes, and theſe, under proper magiſtrates, take care of the peace of the capital. The Campagna di Roma, in which the capital is ſituated, is under the immediate inſpection of his holineſs; but the other provinces are governed by legates and vice-legates. He monopolizes all the corn in his territories, and has always a ſufficient number of troops to keep the provinces in awe. Few manufactures are carried on in the Eccleſiaſtical State, conſequently its exports are of little value. Formerly all the Chriſtian powers of Europe trembled at the nod of the pope, but affairs have now taken a very different turn; and his power, which, as a temporal prince, has been for ſome years contemptible, may probably be ſtill more abridged. The late pope, Clement XIV. very wiſely diſclaimed all intention of oppoſing the forces of the adjacent princes, with any other arms but thoſe of prayers and ſupplications. The pope's eccleſiaſtical government has been already mentioned.

Rome, the capital of the Eccleſiaſtical State, is ſituated on the Tyber, ten miles from the Tuſcan ſea. In the magnificence of its buildings, the number of its monuments, curioſities, and antiquities, together with the ſingularity and importance of its hiſtorical events, it far ſurpaſſes any city in the world. It is the centre and repoſitory as it were of all that is exquiſite in painting, ſculpture, and architecture. From an account taken in the year 1787, the number of its inhabitants was found to amount to 160,000. The Tyber runs through the city from north to ſouth, forming an iſland.

In external ſplendor, and the magnificence of its temples and palaces, modern Rome is, at leaſt, equal to, if it does not excel, the ancient. The number of the churches are computed at about three hundred, the nobleſt and moſt elegantly beautiful is St. Peter's which for the harmony of its architecture, fineneſs and great variety of carved and gilt works, paintings, ſtatues, &c. cannot be viewed without a pleaſing aſtoniſhment. Before it is a ſpacious and magnificent piazza, in the middle of which is an obeliſk of granate or black marble, brought from Egypt, and reared at a prodigious expence. It is eighty feet high, and the pedeſtal on which it ſtands is thirty; on the top of it is a braſs gilt croſs. The annual revenue belonging to this church is upwards of 20,0000l. The Pantheon, commonly called the Rotunda, though it has loſt much of its priſtine grandeur, is ſtill one of the moſt entire ſtructures of the ancients in Italy. The citizens of Rome are more polite than in any other place in Europe; and are ſaid to be entirely free from that ſpirit of bigotry and perſecution which prevails in other Roman-Catholic countries. Here is plenty of all ſorts of proviſions, and a great variety of excellent wines; but in Rome they are drunk very moderately, and generally mixed with water.

Bologna, the capital of the Bologneſe, is the ſecond city in the Eccleſiaſtical State. The number of its inhabitants is computed at upwards of eighty thouſand. The fortifications are very inconſiderable, being only defended by a ſtrong, high brick wall, adorned with a great number of towers at certain diſtances. There are many fine palaces, convents, churches in Bologna, adorned with a prodigious variety of fine paintings, ſtatues, &c. The palace where the governor reſides, and the courts of juſtice are held, ſtands in the great market-place, and is 208 common paces in length. Here is an univerſity, and a muſeum. The inns at Bologna are the beſt in Italy, and all kinds of proviſions are very plentiful. The inhabitants of Bologna are more induſtrious than in other parts of Italy, and remarkably polite to ſtrangers; the women enjoy a great ſhare of liberty; and the nuns are particularly ingenious in making artificial flowers, and imitating all kinds of fruits.

Ferrara, Ravenna, Rimini, Urbino, Ancona, and many other cities, illuſtrious in former times, now exhibit a melancholy ſcene of ruin and devaſtation.

Loretto, never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, the prodigious reſort of pilgrims, and other devotees, to pay their devotions; it having been induſtriouſly reported by the Romiſh clergy, that the Santa Caſa, or Holy Houſe, in which the Virgin Mary dwelt at Nazareth, was carried hither through the air by angels, towards the end of the thirteenth century, attended with many miraculous circumſtances. The votive pieces and jewels in this holy houſe and treaſury, are of immenſe value, being the offerings of princes, princeſſes, and other great perſonages: the riches contained in the treaſury are valued at nine millions of rix-dollars. Seventeen golden lamps are continually burning before the Virgin, and thirty-ſeven ſilver ones in the other parts of the houſe. The gold chains, rings, jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith the image of the Holy Mother is, or was loaded, are of ineſtimable value; and the angels of ſolid gold, placed on every ſide, are equally enriched with the moſt precious diamonds. To the ſuperſtition of Roman-Catholic princes, Loretto is chiefly indebted for this maſs of treaſure. The pavement of this houſe is of ſquare pieces of red and white marble, and the whole is caſed on the outſide with the fineſt marble, adorned with ſtatues, ſculptures, and pillars of the Corinthian order; and over all is a fine ſpacious church, to preſerve it from the injuries of the weather. One hundred and twenty-three maſſes are daily ſaid in this church, and the Santa Caſa.

Naples and Sicily, or the Two Sicillies, comprehending the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna-Grecia, and the iſland of Sicily, form the largeſt kingdom in Italy, containing about 32,000 ſquare miles. This country is bounded on all ſides by the Mediterranean and Adriatic, except on the north-weſt, where it terminates on the Eccleſiaſtical State. The ſoil is very fruitful, and much better cultivated than in the Eccleſiaſtical State; and the annual revenues amount to about 750,000l. ſterling. The clergy are very numerous; but their influence and revenues have been lately abridged.

The capital is Naples, ſaid to be the firſt city for ſtrength and neatneſs in Italy. It is moſt advantageouſly

ouſly ſituated, having a delightful country on one ſide, and a noble bay of the Mediterranean on the other; with a ſpacious harbour, which is kept in good repair, and fortified with a mole, extending above a quarter of a mile into the ſea, and having at the extremity a high lantern to direct ſhips ſafely into the harbour during the night. The bay is one of the fineſt in the world, being almoſt of a ſemicircular figure, about thirty miles in diameter, and three parts of it ſheltered by a circuit of woods and mountains. The circumference of the city, including the ſuburbs, is not leſs than 18 Italian miles, and the number of inhabitants about 300,000. The ſtreets are well paved, but they are not lighted at night, and in many places are disfigured by ſtalls, on which proviſions are expoſed to ſale. The houſes are of ſtone, flat-roofed, and generally lofty and uniform; but many of them have balconies, with lattice windows. Naples abounds with fine churches, convents, fountains, and palaces of the nobility, many of whom conſtantly reſide here. The magnificence of many of the churches exceeds all imagination; the cathedral, though of the Gothic order, is a very grand, ſplendid edifice. The palace belonging to the king is very magnificent, and in the beſt ſtyle of architecture. Here is an univerſity and two academies of wits, one of which is called Gli Ardente, and the other Gli Otioſi. The arſenal is thought to contain arms for fifty thouſand men. There are five piazzas, or ſquares, in the city, appropriated to the nobility, viz. Capuana, Nido, Montagna, Porto, and Porta Nova. The inhabitants frequently walk on the tops of their houſes in the evening, to breathe the cool air, after a hot ſultry day; and from ſome of the religious houſes, there are ſeveral delightful proſpects. The climate is ſo mild and warm in winter, that plenty of green peaſe, artichokes, aſparagus, and other vegetables, may be had all the winter: the city is ſupplied with water by means of an aqueduct from the foot of Mount Veſuvius. The people uſe great quantities of ſnow inſtead of ice for cooling their liquors; and certain perſons who farm the monopoly of it from the government, ſupply the city all the year round from a mountain about eighteen miles diſtant.

The kingdom of Naples is a fief of the Eccleſiaſtical State, and his Neapolitan majeſty annually preſents the pope with a palfrey as an acknowledgment of his vaſſalage; but notwithſtanding this cuſtomary homage, his holineſs has no civil power in this kingdom, nor is the inquiſition eſtabliſhed in Naples. The king's preſent revenues amount to above 750,000l. ſterling per annum.

The exports of the kingdom are pulſe, hemp, aniſeed, wool, oil, wine, cheeſe, fiſh, honey, wax, manna, ſaffron, gums, capers, macaroni, ſalt, potaſh, flax, cotton, ſilk, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous, but generally poor nobility, conſiſting of princes, dukes, marquiſes, and other pompous titles; and his capital, by far the moſt populous in Italy, contains, at leaſt, 350,000 inhabitants; amongſt which are about 30,000 lazaroni, or blackguards, the greateſt part of whom, having no dwelling-houſes, ſleep in ſummer-nights under porticoes, piazzas, or wherever they can find ſhelter; and in the winter ſeaſon, which is generally of ſeveral weeks continuance, and attended with very heavy rains, they reſort to the caves under Capodi Monte, where they ſleep promiſcuouſly like ſheep in a fold: ſuch as have wives and children, live in the ſuburbs of Naples, near Pauſilippo, in huts, or in caves or holes dug out of that mountain. Some of theſe wretched beings gain a livelihood by fiſhing, others by carrying burthens to and from the ſhipping, and many ply in the ſtreets in order to be employed on errands, or perform any labour they are capable of for a very ſmall recompence; but as they do not always meet with employment, and what they gain not being ſufficient for their ſupport, they are in ſome degree relieved at the doors of the convents, by the ſoup and bread diſtributed there.

Notwithſtanding the lower claſs of people are ſo extremely indigent, there is a great appearance of wealth among ſome of the great, many of whom are exceſſively fond of ſplendor and ſhew, brilliant equipages, numerous attendants, rich dreſſes, and high-ſounding titles. A late traveller into theſe parts has made it appear that luxury has within theſe few years advanced with gigantic ſtrides in Naples: Forty years ago, ſays he, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbands on their heads as the Spaniſh women do to this day, and not twenty of them were poſſeſſed of a cap: but hair plainly dreſſed is a mode now confined to the loweſt order of inhabitants; and all diſtinction of dreſs between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aſide. Expence and extravagance are here in the extreme. The great families are oppreſſed with a load of debt; the working part of the community always ſpend the price of their labour before they receive it: and the citizen is reduced to great parſimony, and almoſt penury, in his houſe-keeping, in order to anſwer theſe demands of external ſhew: ſhort commons at home whet his appetite when invited out to dinner; and it is ſcarcely credible what quantities of victuals he will devour. The nobility in general are well ſerved, and live comfortably, but it is not their cuſtom to admit ſtrangers to their table; the number of poor dependents who dine with them, and cannot properly be introduced into company, prevents the great families from inviting foreigners; another reaſon may be, their ſleeping after dinner in ſo regular a manner as to undreſs and go to bed; no ladies or gentlemen finiſh their toilette till the afternoon, on which account they dine at twelve or one o'clock. The great officers of ſtate, and miniſters, live in a different manner, and keep ſumptuous tables, to which ſtrangers and others have frequent invitations."

The banditti of Naples are very numerous, and enjoy the protection of the people of quality, have a great number of aſylums or places of refuge, and are punctually paid for every murder they commit. But this reward is but a trifle; and often the price fixed upon a man's life, is only a couple of zechins (about 18s.) I myſelf have ſeen ſuch an act of horror. One night, when the opera being ended, the avenues to the theatre were full of people; two perſons, one of them an officer, were the deſtined victims; they were ſuffered very quietly to get into their carriage, and before the coachman could drive off, on account of the great crowds of people, two banditti approached at once the doors of the carriage, aimed and thruſt their daggers into the breaſts of two ſound, unſuſpecting perſons, and made them in a moment two dead corpſes. The day following a report was circulated all over the city, that the profligate and ruthleſs ſon of a great miniſter was the author of this more than ſavage aſſaſſination; yet the deed had no further conſequences.

It would be a miſtake to conſider theſe banditti as monſters. Although they are ſo in our idea, yet they themſelves, juſtified by education, laws, and religious notions, do not regard their *honeſt* profeſſion in ſo black a light. That they ſin in committing murder, they are perfectly ſenſible of, but it is only a ſin of which the next confeſſion-ſeat will clear them. Thus they have nothing to mind but their penitential acts, which the father confeſſors order them to perform; and to calculate the proportion between theſe, which moſtly conſiſt in prayers and the blood-money they have earned. As the greateſt part of theſe crimes remain unpuniſhed, and ſuch as are puniſhed conſiſt only in ſentencing the murderer to row the gallies for two or three years, I do not know what ſhould impreſs the ignorant banditto with a proper ſenſe of his infamous, deteſtable profeſſion. It being a more lucrative than honeſt employ, and the reward being gained

gained by idleneſs, a circumſtance ſo much attended to in this climate, they follow quietly their buſineſs, and continue murdering with the greateſt unconcern. But they never forget to put their roſary in the ſame place which hides the dagger, in order to atone immediately, by muttering ſome Ave Marias for the moſt heinous crimes they have committed. Having done this, the banditti clear themſelves of all ſins, and only wait for freſh opportunities of imbruing their guilty hands with innocent blood.

The great number of thoſe accidents made the people of Naples ſo indifferent about them, that ſtrangers are ſhocked at it. They ſpeak here of a man that has been murdered, nearly in the ſame tone as we do of a perſon who accidentally falls down in our ſtreets. If the murderer is not one of the banditti, but another perſon, who commits the deed for the ſake of his own private intereſt, he may ſurely rely on the pity of the ſurrounding people, who will do every thing to facilitate his eſcape. From all ſides re-echoes the word, *poveretto*, (poor fellow) not to pity the perſon aſſaſſinated, but his aſſaſſin. What an immenſe contraſt with England! where the life of the meaneſt plebeian is an object of general attention, where neither rank nor riches can ſave the murderer, and where even people of quality will hinder him from making his eſcape.

The banditti confeſs very often, go diligently to hear maſs, obſerve moſt ſcrupulouſly their faſts, and invoke daily St. Januarius. A few years ago, a banditto, who had committed many murders, was brought to juſtice: he confeſſed his crimes without being aſked, and added ſeveral other acts of horror, which had been concealed to that very moment. But upon being aſked among other things, whether he had obſerved his faſts, he found himſelf affronted: he thought this queſtion ſuch an outrage, that he aſked the judges with bitterneſs, "whether they did not look upon him as a Chriſtian!"

One of the inſects almoſt peculiar to the kingdom of Naples is the tarantula, or a kind of ſpider, with which it abounds. The perſons bit by this inſect are called by the Italians tarantolati. Few of ſuch unhappy perſons can bear the ſight of black or blue; but ſeem delighted with red and green objects. They are alſo ſeized with an averſion to eating fruit or vegetables. A melancholy ſilence, and a fixed eye, are the firſt ſymptoms by which the bite of the tarantula diſcovers itſelf; and the muſic is immediately called in to rouze the patient to a violent motion, and by that means to promote perſpiration and a copious ſweat. The inſtruments chiefly uſed are the guittar, hautboy, trumpet, violin, and Sicilian kettle drum. The country people, who are more or leſs ſkilled in all theſe inſtruments, enforce the operation of their muſic by grimaces and odd geſticulations. The tarantolati, on their ſide, vigorouſly exert themſelves, regulating their motions according to the muſic, till the venom is quite expelled. This exerciſe and cure ſometimes take up five or ſix days; not that they are kept continually dancing all that time, but when nature ſeems to be exhauſted, the muſic is ſuſpended, and the patient put to bed, well covered, and a ſudorific cordial adminiſtered. It is remarkable, that the patient, on recovery, remembers nothing of what paſſed during the prevalence of the diſorder; and that if the cure be not perfectly effected, and the poiſon entirely expelled, the ſame ſymptoms return the ſucceeding year, eſpecially during the ſummer heats; and ſome have laboured under this terrible diſorder, at intervals, for ten, twenty, or thirty years.

ITALIAN ISLANDS.

SICILY, which forms a part of his Neapolitan majeſty's dominions, was once conſidered as the granary of Italy for corn, and ſtill produces conſiderable quantities; but agriculture is now much neglected, and, in conſequence, its fertility greatly diminiſhed. This iſland is divided from Italy by a narrow channel, called the Streight or Faro of Meſſina. It contains about 500,000 inhabitants, who carry on a very conſiderable trade, particularly in ſilk, both raw and manufactured. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this iſland are remarkable for the beauty of its female inhabitants. Its capital is Palermo, a large, rich, and well-built city, ſituated at the bottom of a gulf of the ſame name. It is decorated with a great number of public ſtructures, finely adorned, and is ſaid to contain near 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal ſtreets, and which croſs each other, are very fine. This town carries on a conſiderable trade, and is ſaid to be the only one in all Italy which is lighted at the public expence.

Meſſina is ſituated at the bottom of a ſpacious harbour, on the ſtreight which ſeparates Sicily from Calabria. The public ſtructures are extremely grand, and the city was full of people till the year 1742, when near two thirds of the inhabitants were ſwept away by a dreadful peſtilence. The ancient capital of Sicily was Syracuſe, which was near twenty-two miles in circumference. It exhibited ſome few remains of its former grandeur, was a large well-built city, and contained many churches and convents, in general elegant ſtructures, and carried on a conſiderable trade, till the earthquake in 1783. By that earthquake, as the account tranſmitted from thence informs us, a great part of the lower diſtrict of the city and of the fort was deſtroyed, and conſiderable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the Palazzato, in the ſhape of a creſcent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Meſſina or Reggio, to what it was in the plain; for of 30,000, the ſuppoſed number of inhabitants in the city, only 700 are ſaid to have periſhed. The greateſt mortality fell upon thoſe towns and countries ſituated in the plain of Calabria Ultra, on the weſtern ſide of the mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Caſal Nuovo, the princeſs Gerace, and upwards of 4000 of the inhabitants, loſt their lives; at Begnara, the number of dead amounted to 3017; at Radicina and Palmi about 3000 each; Terra Nuova, about 1400; Seminari, ſtill more. The ſum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the ſecretary of ſtate's office at Naples, is 32,367; but it is believed, that including ſtrangers, the number of lives loſt muſt have been 40,000 at leaſt.

Sardinia, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, is ſituated in the Mediterranean ſea, about 150 miles weſt of Leghorn, and has ſeven cities or towns. It is about 160 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 80 in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The ſoil, where it is properly cultivated, is very fruitful, producing corn, wine, and oil in great plenty, together with very fine fruits of various kinds; but it is in general ſo badly cultivated, that the revenues do not exceed 5000l. ſterling a year. Its capital is Cagliari, the ſeat of a viceroy, an archbiſhop, and an univerſity. The cathedral is very magnificent, but the other buildings have little to boaſt, nor is the trade conſiderable, though the harbour is ſpacious. This iſland was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain; at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and ceded to the houſe of Savoy in 1719.

Corſica is ſituated a little to the north of Sardinia, from which it is ſeparated by the ſtreight of Bonifacio, about twenty miles in breadth. It is a very mountainous country, and partly overgrown with wood; but the low lands in ſome of the vallies yield plenty of corn, wine, figs, almonds, olives, oranges, citrons, and other fruits. The ſtrenuous efforts which the natives of this iſland, for a number of years, made for the recovery of their liberty, have rendered them famous, but they were obliged at laſt to ſubmit to the French.

Many of the malecontents, however, are not yet reconciled to the government of their new maſters. The number of inhabitants is about 160,000; but the trade of the iſland is inconſiderable. It has a good breed of cattle and horſes, and the woods and foreſts abound with game; it is alſo plentifully ſupplied, both by ſea and rivers, with fiſh. Baſtia is the capital of the iſland, but has nothing remarkable.

Capri, or Caprea, is much taken notice of for the noble ruins on it, the moſt conſiderable of which are at the very extremity of the eaſtern promontory. It is about four miles long, and one broad, and is ſituated at the entrance of the gulf of Naples, about three miles from the continent. This iſle was the reſidence of the emperor Auguſtus, for ſome time; and afterwards of Tiberius, for many years. What chiefly recommended this iſland to Tiberius was its temperate healthful air, being warm in winter, and cool in ſummer; and the nature of its coaſt, which is ſo very ſteep, that a ſmall number of men may defend it againſt a great army. The ſurface of the iſland was then cut into eaſy aſcents, adorned with the emperor's and other palaces, and planted with a variety of groves and gardens. The rocks alſo underneath were cut into highways, grottoes, galleries, bagnios, and ſubterraneous retirements, which ſuited the brutal pleaſures of that emperor; and were afterwards defaced or demoliſhed by the Romans, in deteſtation of the laſcivious unnatural ſcenes which had been acted there by Tiberius. It contains about 1500 inhabitants, who are exempt from all taxes: and belongs to the province of Lovoro, in the kingdom of Naples. There are ſeveral ſprings of freſh water in it; and in a delightful valley between the mountains, at the two extremities, ſtands a city of the ſame name with the iſland, which is the ſee of a biſhop, whoſe revenue ariſes chiefly from the prodigious flights of quails that come thither at certain ſeaſons, particularly in March, when vaſt quantities of them are ſent to Naples, and ſold for four-pence and five-pence per dozen. On this account, the biſhopric is ſometimes jocoſely ſtyled the biſhopric of Quails.

Iſchia, a ſmall but pleaſant and fertile iſland, lies on the Neapolitan coaſt, about two miles from the Cape of Meſſina, and 25 from Naples. Moſt of it is ſurrounded with high, craggy, and inacceſſible rocks; which ſhelter it from winds, and defend it from invaders. Some parts of it are rich and delightful, yielding all manner of delicious fruits, and excellent wines; but others are as diſmal and barren. It was anciently called Inarime; and was much ſubject to earthquakes, and the poets tell us, Jupiter laid the vanquiſhed Titan or Typhon under it, and that the earthquakes are occaſioned by his efforts to throw off the load. There are ſeveral hot baths and medicinal waters in it, with a number of pleaſant towns and villages.

Elba hath been from time immemorial celebrated for its mines. Virgil and Ariſtotle mention it. The fruits and wine of the iſland are very good; and the tannery, fiſhery, and ſalt produce a good revenue. Its ſituation is about 10 miles ſouth-weſt from Tuſcany, is 80 miles in circumference, and contains 7000 inhabitants; it is divided between the king of Naples (to whom Porto Longone belongs) the great duke of Tuſcany (who is maſter of Porto Ferraio) and the prince of Piombino.

Malta, though not properly one of the Italian iſlands, is generally comprehended, by geographers, in deſcriptions of them. It lies about ſixty miles ſouth of Cape Paſſaro, the ſouthern point of Sicily. It was called Melita by the ancients, and is of an oval figure, twenty miles long, and twelve broad. The air is clear and healthful, but exceſſive hot, when not cooled by the ſea-breezes. The whole iſland is compoſed of a white ſoft rock, covered with a good vegetable earth, about a foot deep. It is exceedingly fertile, producing great quantities of cotton, indigo, oranges, lemons, olives, figs, and orher fruits, and affords plenty of honey, wax, good paſtures, pulſe, roots, herbs, and garden-ſtuff; but not a ſufficient quantity of corn, wine, or wood, to ſupply the conſumption of the inhabitants, who are computed at ſixty thouſand. This iſland was given by Charles V. to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, on their being driven out of Rhodes by the Turks, which happened in the year 1530. Soon after their ſettlement in this iſland, they took the name of knights of Malta. The knights conſiſt of eight nations, the chief of which are France, Italy, Spain, England, and Germany. They have commanderies, or eſtates, in moſt of the Roman-Catholic countries, and are ſaid to amount to about three thouſand. They carry on a perpetual war againſt the Turks, and are under vows of celibacy and chaſtity, but obſerve only the former. They are conſidered as the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the Turks, on that ſide; nor have they ever degenerated from the military glory of their anceſtors. They are governed by a grand maſter, who is elected for life: on his death, they ſuffer no veſſel to go out of the iſland till another is choſen, to prevent the pope from interfering in the election: he is choſen out of the 16 great croſſes, and his title is, The moſt illuſtrious and moſt reverend prince, the lord friar A. B. great maſter of the hoſpital of St. John of Jeruſalem, prince of Malta and Gaza. They wear croſſes of a particular form, and the grand maſter has a large golden key of the holy ſepulchre pendent at his ſide. They are generally of noble families, and ranked according to their nation.

The capital of the iſland is called Valetta, or Malta: it is a handſome city, ſtrongly fortified, and has an excellent harbour. The palace of the grand maſter, and the cathedral, dedicated to St. John, are ſpacious and elegant ſtructures. The whole iſland, or rather rock, is ſo ſtrongly fortified, that it is conſidered as impregnable by all the forces the Infidels can bring againſt it; and they have accordingly laid aſide all thoughts of making themſelves maſters of the iſland. On the 8th of September there is an annual proceſſion at Malta, in memory of the Turks raiſing the ſiege on that day (1653) after four months aſſault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind them.

HISTORY OF ITALY.

ITALY has been, from the earlieſt ages of hiſtorical narration, either the ſeat of empire, or the theatre of war. When Romulus, the leader of a few lawleſs and wandering banditti, ſettled here, and laid the foundation of Rome, 753 years before the Chriſtian æra, Italy was in the ſame ſituation as at preſent, divided into little kingdoms and ſtates, all living in diſtruſt, at leaſt, if not in open war with one another. The Roman commonwealth changed the face of things, by reducing them all, and making herſelf the head and miſtreſs of Italy. Her empire was extended over the greater part of the known world; but at laſt luxury and effeminacy effected what force had attempted in vain; the Goths, the Vandals, and other barbarous nations of the north broke in, and haſtened her deſtruction. Italy was again divided into ſmall principalities, and continued in the ſame ſtate till the time of Charlemagne. The ſucceſſors of that celebrated prince claimed, and for ſome time poſſeſſed the ſovereignty of Italy: but, engaged in wars abroad, and civil commotions at home, the governors of theſe principalities either aſſumed or purchaſed the ſovereignty of the reſpective ſtates over which they preſided.

After various revolutions and changes of government, Savoy and Piedmont fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the anceſtors of the prince who now enjoys

enjoys the crown of Sardinia, which he obtained by virtue of the quadruple alliance, concluded in 1718.

Genoa, as part of ancient Liguria, continued under the dominion of the Romans, till the ruin of that empire by the Goths, and other northen people; after which it made a part of the kingdom of Lombardy, then of the German empire, and at the length became a ſovereign ſtate. But it owes its preſent form of government entirely to the virtue of Adrew Doria; who, preferring the advantage of his country to his own, refuſed the ſovereignty offered him, and rendered it a free ſtate. There are few inſtances in hiſtory more ſurpriſing than the efforts made by the Genoeſe for the recovery of their liberty, when they drove the Auſtrian troops out of their capital in the year 1747.

Tuſcany, anciently known by the names of Ombria, Tyrrhenia, and Hetruria, was ſubdued by the Romans about 455 years before the chriſtian æra. It was poſſeſſed by the Oſtrogoths in the fifth century, and afterwards by the Lombards, who were expelled by Charlemagne in the year 800. From that period it became ſubject to the German emperors, till the year 1240, when the inhabitants were divided into two powerful parties, diſtinguiſhed by the names of of the Guelphs and Gibellines; the former ſupported the intereſt of the pope, and the latter that of the emperor.—The violence of theſe parties occaſioned a long civil war both in Tuſcany and Germany. At laſt the Florentines, weary with a ſtate of anarchy, formed themſelves into a free ſtate: but, about the middle of the fifteenth century, Coſmo de Medicis, who obtained the glorious title of The Father of his Country, aſſumed the ſupreme power; and his ſon Alexander de Medicis was created duke of Florence by the emperor Charles V. in the year 1531. He was ſucceeded by his couſin Coſmo II. the great patron of the arts, on whom pope Pius V. conferred the title of Grand Duke of Tuſcany, in the year 1570. This prince, under whoſe auſpices the arts were revived in Italy, enriched his capital with the moſt beautiful works of ancient artiſts. Coſmo III. obtained from the emperor the title of royal highneſs; and, after a long and happy reign, died on the 31ſt of October 1723. He was ſucceeded in his dominions by his ſon John Gaſton de Medicis, who dying without iſſue in 1737, was the laſt male heir of that family. Don Carlos, the preſent king of Spain, was therefore declared his ſucceſſor; and, by the conſent of the grand duke, aſſumed the title of hereditary grand prince of Tuſcany. But on the concluſion of the war, by which he acquired the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, it was ſtipulated by the treaty of Vienna, that the grand duchy of Tuſcany ſhould be given to Francis duke of Lorrain, in exchange for his hereditary dominions, which were ceded to France. Thus Tuſcany was transferred from the Medici family to that of Lorrain. Leopold, brother to the emperor Joſeph, was grand duke, under whoſe auſpices commerce again flouriſhed, and improvements in agriculture, and other uſeful arts, have been lately made in that country. All the princes of the houſe of Medici were merchants. Coſmo I. ſhared with the Venetians the immenſe profits of the Indian trade, before the Portugueſe diſcovered a paſſage to Indoſtan, by the Cape of Good Hope. Convinced that commerce is not at all incompatible with nobility, his deſcendents cultivated it with the moſt aſſiduous care; and being always remarkable for their prudent œconomy, they were, beyond compariſon, the richeſt princes in Italy. At the ſame time they were patrons of induſtry and arts, very attentive to what might promote the happineſs of their ſubjects, and omitted nothing that had a tendency to engage foreigners of merit to ſettle among them.

We have already taken occaſion to ſpeak of the riſe and decline of the papal authority; and therefore, to avoid repetition, ſhall only remark here, that ignorance, the parent of bigotry and ſuperſtition, joined with other cauſes, amazingly increaſed the power and tyranny of the Roman pontiffs; and eccleſiaſtical pride was carried to its greateſt height. The pope claimed a divine power, which raiſed him as much above other princes, as thoſe princes are above their people. This claim, together with the title of Holineſs, founded on a long preſcription, could not fail of exciting the higheſt veneration in the minds of an ignorant and bigotted people, who believed them real. Leo X. by encouraging learning, undermined the foundation of papal authority; and the Reformation ſhook the ſtructure. At preſent the temporal princes, who ſtill profeſs the Roman-Catholic religion, ſeem to be ſhaking off the galling yoke their predeceſſors were ſubject to, and to be recovering from thoſe deluſions, which had for many centuries hoodwinked the greateſt part of Chriſtendom.

Naples was probably firſt peopled from Greece, and thence called Magna Græcia. In this ſtate it continued till ſubdued by the Romans; and on the decline of that power, in the fifth century, the Eaſtern emperor poſſeſſed himſelf of one part of the kingdom of Naples, and the Goths of the other. The Lombards diſpoſſeſſed the Goths of their part, and continued maſters of it, till they were driven out by Charlemagne, about the year 800. In the ninth and tenth centuries, the Saracens ſubdued part of Naples; but were expelled by the Normans under Tancred, who, with the aſſiſtance of the Greeks already ſettled there, eſtabliſhed a moſt reſpectable monarchy, flouriſhing in arts and arms, while the reſt of Europe was covered with the veil of monkiſh ignorance, and religious bigotry. The heirs of Tancred enjoyed the kingdom till the year 1166; when, by the intrigues of the Roman pontiff, the crown was transferred to the French, and the earl of Anjou placed upon the throne.

The poſterity of the laſt-mentioned prince continued in poſſeſſion of the crown till the year 1504, when they were driven out by the Spaniards, whoſe government was ſo oppreſſive, that the people revolted, and being headed by Maſſaniello, a young fiſherman, their ſucceſs was ſo alarming, that the haughty Spaniards were obliged to aboliſh the oppreſſive taxes, and to confirm the people in their former liberties. This revolt being terminated, the Spaniards continued in poſſeſſion of Naples till the year 1707, when they were driven out by the Imperialiſts, and the kingdom of Naples was confirmed to the emperor Charles VI. by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713. But in the year 1734, the French, Spaniards, and Sardinians, joining in a war againſt the emperor, Naples was ſubdued, and Don Carlos, ſon to the King of Spain, placed on the throne; and a peace being concluded in 1736, that prince was acknowledged king of the Two Sicilies, by the emperor. In the year 1759, Don Carlos aſcended the throne of Spain, and it being found that his eldeſt ſon was by nature incapacitated for reigning, he reſigned the crown of Naples to his third ſon Ferdinand. This prince, now Ferdinand IV. was born in 1751, and married in 1768 to Maria-Carolina-Louiſa, archducheſs of Auſtria, ſiſter to the emperor of Germany, by whom he hath iſſue, 1. Maria-Thereſa-Caroline, born June 6, 1772; 2. Louiſa-Maria-Amelia, born July 20, 1773; 3. Mary-Anne-Joſepha, born 1775; 4. Francis Janvier, born 1777; and, 5. Mary-Chriſtina, born in 1779.

With reſpect to the Milaneſe, that delightful country experienced various changes: the Viſcontis were ſucceeded by the Guleozzos and the Sforzas; but it fell into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his ſon Philip II. king of Spain. That crown kept poſſeſſion of it till 1706, when the French were driven out of Italy by the Imperialiſts. In 1743 they were diſpoſſeſſed of it; but when the emperor ceded Naples and Sicily to the

late

late king of Spain, it returned to the houſe of Auſtria, whoſe viceroy now governs it.

Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the houſe of Auſtria, in whoſe poſſeſſion it now is, the laſt duke dying without male iſſue; but in 1748 Guaſtalla was ſeparated from it, and made part of the duchy of Parma, whoſe firſt duke was natural ſon to pope Paul II. the duchy having been annexed to the holy ſee by pope Julius II. in 1545. The deſcendents of the Farneſe family terminated in the late queen-dowager of Spain, whoſe ſon, his late Catholic majeſty, obtained that duchy, which together with Placentia, are now held by his nephew.

When the Goths, and other northern nations, invaded Italy in the fifth century, the inhabitants of Padua, and other cities on the continent, fled for ſafety to the neighbouring iſles, and laid the foundation of the Venetian republic. Secluded by their ſituation from the continent, they turned their thoughts to trade and navigation, and ſoon became a very formidable power at ſea. Their conqueſts were amazing; and being principally poſſeſſed of the lucrative commerce of the Indies, ſoon became the richeſt people of Europe. Envious of their ſucceſs, and deſirous of ſharing in the treaſures of the Eaſt, ſeveral leagues were formed againſt them by foreign powers, by which they were more than once reduced to the brink of ruin, but were always ſaved by the diſunion of the confederates. The diſcovery of a paſſage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, as it loſt them the Indian trade. The Turks, by degrees, deprived them of their moſt valuable poſſeſſions on the continent; and ſo late as the year 1715, they loſt the Morea. Since the peace of Paſſarowitz, concluded in 1718, the Venetians have wiſely refrained from embarking in any of the conteſts that have drenched the fields of Europe with blood.

The principal armorial bearings and orders of knighthood in Italy are as follows:

The pope, as ſovereign prince of the Eccleſiaſtical State, bears for his eſcutcheon, gules, conſiſting of a long head-cape, Or, ſurmounted with a croſs, pearled and garniſhed with three royal crowns, and alſo St. Peter's two keys, placed in ſaltier.—Arms of Tuſcany, Or, five roundlos, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief azure, charged with three fleur-de-lis, Or.—The arms of Venice, azure,—a lion winged, ſejant, Or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, argent.—Thoſe of Genoa, argent, a croſs, gules, with a crown cloſed for the iſland of Corſia; and for ſupporters, two griffins, Or.—Of Naples, azure, ſemée of fleur-de-lis, Or, with a label of five points, gules.—In Sardinia, there is an order of knighthood, called the Annunciade, or order of Annunciation, inſtituted in 1355 by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I. who bravely defended Rhodes againſt the infidels. The motto of this order is FERT, being the four initial letters of *Fortitudo ejus Rhodum tenuit*, "His bravery preſerved Rhodes." The collar of the order is compoſed of golden roſes, enamelled red and white, with lover's knots of the ſame. To the end of the middle is pendent the badge, which conſiſts of three chains of gold encircling an oval, and diſpoſed in knots: on the oval is repreſented the ſalutation of the Virgin May. The order of the Holy Ghoſt was founded by pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. They have a grand-maſter, and profeſs obedience, chaſtity, and poverty. Their revenue is eſtimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain ſtrangers, relieve the poor, train up deſerted children, &c. Their enſign is, a white patriarchal croſs with twelve points ſewed on their breaſt on the left ſide of a black mantle.—The order of St. George was inſtituted about the year 1460, by Frederic III. emperor of Germany, who dedicated it to St. George, tutelar ſaint and patron of Germany. The doge is perpetual grand-maſter. The badge, a plain croſs enamelled, gules, pendent to a gold chain, and worn about their necks. The croſs is alſo embroidered on their cloaks. The order of St. Mark is uſually conferred by the doge of Venice on eminent perſons, or ſuch as have done ſome ſignal ſervice to the republic; the penſion annexed to it is 1000 ducats per annum. The badge is a medal of gold, pendent to a gold chain; on one ſide is the emblem of St. Mark, a winged lion ſejant with elevated wings, holding in his ſiniſter paw a drawn ſword erect, and in his right an open book with the words, *Pax tibi, Marce Evangeliſta meus*, "Peace be with thee, my Evangeliſt Mark." On the reverſe is the portrait of the reigning doge, with the image of St. Mark delivering a ſtandard to him.—The order of St. Stephen was inſtituted in the year 1561, by Coſmo of Medicis, firſt grand-duke of Tuſcany, in memory of a victory which ſecured to him the ſovereignty of that province: he and his ſucceſſors were to be grand-maſters. The knights wear a red croſs with right angles, orled, Or, on the left ſide of their habit, and in their mantle. It is a religious and military order; the knights are allowed to marry, and muſt make proof of their nobility of four deſcents.—The order of St. Lazarus was inſtituted in the year 1752, by Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, who revived and united the obſolete order of St. Maurice to it; which was confirmed by the pope, on condition of maintaining two gallies againſt the Turks. The badge of the order is a croſs pometté, white, upon a croſs of eight points, green, and is worn pendent to a green ribband.—The order of St. Januarius was inſtituted in July 1738, by the late king of Spain, when king of Naples. The badge of the order is a croſs of eight points enamelled, white, edged with gold, and in the centre is a biſhop, holding in his left hand a book and croſier, and below his waiſt is this motto, *In ſanguine fœdus*, "The covenant is in blood:" on the reverſe is a book, on which are two red pillars, ſurmounted with palms, enamelled in their proper colours. The knights wear a badge of the order, pendent to a broad red ribband worn ſcarfwiſe, and a gold ſtar of eight points with fleur-de-lis at the angles, embroidered on their centre garment. They muſt prove the nobility of their deſcent for four centuries: their number is limited to 30. St. Januarius is the patron.

The gold coins in Italy are, the ſequin or chequin of Venice, worth 9s. 7d. The old Italian piſtole, worth 16s. 7d. The double ducat of Genoa, Venice, and Florence, worth 18s. 7d; and the ſingle ducat of the ſame places, worth 9s. 3½d. The ſilver coins are, the ducat of Venice and Naples, worth 3s. 4d. The new ducat of Venice, worth 1s. 8d. The ducat of Florence or Leghorn, worth 5s. 4d. The teſton of Rome, worth 1s. 6d. The tarin, worth 8d. and the curlin, worth 4d.

CHAP. XXVIII.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Produce, Mountains, Mines, Rivers and Lakes, Antiquities and Curioſities, Cities and Chief Towns, Iſlands belonging to it, &c.

THE European part of Turkey is ſituated between the 17th and 40th deg. of eaſt long. and between the 36th and 49th of north lat. being about 1000 miles in length, and 730 in breadth. It is bounded by Ruſſia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the north; by Circaſſia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Helleſpont,

Helleſpont, and Archipelago, on the eaſt; by the Mediterranean on the ſouth; and by the ſame ſea, together with the Venetian and Auſtrian territories on the weſt. Its diviſion, ſubdiviſions, and chief towns, are as follow:

On the north coaſt of the Black Sea, are the provinces of Crim and Little Tartary, the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſe, chief towns Precop, Brachiferia, Kaffa Budziac Tartary, chief town Oczakow; containing 38,200 ſquare miles.

North of the Danube are the provinces of Beſſarabia, chief towns Bender, Belgorod, containing 8000 ſquare miles; Moldavia, anciently Dacia, chief towns Jazy, Choczim, Falczin, containing 26,000 ſquare miles; Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia, chief town Tergoviſc, containing 10,500 ſquare miles.

South of the Danube are Bulgaria, the eaſt part of the ancient Myſia, chief towns Widin, Nicopoli, Siliſtria, Scopia, containing 17,000 ſquare miles; Servia, the weſt part of Myſia, chief towns Belgrade, Semendria, Niſſa, containing 22,570 ſquare miles; Boſnia, part of the ancient Illyricum, chief town Seraio, containing 8,640 ſquare miles.

On the Boſphorus and Helleſpont, Romania, anciently Thrace, chief towns Conſtantinople, Adrianople, Philippopoli, containing 21,200 ſquare miles.

South of mount Rhodope, or Argentum, the north part of ancient Greece, Macedonia, chief town Strymon, Conteſſa, containing 18,980 ſquare miles; Theſſaly, now Janna, chief town Salonichia, containing 4650 ſquare miles; Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia, chief towns Athens, Thebes, Lepanto, containing 3420 ſquare miles.

On the Adriatic ſea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum, Epirus, chief town Chimæra, containing 7955 ſquare miles; Albania, chief towns Burtinto, Durazzo, Dulcigno, containing 6375 ſquare miles; Dalmatia, chief town Zara, containing 4560 ſquare miles; Raguſa republic, chief towns Narenza, Raguſa, containing 430 ſquare miles.

In the Morea, the ancient Peloponneſus, being the ſouth diviſion of Greece, are Corinthia, Argos, Sparta, Olympia, where the Games were held, Arcadia, and Elis, chief towns Corinth, Argos, Napoli de Romania, Lacedæmon, now Miſitra, on the river Eurotus, Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus, Modon, Coron, Partas, Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus, containing 7220 ſquare miles.

The air in this part of Turkey is naturally healthy, but the plague is frequently brought hither from Egypt, and commits terrible devaſtation among the inhabitants; this calamity is partly aſcribed to the noxious vapours from the neighbouring countries, and partly from the indolence and uncleanlineſs of the Turks, who, infatuated with the belief of predeſtination, take no meaſures to guard againſt its approach. The ſoil is beyond expreſſion fertile, even in places where it has never been cultivated; and is adapted to both the purpoſes of agriculture and graſiery. The ſeaſons here are regular and pleaſant, and have been celebrated from the remoteſt antiquity.

Theſſaly, in Turkey, is famous for a fine breed of horſes, which are equally remarkable for their ſervice and their beauty. The black cattle, eſpecially in Greece, are extremely large; but the goats are the moſt uſeful animals to the inhabitants, who make great uſe both of their milk and fleſh. The neighbourhood of Babadagi abounds in large eagles, the tails of which furniſh the Turkiſh and Tartarian archers with the fineſt feathers for their arrows; and they are accordingly purchaſed at a prodigious price. In moſt of the diſtricts of Greece, there are great numbers of partridges; and every part of Turkey in Europe produces plenty of tame fowl, and moſt ſpecies of game: but the Turkiſh Mahometans ſeldom eat much animal food. Moſt of the rivers likewiſe abound in fiſh. The natural luxuriancy of the ſoil, with very little aſſiſtance from art, produces corn and other grain, excellent graſs, coffee, pot and garden herbs of almoſt every kind, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon ſweetneſs, fine figs, olives, almonds, cotton, and various kinds of drugs, particularly rhubarb; all theſe productions are excellent in their kind.

The mountains in European Turkey have long been celebrated, but the principal part of them are now known by modern appellations. The mounts Olympus and Pindus, the latter of which is now called Mezzo Novo, ſeparate Theſſaly from Epirus. Parnaſſus, famed for being conſecrated to the Muſes, ſtill retains its original appellation. Mount Athos, now called Monte Santo; extends the whole length of a peninſula, which is ſeven Turkiſh miles, and ſtretches a conſiderable diſtance into the ſea. There are twenty-two convents on this lofty mountain, beſides a great number of cells and grottoes, with the habitations of no leſs than 6000 monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottoes, are not above twenty; the other monks are anchorites, or ſuch as live in cells. Thoſe Greek monks, who call themſelves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are ſo far from being a ſlothful people, that, beſides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, maſons, ſtone-cutters, cloth-workers, taylors, &c. They alſo live a very auſtere life: their uſual food, inſtead of fleſh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheeſe, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fiſh. Their faſts are many, and chiefly kept, which, with the healthfulneſs of the air, renders longevity ſo common on this ſpot, that many of them live above 100 years. This mountain is ſo exceeding high, that on the top, as the ancients tell us, the ſun-riſing was beheld four hours ſooner than by the inhabitants of the coaſt. Beſides theſe, there are the mountains Suha, Witoſka, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Thoſe ſituated near the ſea are pleaſant and fertile, while the more inland are cold and barren. This country contains mines of gold, ſilver, iron, lead, &c. and quarries of the moſt beautiful marble.

The chief rivers in this country are, the Danube, the Save; the Nieſter; the Nieper, or Boriſthenes; and the Don, or Tanais. There are, beſides theſe, a number of leſs conſiderable rivers. The ſtreight of the Helleſpont, which joins the ſea of Marmora with the Archipelago; and the Boſphorus of Thrace, or paſſage into the Black Sea, are famous in hiſtory.

Lago di Scutari, in the province of Albania; Lago di Plavé and Lago di Holti, both of which have a communication through the river Zem with Scutari; the Stymphalis, in the province of Morea, was famous for its harpies, and ravenous birds, which frequented it; and the Peneus, for being the ſource of the river Styx, which the ancient poets termed the river of hell, are the moſt remarkable lakes. Medicinal waters and baths are very numerous in Turkey.

European Turkey, particularly Greece, may be conſidered as the ſtorehouſe of antiquities. The temple of Minerva at Athens, the temple of the eight Winds, and the lantern of Demoſthenes, are ſtill entire. Juſt without the city ſtands the temple of Theſeus, ſurrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order. The ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Iſthmean games were celebrated, are ſtill viſible on the iſthmus of Corinth; as are the ruins of the temple of Apollo at Caſtri. On the ſouth ſide of Mount Parnaſſus, are ſome marble ſteps that deſcend to a running water, ſuppoſed to be the celebrated Caſtalian ſpring; and the niches in the rock, where ſtatues were formerly placed, are ſtill diſcernible. But among all the antique curioſities of this country, there are none exceeds the famous cave of Jupiter Trophonius, which is a ſquare room, with a bench on each ſide of it, cut out of a rock, in Livadia, the ancient Bœotia. At the further end of this cavern is a round hole, ſcarcely big enough for a man to creep through, which is ſuppoſed to be the place

from whence the oracles of this deity were delivered to his votaries.

The following are the moſt remarkable cities and towns in this country; viz.

Conſtantinople, ſituated in 41 deg. N. lat. and 21 E. long. is the capital of the whole Turkiſh empire, and the reſidence of the grand ſeigniors, it was built by the emperor Conſtantine the Great, who, in 330, made it the ſeat of the eaſtern part of the Roman empire. It continued in this ſtate till 1453, when, after having ſuſtained a ſiege of fifty-four years, it was taken by the Turks. It ſtands like old Rome on ſeven hills, commanding a beautiful and extenſive proſpect; and is moſt delightfully and advantageouſly ſituated, in form of a triangle, on a point of land waſhed by the ſea of Marmora and the Helleſpont on the ſouth; by the Thracian Boſphorus, or ſtreight of Conſtantinople, on the eaſt; and on the north is a very large and commodious harbour, formed by a canal from the Streights, extending inland towards the north-weſt; thus it has a communication by water with moſt parts of the empire. This city is uncommonly large, and when viewed at a diſtance has the appearance of an amphitheatre: but the ſtreets are badly paved, narrow, dark, ſteep, and ſlippery. The houſes are mean, being built of wood and mortar; they are, however, crowded with inhabitants, the number being computed at 8 or 900,000, three-fourths of whom are Greeks and Armenians. Here are 22 gates, ſix of which are towards the land, and the reſt towards the ſea; but the fortifications are antique and ruinous. The fineſt buildings are either without the city near the harbour, or in the moſt retired parts within the walls. At the point of the triangle, near the canal and harbour, ſtands the imperial palace or ſeraglio; which, together with the gardens, takes up a mile and a half in circuit; and may be ſtyled rather a collection of ſeveral palaces and apartments joined together, according to the taſte of the different emperors, than an uniform ſtructure. The wall which ſurrounds the ſeraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embraſures, and towers, in the ſtyle of ancient fortifications. There are nine gates belonging to it, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of theſe the Ottoman court takes the name of the Porte, or the Sublime Porte, in all concerns of a public nature. The palaces of the preſent Turkiſh nobility have nothing remarkable on the outſide, but within they are richly and elegantly decorated. The moſques, of which there are ſeven ſtyled royal, are very handſome edifices. They ſtand ſingly, within a ſpacious encloſure, planted with lofty trees, and adorned with delightful fountains. Among theſe moſques the moſt magnificent is that of St. Sophia, once the metropolitan church of the Chriſtians. It ſtands on an eminence oppoſite to the principal entrance of the imperial palace, and was built by the emperor Juſtinian, in the form of a Greek croſs. This building is of ſuch vaſt extent, that it is ſaid an hundred thouſand perſons may, with eaſe, be contained in it at one time. It is two hundred and fifty-two feet long, and two hundred and twenty-eight broad. The dome, which covers almoſt the whole ſtructure, reſts externally on four prodigious towers, which have been added of late years to ſupport it. The pavement, walls, and galleries, are all of marble, and it is likewiſe ornamented with a number of marble, porphyry, and Egyptian granite pillars; but there are no pictures or ſtatues in either this or the other moſques. The annual revenue of St. Sophia is ſaid to amount to thirty-two thouſand pounds. The grand ſeignior repairs to it every Friday, but a Chriſtian is ſcarce ever admitted. In this city are a great many Greek and Armenian churches, beſides two or three for the Roman Catholics, and one for the Lutherans, which was built by the Swedes.

There are ſome noble antiquities in and about Conſtantinople, particularly the ancient hyppodrome, or place for horſe-races. It is an oblong ſquare, four hundred paces in length, and one hundred in width, adorned with three beautiful antique pillars, one of braſs, and the other two of marble; one of the latter, which is of Theban marble, is of a quadrangular figure, terminating in a point, and filled with hieroglyphical inſcriptions.

Security and good order reign in Conſtantinople in a very eminent degree; for upon a foreigner's taking a Janizary with him, he may view every part of the town unmoleſted. They likewiſe preſerve the greateſt decency in their moſques, no one preſuming to hold diſcourſe or ſhew the leaſt mark of inattention. The circumference of this city, including the ſuburbs, is ſaid to be twenty-four miles. The environs are extremely pleaſant, eſpecially along the Streights, being covered with towns, villages, ſeats, gardens, meadows, vineyards, and woods. The proſpect from it is noble. The moſt regular part is the Beſeſtin, encloſed with walls, where the ſhops of merchants are excellently ranged. This city has frequently ſuffered by fires, either owing to the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, and the ſtructure of the houſes, or the arts of the Janizaries. In Auguſt 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter near the harbour, which ſpreading into other parts, about 10,000 houſes were conſumed, moſt of which had been rebuilt ſince the fire in 1782.

While Conſtantinople continued in the poſſeſſion of the Greek emperors, it had no equal; it was the only mart in Europe for the rich commodities of the Eaſt; it abounded in riches, in arts, in beautiful ſtructures, and in manufactures. It is now little more than the ſhadow of its ancient greatneſs; though ſtill, with regard to its ſituation, one of the fineſt cities in the world.

Scutaris ſtands oppoſite to the ſeraglio, on the Aſian ſide, at the diſtance of about a mile and a half: it is adorned with a royal moſque, and a pleaſure-houſe of the grand ſeignior.

Adrianople, called by the Turks Edrene, is ſituated in a very fertile country on the river Maritz, by means of which, and other rivers, it carries on a very conſiderable traffic. The city is large, but the ſtreets are remarkably dirty, the houſes in general low, and built of wood and clay, a few indeed are of brick.

The following are the iſlands belonging to Turkey in Europe, being part of ancient Greece.

Negropont, which was the ancient Eubœa, is ſituated on the eaſtern coaſt of Achaia, or Livadia, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow channel, called the Euripus. It is about ninety miles in length, and twenty-five miles in breadth; and is ſuppoſed to have been formerly joined to the continent of Greece by an iſthmus, as it is now by a bridge. This iſland produces corn, wine, oil, and fruit in great abundance, and ſome cattle. The principal places in it are Negropont, the capital, and Caſtel Roſſo; the firſt has a very ſpacious harbour, where a fleet of galljes are generally kept in readineſs to ſail againſt the pirates and the Malteſe. The tides on its coaſts are very irregular, frequently flowing thirteen times in twenty-four hours, and ebbing as often.

Stalimene, anciently Lemnos, is ſituated in the north part of the Ægean ſea, oppoſite the ſtreight of the Dardanelles, forming nearly a ſquare of twenty-five miles in length and breadth. It yields an abundance of corn and wine; but its principal production is a mineral earth known by the appellation of Terra Lemnia, or Sigillata, from a ſeal the Turks put upon every piece that is ſold to foreigners. Notwithſtanding this drug is ſo poſitively aſſerted to be an earth, and dug in this iſland, it has been long known to be a vegetable production; and it has lately been diſcovered to be the pulp of the fruit of a tree called Baobab, growing near Senegal in Africa. The inhabitants ſell this pulp, when thoroughly dry, to the Arabs, who diſtribute it into different parts of the Turkiſh empire,

View of SCIO one of the most celebrated CITIES in the ARCHIPELAGO.

empire, where it is made up in cakes, ſealed, and exported to Europe, under the name of ſealed earth, or earth of Lemnos. The principal places in this iſland are Stalimene, the capital, and Cachino.

Tenedos, about two leagues from the coaſt of the Leſſer Phrygia, oppoſite to old Troy, is in general rocky and barren, but contains ſome fruitful vallies, and the Muſcadine wines produced there are greatly eſteemed. It has one large town of the ſame name with the iſland, and an harbour defended by two caſtles. This is the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal ſecurity, as related by Virgil.

Scyro, anciently Scyros, is ſituated about 25 miles from Negropont, is nearly 60 miles in circumference, and full of rugged barren rocks. It contains a ſmall town of the ſame name, a ſafe harbour, ſeveral villages, and ſome quarries of marble.

Leſbos, or Mytilene, is a conſiderable iſland, ſituated to the ſouth of Tenedos, oppoſite the coaſt of Lydia. It produces plenty of corn, wine, fruit, and figs; cattle alſo abound here. The capital is now called Caſtro, or Caſtri. It has an excellent harbour, defended by a ſtrong caſtle, in which is kept a conſtant garriſon. This iſland is famous for ſeveral remains of antiquity, and likewiſe for being the native place of a number of philoſophers and poets, particularly the inimitable Sappho.

Scio, formerly Chios, lies about eighty miles weſt of Smyrna, and is about an hundred miles in circumference. This iſland is in general mountainous and ſtony, but produces excellent wine, oil, ſilk, and a variety of gums, particularly that called maſtich, greatly uſed by the Turks. The chief town is Scio, which has an harbour and citadel, wherein a garriſon is kept; and there are about thirty villages beſides the capital, all well peopled. The number of the inhabitants is near 113,000, of whom 100,000 are Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and about 3000 Latins; who carry on manufactures of ſilk, velvet, and gold and ſilver ſtuffs. The women of this, and moſt of the other Greek iſlands, are remarkable for their beauty and ſymmetry, but not famous for chaſtity: even the Greek nuns are ſaid to be ſufficiently laviſh of their favours. Ione the tragic poet, Theopompus the hiſtorian, and Theocritus the ſophiſt, were all natives of this iſland. The inhabitants alſo contend with ſeveral other places for the honour of having Homer for their countryman; and they even ſhew ſtrangers a little ſquare houſe, at the foot of mount Epos, which they pretend was his ſchool. The Greeks, reſiding on this iſland, pay a capitation-tax according to their rank.

Samos, almoſt oppoſite to Epheſus, on the coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, is about 30 miles long, and 15 broad. It is exceedingly mountainous, a chain, conſiſting chiefly of white marble, running through the whole iſland; but they are covered with a ſtaple of good earth, ſo that the country is very fertile, producing delicious Muſcadine wine, ſilk, oil, fruits, honey, ſaffron, fine wool, an excellent ſort of onions and garlic, various kinds of minerals and drugs, a fine red bole, emery, oker, and a black inſipid earth of great uſe in dyeing. The principal place in the iſland is Samos, which has a good harbour. This place gave birth to Pythagoras, and is now inhabited by between 12 and 14,000 Greeks, but ſubject to the Turks.

Patmos, ſouth of Samos, is a ſmall, barren and dreary iſland, only remarkable for having a convenient haven, and for being the place where, we are told, St. John wrote his Apocalypſe. There is a convent dedicated to that apoſtle, and, near it, is his grotto, the entrance to which is about ſeven feet high, with a ſquare pillar in the centre. On the top there is a cleft in the ſolid rock, through which the monks pretend the Holy Ghoſt dictated the Revelation to St. John.

Delos, the chief of the Cyclades iſlands, about which the reſt form a circle, is ſituated ſouth of the iſlands Mycone and Triſe, north of Paros, and nearly midway between the continents of Aſia and Europe, being about eight miles in circuit. It is now almoſt deſerted, but was formerly very populous, and much frequented by ſtrangers, on account of its being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, who had both magnificent temples erected here, the ruins of which are ſtill diſcernible.

Paros is ſituated between the iſlands of Lucia and Melos, and is one of the ſmalleſt among the Cyclades. It is well cultivated, and produces wheat, barley, pulſe, ſeſamum, wine, cotton, cattle, and game. This iſland has always been celebrated for the beauty and inimitable whiteneſs of its marble; and in the walls of Parechia, its chief town, there are fine marble columns lying on the ground; beſides which, there lie, in ſeveral parts of it, architraves, pedeſtals, and other exquiſite pieces of carved marble, the remains of ancient Paros, on the ruins of which this town was built. It contains ſome good roads and harbours; and is famous for being the native place of Phidias and Praxiteles, two of the greateſt ſtatuaries the world ever produced.

Cerigo, anciently Cytherea, lies between Candia and the Morea: it is about ſixty miles in circumference, but being rocky and mountainous, produces little corn, wine, or oil. This iſland was formerly conſecrated to Venus, and conſidered as her favourite reſidence.

Santorin, formerly called Caliſta, and afterwards Thera, is one of the moſt ſouthern iſlands in the Archipelago; it is in a manner covered with pumice-ſtones; notwithſtanding which, through the induſtry of the inhabitants, it yields barley, wine, cotton, and ſome wheat. One third of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000 in number, are of the Latin church, and ſubject to a Popiſh biſhop.

Rhodes, ſituated between 28 deg. eaſt lon. and 36 deg. 20 min. north lat. about 20 miles ſouth-weſt of the continent of the Leſſer Aſia, is nearly 60 miles in length, and 25 in breadth: it abounds in fruits, excellent wines, and all manner of proviſions, corn excepted, which the inhabitants are obliged to import from the adjacent country. The capital, of the ſame name, is ſtill a handſome city, though much inferior to what it was formerly: it enjoys a convenient port, dock, and arſenal, and a ſquadron of gallies is always kept there to cruize againſt the corſairs. Here ſtood the famous Coloſſus, juſtly eſteemed one of the wonders of the world. It was erected at the entrance of the harbour, having a foot placed on each ſide of it, ſo that the ſhips ſailed between its legs. This enormous image was one hundred and thirty-five feet high; the thumbs were ſo large, that two men could hardly embrace them, and the face repreſented the ſun, to which it was dedicated. In one of the hands was placed a lantern, for the direction of mariners, during the night. Rhodes is even, at this time, the mart for all the merchandizes of the Mediterranean, particularly camblets, tapeſtry, cotton, ſilks, wine, wax, raiſins, and ſoap. From the year 1301 to 1522, this iſland was ſubject to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem; but, under Solyman the Magnificent, it was then reduced by the Turks, who obliged the knights to retire to Malta.

Candia, the ancient Crete, alſo called Hecatompolis, from its hundred cities, for which it was ſo renowned, is ſituated between 35 and 36 deg. of north lat. at nearly an equal diſtance from Europe, Aſia, and Africa, and is about 200 miles long, and 60 broad. Many parts of it are mountainous, rocky, and barren, while others yield the moſt excellent wines, fruit, corn, honey, wax, ſilk, and wool. Mount Ida, ſo celebrated by the poets, ſtands in the centre of the iſland, and is covered a great part of the year with ſnow. Lethe, the river of oblivion, was likewiſe one

of

of its rivers, but now nothing more than a torpid ſtream. Candia, the capital, poſſeſſes no remains of its former grandeur: however, it will always be famous for the ſiege it ſuſtained from the Turks, who inveſted the town in 1645, but could not ſubdue it till 1669, and even then the garriſon ſurrendered on the moſt honourable terms. During this ſiege the place had been ſtormed 56 times, in the courſe of which the Venetians loſt upwards of 80,000 men, and the Turks above 180,000. This iſland was formerly the ſeat of legiſlature to all Greece.

Cyprus is ſituated in the Levant ſea, about thirty miles diſtant from the coaſts of Syria and Paleſtine. It is about 150 miles in length, and 70 in breadth. The ſoil, where properly cultivated, is very fruitful in corn, wine, oil, cotton, ſilk, and a great variety of game. The Venetians poſſeſſed themſelves of it in the year 1480; but were driven out by the Turks, about the middle of the ſixteenth century, who have been maſters of it ever ſince. Richard I. king of England, ſubdued it in revenge for the treachery of its king; after which the royal title was transferred to Guy Luſignan, king of Jeruſalem, from whence it paſſed to the Venetians, who are ſtill in poſſeſſion of that empty honour. The preſent inhabitants are an aſſemblage of Turks, Jews, Greeks, and Armenians, with ſome few Latins, Cophts, Maronites, and Neſtorians, who all enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion. Cyprus, while in the hands of the Chriſtians, was a rich and populous iſland, but, by the oppreſſion of the Turks, it is depopulated and impoveriſhed to ſuch a degree, that the revenue ariſing from it does not exceed 1250l. per ann. Nicoſia, the preſent capital, is a ſmall but handſome town; and Famaguſta, the ancient capital, has an exceeding good harbour. This iſland was formerly famous for the worſhip of Venus; and in the town of Paphos, then the ſeat of pleaſure and corruption, though now dwindled into a little mean ſea-port, are the remains of a magnificent temple, dedicated to that goddeſs. The preſent ladies of that iſland are not degenerated from their anceſtors; they are ſtill devotees to Venus.

The iſlands of Sapienza, Strivali, Cephalonia, Santa Maura, Iſola del Compare, the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulyſſes, and ſeveral others of leſs note, are in the Ionian ſea, belong to the Venetians, and are in general fruitful.

Zante and Corfu alſo belong to the Venetians; who are ſaid to concern themſelves very little about the welfare and government of them. The firſt has a populous capital of the ſame name, and carries on a conſiderable trade; and Corfu, the capital of the latter, is a place of great ſtrength: all the reſt of theſe iſlands are, in general, fruitful. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, moſtly Greeks, and of a more hoſpitable diſpoſition than thoſe of Corfu, whoſe number is eſtimated at 50,000.

CHAP. XXIX.

FRANCE.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Soil, Mountains, Rivers, Produce, Learning, Trade, Inhabitants, Cities, &c.

THIS extenſive and powerful kingdom, being the neareſt to England, claims our peculiar attention. Its name is taken from the Francs, a reſtleſs and enterpriſing German nation, who came from Franconia in the fifth century, conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants; and the Roman force not being able to ſuppreſs them, they were permitted to ſettle in the country by treaty. It is ſituated between the 5th deg. of weſt, and 8th deg. eaſt long. and between the 42d and 51ſt deg. of north lat. being nearly 620 miles in length, and 510 in breadth. It is bounded by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, on the eaſt; by the Bay of Biſcay, on the weſt; by the Engliſh channel and the Netherlands, on the north; and by the Mediterranean and Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, on the ſouth.

France, which is nearly a ſquare, is now divided into eighty-three departments, including Corſica. Every department is ſubdivided into Diſtricts, in all 547; and each diſtrict into cantons. The following are the chief towns of each department, and alſo the diſtricts. The new department of Savoy, which ſhould form the eighty-fourth, is not added, as being at preſent uncertain whether it will continue its connection with this kingdom. The whole are thus deſcribed:

Departments.		Chief Towns.
Iſle of France.	Paris	Paris
	Seine and Ouſe	Verſailles
	Seine and Marne	Melun
	Oiſe	Beauvais
	Aiſne	Laon
	Somme, *Picardy*,	Amiens
	Cal. Streights, *Artois*	Arras
	North Flanders	Liſle
Normandy	Lower Seine	Rouen
	Calvados	Caen
	Orne	Alencon
	Eure	Evreux
	Channel	Coutance
Brittany	Iſle and Vilaine	Rennes
	Lower Loire	Nantes
	Finiſterre	Breſt
	North coaſt	St. Brieue
	Morbihan	Vannes
Poitou	Vienne	Poitiers
	Vendee	Fontenai-compté
	Two Sevres	Niort
	Lower Charente	Santes
Guienne	Girone	Bourdeaux
	Upper Vienne	Limoges
	Lot and Garonne	Agen
	Avieron	Rodez
	Dordogne	Perigeux
	Lot	Cahors
Gaſcony	Gers	Auch
	Upper Pyrenees	Tarbe
	Lower Pyrenees	Pau
	Landis	Marſan
	Eaſt Pyrenees	Perpignan
Languedoc	Upper Garonne	Touloufe
	Gard	Niſmes
	Herault	Montpelier
	Arriege	Foix
	Tarne	Caſtres
	Aude	Carcaſſone
	Lozere	Mende
Provence	Mouths of Rhone	Aix
	Var	Toulon
	Lower Alps	Digne

Inland Departments.		Chief Towns.
Lorraine	Moſelle	Mentz
	Voſges	Epiana
	Meurte	Nanci
	Meuſe	Barleduc
Alſace	Lower Rhine	Straſburg
	Upper Rhine	Colmar
Champagne	Aube	Troyes
	Marne	Chaalons
	Upper Marne	Chaumont
	Ardennes	Mezieres

Fr. Comte

A NEW MAP of FRANCE

ENGLAND
THE ENGLISH CHANNEL
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAY OF BISCAY
SPAIN
GERMANY
SWITZERLAND
ITALY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
GULF OF LYONS
GULF OF GENOA

Bristol
Hartland P.
Dover
Str. of Dover
Chichester
Pool
Portsmouth
Beachy H.
Dunkirk
Ghent
Antwerp
Mechlin
Maestricht
Liege
Aix la Chapelle
Fuld
Wight
Plymouth
Tor B.
Scilly I.
Falmouth
Start P.
Lizard Pt.
S. Mary
Dieppe
Abbeville
Amiens
Arras
St. Quentin
Lisle
Mons
Boulogne
ARTOIS
FLANDERS
Mons
Limburg
Mosselle R.
Frankfort
Wurtzburg
Alderney I.
Sark I.
Guernsey I.
Jersey I.
Cherbourg
Havre de Grace
CAUX
Bully
Rouen
Novon
Compiegne
PICARDIE
Mentz
Thionville
Verdun
Sarlouis
Sarbruck
Metz
LORAINE
Dragons Pt.
Les 7 Isles
Coutances
Bayeux
Caen
Estaux
Pte. d'Ailly
Beauvais
ISLE DE FRANCE
PARIS
Montmaur
Vertus
Chalon
Bar
Mihiel
Nanc
Luneville
Hanau
Stutgard
NORMANDIE
Avranches
Sees
Alencon
PERCHE
CHAMPAGNE
Troyes
Sens
Monstier
Brayeres
Milhausen
Chaumont
Clesmont
Langres
Mont Miardo
Bey
Chartreaux
Gabi
Dijon
FRANCHE COMTE
Belancon
Mortau
Lucerne
SWITZERLAND
BRETAGNE
MAINE
ORLEANOIS
Orleans
Montargis
Chat Dun
Estampes
Vouzon
Blois
Vendome
Loire R.
Allier R.
Nivernois
BOURGOGNE
Dole
Salins
Beaune
C. Claud
Macon
BRESSE
Bourg
Geneva
Belley
Chambery
Trevoux
Lyons
DOMBES
LYONNOIS
Vienne
Grenoble
ITALY
Roham
Rennes
Laval
le Mans
Alençon
Vannes
Devizes
Auxerre
Nantes
Angers
Tours
ANJOU
TOURAIN
Bourges
Vierzon
Issoudun
Nevers
Chat Roux
Amand
BERRY
Clavs
Moulins
BOURBONNOIS
Guerri
Evaux
Gien
Montargis
Chartres
Dreux
Evreux
Rouen
Caudebec
Harfleur
Havre de Grace
Honfleur
Caen
Falaise
Bayeux
Coutances
Cherbourg
Granville
St. Malo
Dinan
Brest
L'Orient
Hennebon
Quimper
Morlaix
Roscoff
Belleisle
Ile d'Yeu
Ile de Re
Ile d'Oleron
St. Gilles
Fontenay
Olonne
Luçon
Mouilleron
Nieort
Rochelle
Rochefort
Marans
Saintes
Angoulême
ANGOUMOIS
Limoges
Brive
Tulle
LIMOSIN
Clermont
Issoire
Riom
Ambert
Thiers
AUVERGNE
Le Puy
Aurillac
St. Flour
Mauriac
Murat
Mende
Florac
Alais
Uzes
Nismes
Montpellier
Arles
Salon
Aix
Riez
Digne
Senez
Grasse
Frejus
Marseilles
Toulon
Antibes
Genoa
Abbeville
Abbeas
Viviers
Valence
Briancon
DAUPHINE
Gap
S. Paul
Vaison
Carmentras
PROVENCE
Bourdeaux
Castlemoron
GUIENNE
Cahors
Montpezat
Agen
Bazas
Condom
Leytoure
Dax
Auch
Ayre
Bayonne
Toulouse
Montauban
Tarbes
Lavaur
Alby
Castres
Lodon
LANGUEDOC
Beziers
Narbonne
Carcassone
Pamiers
Foix
Mirepoix
Perpignan
ROUSSILLON
CATALONIA
Girone
BEARN
Oleron
Clarbe
Miranda
Lescar
Tolosa
Rampelune
Sangueca
S. Bertrand
Pyrenean M.

Inland Departments.		Chief Towns.
Fr. Comté	Doubs	Beſancon
	Jura	Dole
	Upper Soanne	Veſoul
Burgundy	Cote D'Or	Dijon
	Soanne and Loir	Macon
	Yonne	Auxerre
Dauphiné	Iſere	Grenoble
	Drome	Romans
	Upper Alps	Gap
	Ardeche	Privas
	Rhone and Loire	Lyons
Auver	Puy de Dome	Clermont
	Cantal	St. Fleur
	Upper Loire, *Vel*	Le Puy
	Coreze, *Limoſin*	Tulle
	Creuſe, *Marche*	Gueret
	Charente, *Aug.*	Angouleme
	Allier, *Bourbon*	Moulines
Berry	Cher	Bourges
	Ain	Bourg
	Indre	Chateauroux
	Indre & Loire, *To.*	Tours
Marne	Sarte	Le Mans
	Mayenne	Laval
	Maire and Loire	Angers
Orleans	Loiret	Orleans
	Eure and Loire	Chartres
	Loir and Cher	Blois
	Nievre, *Nivernois*	Nevers
	Corſica iſland	Baſtia

Avignon and Venaiſchin are in this department.

The air of France, particularly that of the interior parts, is in general mild and wholeſome; but it has been lately repreſented, by ſome, as not nearly ſo ſalubrious as is pretended; and it muſt be acknowledged that the French have been but too ſucceſsful in giving the inhabitants of Great-Britain falſe prepoſſeſſions in favour of their own country: it muſt indeed be owned, that their weather is more clear and ſettled than that in England. In the northern provinces, where the firing is chiefly of wood, the winters are intenſely cold; but towards the ſouth it is ſo mild, that many ſickly and aged perſons retire thither from England at that ſeaſon, to avoid the rigour of our climate.

The quality of the ſoil varies greatly according to its ſituation. The upper part of Provence is adapted for the growth of corn; and the lower for high-flavoured fruits. The ſoil of Burgundy is ſo rich, that it has been called the mother of wine and corn; and Picardy, that of the national magazine for corn, flax, and fruit. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than thoſe of England; but neither the paſturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, ſo that it has no verdure, and the ſoil barely produces as much rye and cheſnuts as are ſufficient for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants.

No nation is better ſupplied than France is with wholeſome ſprings and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent uſe, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniences of life. The French have of late endeavoured to ſupply the loſs ariſing from their precarious title to their lands, by inſtituting academies of agriculture, and propoſing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but theſe expedients, however ſucceſsful they may be in particular inſtances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the huſbandman is ſure of enjoying the fruits of his labour.

The principal mountains in France, or on its borders, are the Alps, which divide it from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide it from Spain; Vauge, which divides Lorrain from Burgundy and Alſace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Compté from Switzerland; and Mount Der, in the province of Auvergne. In Dauphiné there is that called the Inacceſſible Mountain, being an inverted pyramid broader at the top than at the bottom; and Mount Breſier, ſituated near the Alps, which often breaks out into flames.

The chief rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhône, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire riſes in the Cevennes, and, running a courſe of north and north-weſt, falls into the Bay of Biſcay, below Nantz. The Rhône riſes in Switzerland, and flows in a ſouth-weſt courſe to Lyons, after which it runs due ſouth till it falls into the Mediterranean, being joined in its paſſage by the Saone, and other rivers of leſs note. The Rhône is always higheſt in ſummer, which is attributed to the melting of the ſnow upon the Alps. The Garonne has its ſource in the Pyrenees, and, after traverſing a north-eaſt courſe, falls into the Bay of Biſcay, below Bourdeaux. The Seine riſes in Burgundy, and, running to the north-weſt, falls into the Engliſh Channel between Havre-de-Grace and Harfleur, having in its way viſited Troyes, Paris, and Rouen.—Among the ſmaller rivers are the Saone; the Charente, which riſes near Havre-de-Grace, and diſcharges itſelf into the Bay of Biſcay; the Somme, which runs north-weſt through Picardy, and falls into the Engliſh Channel below Abbeville; the Adour, which running from eaſt to weſt through Gaſcoigne, falls into the Bay of Biſcay below Bayonne; and the Var, which has its ſource in the Alps, and, running ſouth, divides France from Italy, after which it falls into the Mediterranean weſt of Nice.

There are few conſiderable lakes in France: there is one at Iſſaire, in Auvergne; a ſecond at La Beſſes, which, if a ſtone is caſt into it, makes a noiſe nearly as loud as thunder; and a third on the top of a hill near Alegre, which, according to vulgar report, is bottomleſs.

The number of navigable rivers with which France is watered, together with the noble canals by which theſe rivers are united, and the navigation extended, have been productive of advantages unknown in many other kingdoms, and reflect more honour on Louis XIV. than all his victories. The canal of Languedoe was begun in 1666, and completed in 1680; it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the ſpeedier paſſage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immenſe expence, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not anſwered that purpoſe. By the canal of Calais, travellers eaſily paſs by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a courſe of eighteen leagues, to the immenſe benefit of the public, and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpreſſibly commodious and beneficial. The great uſe of theſe canals in Picardy will appear when it is obſerved, that the river Somme, which riſes above St. Quintin, paſſes by that city, Ham, Peranne, Brai, Corbie, Amiens, Pequigny, Abbeville, and St. Valori, where it falls into the ſea. The river Oiſe has its ſource in Thierache, paſſes by Guiſe, Le Fere, Chauny, Noyon, Compeigne, Creil, Beaumont, Pontoiſe, and then diſcharges itſelf into the Seine above Conflans-Saint-Honore.

The moſt remarkable ſprings and mineral-waters are, 1. The freſh well near Veſaul in Burgundy, about 15 fathoms wide at the top, and 20 deep; but ſometimes it is ſo agitated as to overflow inſtantaneouſly, and produce a rapid ſtream. 2. The burning ſpring at Saſſenage. 3. A ſpring at the Roqueburne in Languedoc, on the waters of which ſwims a kind of oil, of a very ſalutary nature, both in internal and external applications. 4. A ſpring near Aigne in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noiſe reſembling that of water thrown on lime; it is inſipid to the taſte, but of a poiſonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die immediately. The waters of Sultzbach in Alface,

face, are ſaid to cure the palſy, weak nerves, and the ſtone. At Bagueiis, not far from Bareges, are ſeveral wholeſome minerals and baths, to which people reſort as to the Engliſh baths, at ſpring and autumn. Ferges, in Normandy, is celebrated for its mineral-waters, and thoſe at St. Amand cure the gravel and obſtructions.

France abounds in marble and free-ſtone; in Languedoc there are ſome veins of gold and ſilver, as well as turquoiſes, the only gem this kingdom produces; Alſace contains ſilver and copper; Brittany has mines of iron, tin, lead, and copper; and in other parts are found alabaſter, jaſper, coal, chalk, oker, &c. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which ſerves for melting of metals, and for dyeing, particularly the beſt drab cloths; in the province of Anjou are ſeveral quarries of fine white ſtone; and at Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk.

The roots, herbs, and other vegetable productions of France, are much finer than thoſe of England, and conſequently their ſoups, ſalads, &c. are ſuperior to ours. The principal objects of cultivation among the French are their vines, and the excellency of the wines they produce is univerſally acknowledged, in particular the wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gaſcony, and thoſe called Hermitage, Frontiniac, and Pontacke, are much admired, not only for their pleaſant taſte, but ſalubrious qualities.

Elm, aſh, and oak, are produced in France, but the latter is not ſo good as that which grows in England, and the interior provinces are now greatly in want of wood for fuel. Hemp and flax alſo abound in this kingdom. The province of Goſtmois yields great quantities of ſaffron. At Rhé, Rochfort, and their vicinity, great quantities of ſalt are made. The herb called kali, which grows in Languedoc, furniſhes abundance of pot-aſhes, and prunes and capers are produced near Bourdeaux and Toulon. The French were formerly famous for horticulture, but they are at preſent far inferior to the Engliſh, both in the management and diſpoſition of their gardens. The oppreſſed farmer had very little encouragement in France to apply himſelf to the practice of agriculture; ſo that, even in plentiful years, the lands yield little more than is neceſſary for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants; and a bad harveſt, eſpecially in time of war, is attended with the moſt diſtreſſing ſcarcity.

The horſes, black cattle, and ſheep of France, are far inferior to thoſe of England, and the wool is not ſo fine, but the hair and ſkin of the ſhamois, or mountain goat, are ſuperior to ours. There are few other animals, either wild or tame, in France, but what are common to England, wolves excepted; and theſe ferocious creatures do a great deal of miſchief, and are much dreaded by thoſe perſons who reſide near woods or foreſts. It is here neceſſary to deſcribe the wolf, which is the largeſt and fierceſt animal of the dog ſpecies, and partakes ſomewhat of the nature of a dog. He has a wild look, ſhining eyes, ſharp teeth, ſhort neck, and blackiſh colour. He bears hunger long, has a howling voice, oblong blunt muzzle, ſhort ears, and a thick tail.

The marine productions of France and thoſe of England are alike; but the former are not ſo plentifully ſupplied with ſalt-water fiſh, even on the ſea-coaſts.

The foreſts in France are very extenſive, the chief of which are, that of Orleans, which contains fourteen thouſand acres of wood, which are of various kinds, ſuch as oak, elm, aſh, &c. The foreſt of Fontainbleau, nearly as large as that of Orleans; and one near Morchiſmoir, wherein the trees are remarkably tall and ſtraight. The woods in this kingdom are alſo very large and numerous, but are ſituated ſo far from water carriage, that they are of very little utility, which is of the utmoſt advantage to a nation where wood forms the principal fuel; and, it is ſaid, that the internal parts of France begin to feel the want of firing greatly.

According to the lateſt and beſt calculations, France at preſent contains about 25,000,000 of inhabitants. It has been ſuppoſed that France was much more populous before the revocation of the edict of Nantes by Lewis XIV. ſince which period great numbers of the natives, particularly manufacturers, have left the kingdom, and ſettled in foreign parts. This fatal ſtep in politics, together with the almoſt perpetual wars in which that kingdom has been engaged, and the emigration to her colonies, have drained France of great numbers of her inhabitants.

The French, in their perſons, are rather lower and more ſlender than their neighbours; but they are well proportioned, and very nimble and active. They are of a ſallow complexion; and the ladies more remarkable for ſprightlineſs of their wit, than the charms of their beauty.

"The genius and manners," ſays a late writer, "of the French, are well known, and have been the ſubject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character, and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of who have derived great utility from a national weakneſs. It ſupports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage inſpires other nations. This character, however, is conſpicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers; for the common ſoldiers of France have but little idea of heroiſm. Hence it hath been obſerved, with great juſtice, of the French and Engliſh, that the French officers will lead, if their ſoldiers will follow, and the Engliſh ſoldiers will follow, if their officers will lead. The ſame principle of vanity is of admirable uſe to the government, becauſe the lower ranks, when they ſee their ſuperiors elated, as in the time of a former war with England, under the moſt diſgraceful loſſes, never think that they are unfortunate; thence proceeds the paſſive ſubmiſſion of the French under all their calamities." This national vanity is in nothing more diſcernible than in their writings, in which, when they mention the inhabitants of any other kingdom or ſtate, they take care not to omit ſome compliment to their own ſuperiority. They plume themſelves upon their courteſy, and fancy that politeneſs is confined to the natives of their country only. They may be characterized as being well mannered, rather than well bred. They are indiſcriminately complaiſant and officious, but they ſeldom know how to adjuſt their behaviour to the ſituation and character of thoſe they converſe with. All is a repeated round of politeneſs, which for want of diſcernment becomes affected, often ridiculous, and always diſguſtful to ſentimental people. The moſt abject flattery and diſſimulation coſt them nothing; they even value themſelves upon them, as conſtituting the eſſence of politeneſs. Sincerity is therefore not to be expected in their plauſible profeſſions; nor is candour to be hoped for from their moſt ſolemn promiſes; though a very judicious and experienced writer has attempted to palliate this part of their character, with ſome appearance of reaſon: "The French," ſays he, "have been cenſured for inſincerity; but this is a fault which they poſſeſs in no greater degree than their neighbours: and the imputation is generally owing to their exceſs of civility, which throws a ſuſpicious light upon their candour. In private life they have juſt as much virtue as other European nations, and have given as many proofs of generoſity and diſintereſtedneſs; but this is far from being the character of their government, which has prepoſſeſſed the Engliſh againſt the whole nation; and when the French are no longer formidable, they will be no longer thought faithleſs."

No people bear the frowns of the world with a better grace; yet they cannot ſuſtain proſperity with equal

equal moderation; but the leaſt elevation of fortune become intolerably vain, arbitrary, inſolent and imperious. In their loweſt circumſtances, they are capricious and litigious, and ſucceſs increaſes and gives a keener edge to their captious temper. The women enjoy great freedoms, which are authorized by fashion; and even when they appear too licentious, men are afraid to reſtrain them, leſt their *politeſſe* ſhould be called in queſtion, and they ſhould fall under the imputation of being narrow-minded. That [illegible] deportment which is ſo much admired in other countries, is here deemed *ruſticity*: and ſuppoſed to ſpring from the want of *knowing life*, or being introduced into *genteel company*. Hence the ladies are celebrated more for their ſprightly wit, and degagé behaviour, than for their perſonal beauty. The peaſantry, compared with thoſe of England, may juſtly be deemed ugly and dirty; but if they are not ſo handſome, they are livelier; and if they are not ſo neat, they are much merrier.

Many able writers have taken great pains in delineating the characters of the French; a very ingenious author of our own times, who wanted neither information nor abilities, has been very particular in deſcribing the particularities obſervable among this people.

"The natural levity of the French," ſays this writer, "is reinforced by the moſt prepoſterous education, and the example of a giddy people engaged in the moſt frivolous purſuits. A Frenchman is, by ſome prieſt or monk, taught to read his mother tongue, and ſay his prayers in a language he does not underſtand. He learns to dance and to fence by the maſters of theſe ſciences. He becomes a complete connoiſſeur in dreſſing hair, and adorning his own perſon, under the hands and inſtructions of his barber and valet de chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or violin, he is altogether irreſiſtible. But he piques himſelf with being poliſhed above the natives of any other country, by his converſation with the fair-ſex. In the courſe of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns, like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a ſet of phraſes ridiculous even to a proverb; and theſe he throws out indiſcriminately to all women without diſtinction, in the exerciſe of that kind of addreſs which is there diſtinguiſhed by the name of gallantry. It is an exerciſe, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in conſequence of his mingling with the fair-ſex from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their cuſtoms and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thouſand little offices, which are over-looked by other men, whoſe time has been ſpent in making more valuable acquiſitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bed-chamber while ſhe is in bed, reaches her whatever ſhe wants, airs her ſhift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the diſtribution of her patches, and adviſes where to lay on the paint. If he viſits her when ſhe is dreſſed, and perceives the leaſt impropriety in her coiffure, he inſiſts upon adjuſting it with his own hands. If he ſees a curl, or even a ſingle hair amiſs, he produces his comb, his ſciſſors, and his pomatum, and ſets it to rights with the dexterity of a profeſſed frizeur. He ſquires her to every place ſhe viſits, either on buſineſs or pleaſure; and by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himſelf neceſſary to her occaſions. In ſhort, of all the coxcombs upon the face of the earth, a French petit-maitre is the moſt impertinent; and they are all petit-maitres from the marquis, who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the barber's boy, covered with meal, who ſtruts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

"I ſhall mention one cuſtom more, which ſeems to carry human affectation to the very furtheſt verge of folly and extravagance: that is, the manner in which the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally ſuppoſed, that part of the fair-ſex in ſome other countries make uſe of fard and vermillion for very different purpoſes, namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I ſhall not inquire whether it is juſt and honeſt to impoſe in this manner on mankind; if it is not honeſt, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and ſhews at leaſt a deſire of being agreeable. But to lay it on as the faſhion in France preſcribes to all ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of diſtinction, is to diſguiſe themſelves in ſuch a manner as to render them odious and deteſtable to every ſpectator, who has the leaſt reliſh left for nature and propriety. As for the fard, or white, with which their ſhoulders and necks are plaſtered, it may be in ſome meaſure excuſable, as their ſkins are naturally brown or ſallow; but the rouge, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to their eyes, without the leaſt art or dexterity, not only deſtroys all diſtinction of features, but renders the aſpect really frightful, or at leaſt conveys nothing but ideas of diſguſt or averſion. Without this horrible maſk no married lady is admitted at court, or at any polite aſſembly, and it is a mark of diſtinction, which none of the lower claſſes dare aſſume."

The national vanity of the French induced them, till lately, to conſider the Engliſh as barbarians; but late wars, and the unanimous ſuffrages of their beſt writers, have greatly contributed to obliterate this falſe idea, and they now conſider the Engliſh in a very different light. It is, however, but juſtice to acknowledge, that the French have given a poliſh to the ferocious manners, and even virtues of other nations. It muſt alſo be obſerved, that the ſuperior order of men among the French are of a very different way of thinking from thoſe below them; they ſee with indignation the frivolous manners of both court and people, and heartily deſpiſe them. They think and act for themſelves, are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. Theſe men, during the war of 1756, ſaw the management of their armies, their finances, and fleets, with ſilent indignation, and their reſearches were favourable to the Engliſh. The concluſion of the peace of Fontainbleau, and the viſits which they have ſince paid to England, have improved that good opinion; the courtiers themſelves have fallen in with it; and, what ſome years ago would have been thought incredible, people of faſhion in France now ſtudy the Engliſh language, and imitate them in their cuſtoms, amuſements, dreſs, and buildings. They alſo both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addiſon, Hume, Robertſon, Richardſon, and many others of the laſt and preſent century, are ſacred among the French of any education; and, to this truth, the writings of ſuch men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raiſe the name of Great-Britain to that degree of eſteem in which it has been held of late by foreign nations, and to render our language more univerſal, and even a neceſſary ſtudy among foreign nobility.

The continual fluctuation of the French faſhions would render any peculiar deſcription of their dreſs needleſs, and their perpetual caprices would make a minute detail impoſſible. It may, however, be ſaid, that they have more invention in their dreſs than any of their neighbours, and their conſtantly changing their faſhions is of infinite ſervice to their manufactures. "When a ſtranger firſt arrives at Paris," ſays a neighbouring writer, "he finds it neceſſary to ſend for the tailor, peruquier, hatter, ſhoemaker, and every other tradeſman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He muſt even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles; and, though at the riſk of his life, ſuit his clothes to the mode of the ſeaſon. For example, though the weather ſhould be ever ſo cold

cold he muſt wear his *habit d'eté* [ſummer ſuit] or *demi ſaiſon* [mid ſeaſon] without preſuming to put on a warm dreſs before the day which faſhion has fixed for that purpoſe; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuſe a man for wearing his hat upon his head either at home or abroad. Females are, if poſſible, ſtill more ſubject to the caprices of faſhion. All their ſacks and negligés muſt be altered and new trimmed. They muſt have new caps, new laces, new ſhoes, and their hair new cut. They muſt have their taffeties for the ſummer, their flowered ſilks for the ſpring and autumn, and their ſatins and damaſks for winter. The men too muſt provide themſelves with a camblet ſuit trimmed with ſilver for ſpring and autumn, with ſilk clothes for ſummer, and cloth laced with gold or velvet for winter; and he muſt wear his bag-wig *à la pigeon*. This variety of dreſs is abſolutely indiſpenſable for all thoſe who pretend to any rank above the mere vulgar. All ranks from the king downwards uſe powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their ſuperiors in the fripperies of faſhion. The common people of the country, however, ſtill retain, without any material deviation, the old faſhioned modes of dreſs, the large hat and moſt enormous jack-boots, with ſuitable ſpurs; and this contraſt is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities the clergy, lawyers, phyſicians, and merchants, generally dreſs in black; and it has been obſerved that the French nation, in their modes of dreſs, are in ſome meaſure governed by commercial circumſtances. A Frenchman will ſooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the ſoldiers in France wear a long queue; and this ridiculous foppery has deſcended, as I ſaid before, to the loweſt claſs of people. The boy who cleans ſhoes at the corner of a ſtreet, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an aſs, wears his hair en queue, though perhaps he has neither ſhirt nor breeches."

The diverſions of the French are much the ſame as thoſe of the Engliſh, but they carry their gallantry to a much greater exceſs. Perſons in high rank accompliſh themſelves in the academical exerciſes of dancing, fencing, and riding; in the practice of which they excell all their neighbours in ſkill and gracefulneſs; and indeed few of the common people are without ſome knowledge of thoſe embelliſhments. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-ſaddle, and monſtrous curb bridle, in that exerciſe, and accommodate themſeves to the Engliſh manner. The landlords were as jealous of their game as they are in England, and equally niggardly of it to their inferiors.

The only religion eſtabliſhed in France for many centuries paſt, was the Roman-Catholic, nor has any other been tolerated ſince the revocation of the edict of Nantes. In the ſouthern parts of France, ſome of the clergy and magiſtrates have been as intolerant as ever; and the perſecutions of the Proteſtants, or as they are called, Hugonots, who are very numerous in thoſe provinces, have been continued till very lately. The French, however, would never admit that infernal tribunal, the inquiſition, to be eſtabliſhed in their country: and in many reſpects the king, clergy, and laity, have been more free and independent of the pope of Rome, than in other Roman-Catholic countries. The Papiſts themſelves were divided into ſeveral ſects, among whom the Janſeniſts, the Quietiſts, and the Bourignons, were the principal. The Gallican church has more than once attempted to ſhake off the yoke of the popes, and made a very great progreſs in the attempt during the reign of Lewis XIV. but it was defeated by the ſecret bigotry of that prince, who, while he was bullying the pope, was inwardly trembling under the power of the Jeſuits, a ſet of dangerous eccleſiaſtics that is now exterminated from that kingdom. Upon the whole, the ſtate of religion in France has long afforded a ſtrong proof of the paſſive diſpoſition of the natives, and the bigotry of their kings, who, in complaiſance to the pope, have deprived the ſtate, as we have already hinted, of many thouſands of its moſt uſeful inhabitants.

By the laws of the new conſtitution, no man is to be moleſted for his opinions, nor interrupted in the exerciſe of his religion. The territorial poſſeſſions of the Gallican church have been claimed as national property, and diſpoſed of through the medium of a paper money called Aſſignats, for the creditors of the ſtate; and the clergy made dependent upon penſionary eſtabliſhments paid out of the national treaſury; out of which are paid alſo the expences of worſhip, the religious, and the poor. All monaſtic eſtabliſhments are ſuppreſſed; but the preſent friars and nuns are allowed to obſerve their vows, and nuns optionally to remain in their convents, or retire upon penſions.

The clergy are elected by the people, and take an oath to obſerve the laws of the new conſtitution; but many of thoſe, called refractory prieſts, have, from a conſcientious refuſal of this oath, been ejected from their benefices, and many of the popular curates made biſhops. The conforming clergy notify to the biſhop of Rome their union in doctrine; but do not pay him fees, nor acknowledge any ſubordination to his authority; and he has in conſequence threatened France with excommunication. They are ſupplied with lodgings upon their livings, whereon they are obliged to reſide, and perform the duties of their office. They vote as active citizens, and are eligible to ſome lay-offices in the diſtricts, but to no principal offices.

As France is now divided into nine metropolitan circles, there is a metropolitan biſhop with a ſynod to each. The metropolitan biſhop is confirmed by the chief biſhop in his circle. To theſe ſynods, appeals are made from the biſhops.

To each of the eighty-three departments, which form ſo many dioceſes, a biſhop is appointed; which appointment is made by the electoral aſſembly of the department, and confirmed by the metropolitan biſhop, but muſt have held an eccleſiaſtical office fifteen years. The ſalaries are from 500l. to 840l. per annum. Each dioceſe has alſo a ſeminary, with three vicars, and a vicar-general to prepare ſtudents for holy orders, and theſe vicars conſtitute a council for the biſhop.

The biſhop chooſes vicars of biſhops from among ſuch of the clergy of his dioceſe who have done duty ten years. The ſalaries are from 84l. to 250l. annually.

Thoſe who are miniſters of pariſhes, or curés in the diſtricts, are confirmed by the biſhop, and they muſt have been vicars to miniſters five years. They have ſalaries from 50l. to 160l. per annum, and receive penſions when infirm.

The vicars of miniſters are choſen by the miniſter from among the prieſts admitted in the dioceſe by the biſhop, and receive annual ſalaries from 50l. to 100l. ſterling.

There are in France more than two millions of Non-Catholics; and the Proteſtants, who are greatly increaſing, are, in proportion to the Catholics, as one to twelve. There are already many regular congregations: ſuch as German Lutherans, French and Swiſs Calviniſts, Bohemian Anabaptiſts, and Walloon or Flemiſh Diſſidents, beſides many chapels for the ambaſſadors. Many Jews alſo reſide here.

The French language is formed out of that of the Gauls, Romans, and Franks, and is pretty generally underſtood throughout Europe, particularly by genteel people, whoſe education is deemed defective without it. It is not however ſo ſtrong, expreſſive, and energetic, as the Engliſh, but ſeems beſt accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common converſation.

Dryden juſtly obſerves, that the French language has all the ſwiftneſs of a greyhound, but the Engliſh all the ſtrength of a maſtiff. A late traveller ſays, "there are two great difficulties which an impractiſed

tiſed perſon is under here, in common ſpeech; the one is from the rapid pronunciation of the natives, which always appears to be the caſe when the language is not familiar to us; the other from the idioms or forms peculiar to the language. There is no effectual cure for either, but frequent converſation with the French people of all claſſes on their own ground. Some of our countrymen go armed with a dictionary, and make their French as they want it; but ſuch French is generally an awkward verſion of the Engliſh forms of ſpeech, not intelligible to French people. An Engliſh gentleman of this claſs was at dinner in a public company, and his buſineſs requiring him to be gone as ſoon as decency would permit, he wanted to tell the French ſervant that "*every body had done*," with deſign that the things might be taken away: he conſults his book, and finds that *every body* is *tout le monde*, and *done* is *fini*, which with his narrow Engliſh pronunciation was, *tout le monde eſt fini*. The waiter, who happened to be a lad of humour, took up the miſtake, and cried out, *Miſericorde! que ferons nous? Monſieur dit que tout le monde eſt fini*. "Mercy on us, what ſhall we do?—the gentleman ſays the world is at an end."

The Lord's prayer in French is as follows: Nôtre Pére qui es aux cieux, ton nom ſoit ſanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté ſoit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'hui nôtre pain quotidien. Pardonne-nous nos offences, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offenſés. Et ne nous indui point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal: car à toi eſt le regne, la puiſſance, et la gloire, aux ſiécles des ſiécles. Amen.

With reſpect to learning and learned men, we may remark, that after the deſtruction of the Greek and Roman empire, by the barbarous nations of the north, and the ſtill more ferocious followers of Mahomet, France, like moſt other nations of Europe, lay immerſed in barbariſm for more than twelve centuries. The poetry of theſe times conſiſted wholly in a childiſh jingle of words; and the human genius, inſtead of being engaged in the ſtudy of objects worthy of its faculties, was devoted to frivolous queſtions with regard to abſtract and metaphyſical eſſences. At the ſame time the ſtate of ſlavery in which the far greater part of Europe lay, together with the ravages of ſuperſtition, at once the child and parent of ignorance, greatly contributed to debaſe the faculties of the human mind, and render the revival of learning a taſk of almoſt inſurmountable difficulty. At laſt the invention of printing, and the encouragement of Francis I. the friend of learning, gave a new turn to the ſtudies of the French; and the finiſhed works of the ancients were read with pleaſure and admiration.—Some progreſs was daily made in erudition, and the ſparks of genius, which had long lain neglected, were kindled by the noble and manly flame of the ancients.

Many learned men appeared during this reign in France, and did honour to their country. The works of the two Stephens are univerſally known. Malherbe, trained up in the ſtudy of the excellent poets of antiquity, and taking nature for his guide, enriched the French poetry with new beauties and harmony.—Balzac followed his example, and gave majeſty to their proſe. The ſociety of Port Royal continued what Balzac had begun, and added purity and accuracy, which rendered the French language at once pleaſing and nervous.

But the reign of Louis XIV. was the moſt ſplendid æra of literature in France. The encouragement he gave to learning, and the penſions he beſtowed on learned men, will render his name immortal. Encouragament is never beſtowed on men of genius in vain. The number of learned men was prodigious, and formed a brilliant conſtellation in the ſphere of literature. Corneille, for many years a ſlave to falſe taſte, became free at laſt, and diſcovered the laws of the drama by the ſtrength of his own genius, rather than by his reading. Racine ſtruck into a new track, introduced into tragedy a paſſion of tenderneſs known only on the ſtage of the ancients, and unfolded the artifices of the human heart in a ſtrain of truth and elegance joined with ſublimity. Both theſe writers are diſtinguiſhed for the juſtneſs of their painting, the elegance of their taſte, and their ſtrict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere finely painted and ridiculed the follies of age, and greatly excelled the ancient comedy. La Fontaine, in his fables, rivalled Æſop; and Boſſuet, Bourdeloue, Fletcher, and Maſſillon, carried the eloquence of the pulpit to a great degree of perfection.

The arts of eloquence are ſo connected with polite learning, that a turn for cultivating the one, leads to improve the other. While literature flouriſhed in this manner, Pouſſin produced his paintings, and Puget his ſtatues; Le Sueur painted the Chartreux, Le Brun the battles of Alexander, and Lulli invented a ſpecies of muſic adapted to the French language.

Sculpture is in general better underſtood in France than in moſt other countries of Europe. Their treatiſes on ſhip-building and engineering ſtand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the Engliſh. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our ſuperiors in architecture, though now we bid fair to excel them in that art.

The univerſities in France are eighteen in number, viz. Paris, Orleans, Rheims, Poictiers, Bourdeaux, Angers, Nantz, Caen, Bourges, Montpelier, Cahors, Valence, Aix, Avignon, Dole, Perpignan, Pont à Mouſon, and Orange. That of Paris is the principal, and is ſaid to have been founded by Charlemagne: here all the arts and ſciences are taught, particularly law, phyſic, and divinity: it conſiſts of above forty colleges, of which the chief are thoſe of the Sorbonne, Navarre, the faculty of phyſic, and of the four nations; lectures are read only in eleven of them. The head of this univerſity is the rector, who is choſen every three months, but is ſometimes continued four years. All the profeſſors have ſettled ſalaries; and the whole income of the univerſity is ſaid to amount to about 50,000 livres annually.

Beſides theſe univerſities, there are colleges eſtabliſhed in ſeveral parts of France; but all thoſe literary inſtitutions have ſuffered an irreparable loſs by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, who always made the languages, arts, and ſciences, their particular ſtudy, and taught them throughout that kingdom: but as the extinction of this body of men will probably leſſen the influence of ſuperſtition in France, there is reaſon to believe that the intereſts of real learning will, upon the whole, be promoted by that event.

There are eight academies in Paris, namely, three literary ones, the French academy, that of inſcriptions, and that of the ſciences; one of painting and ſculpture, one of architecture, and three for riding the great horſe, and other exerciſes of a military nature.

The progreſs of philoſophy was much ſlower than that of polite learning in France. A bigotted clergy, convinced that it is their intereſt to keep mankind in ignorance, obſtructed philoſophy in its dawn, and almoſt prohibited men from thinking. Even the power of Louis XIV. and his noble eſtabliſhments for the improvement of learning, were unable to remove the influence of the church. Some great men, however, broke through all reſtraint, and, like the ſun through the miſts of the morning, caſt a pleaſing light around them. Des Cartes had all the neceſſary qualifications for changing the face of philoſophy. His diſcoveries in mathematics were of the greateſt ſervice, and now form the moſt ſolid and indiſputable part of his glory; particularly his application of algebra to geometry, which will always prove a key to the deep reſearches

of the higher geometry, and conſequently to all the phyſico-mathematical ſciences.

Paſcal purſued the mathematical branches of philoſophy with great ſucceſs. His treatiſe on the cycloid diſcovers a prodigious force of genius; and that on the equilibrium of fluids, and the gravity of the air, has opened a new ſcience to philoſophers. Few men, either by their writings or lives, have done more ſervice to religion, than this great man and the archbiſhop of Cambray.

Since the time of Louis XIV. ſeveral writers of eminence have appeared. At the head of theſe is juſtly placed the celebrated Monteſquieu, who may be conſidered as the legiſlator of nations, and an honour to human nature. Buffon, in his Natural Hiſtory, has followed the model of Plato and Lucretius; he has embelliſhed his work with a majeſty and ſublimity of ſtyle ſuitable to the philoſophical ſubjects he deſcribes. Maupertuis has taught his countrymen to ſhake off the yoke of pedantry, and excels in the art of conveying the moſt abſtracted ideas intelligibly. D'Alembert has united the talents of a fine writer with the preciſion of a geometer.

The writers on the Belles Lettres in France are exceedingly numerous, and their productions very agreeable. Voltaire and D'Argens are the moſt conſiderable. The former excels both in proſe and verſe; and no writer ever better underſtood the uncommon art of denoting every idea by the moſt proper and familiar term. He embelliſhes his works without ever miſtaking the colouring; and has the happy talent never to riſe above or ſink below his ſubject.

The polite arts in general have not however made the ſame progreſs in France ſince the age of Louis XIV. as philoſophy. The French have now no painter of note, except M. Greuſe, who excels in portraits and converſation pieces; nor have their ſculptors produced any piece equal to thoſe that diſplay the magnificence of Louis the Great. Muſic alone has made an amazing progreſs ſince that period. The enterpriſing and fruitful genius of M. Rameau, has eraſed the opprobrium thrown by foreigners on the French muſic. His diſtinguiſhing character is the having ſucceſsfully ſtudied the theory of muſic, diſcovered the principles of harmony and melody in the thorough baſs, and by that means reduced to more certain and ſimple laws that which before was ſubject to arbitrary rules, or ſuch only as blind experience dictates.

It would, perhaps, be thought unjuſt to the French, if we did not mention the prodigious work lately publiſhed at Paris, under the title of Encyclopédie, or a General Dictionary of Arts and Sciences, which is the moſt complete ſyſtem of uſeful knowledge we are acquainted with. It is a noble collection of all the branches of human learning, and makes 28 volumes in folio. The plates belonging to this amazing work, with their explanations, make ſix volumes, and are executed in a very maſterly manner. The different parts of the Encyclopédie were drawn up by the moſt able maſters in each branch of literature, and the articles belonging to each are marked with particular letters; liſts of which, with proper explanations, are prefixed to the work. But the whole was methodized and publiſhed by Meſſ. D'Alembert and Diderot.

The cities, towns, palaces, and ſea-ports of France being too numerous to admit of particular deſcriptions of the whole, we ſhall therefore only particularize the moſt reſpectable, beginning with the capital.

Paris, called in Latin Lutetiæ, Pariſiorum, or Pariſium, is ſituated in the iſle of France (now called Oiſe) being both its metropolis, and alſo that of the whole kingdom. It lies in a ſpacious plain on the Seine. This is a very large, populous, and ſtately city, built of a circular form, and ſaid to be fifteen miles in circumference. The ſtreets are very narrow, and the houſes very high, many of them ſeven ſtories. The houſes are built of ſtone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedneſs, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor.

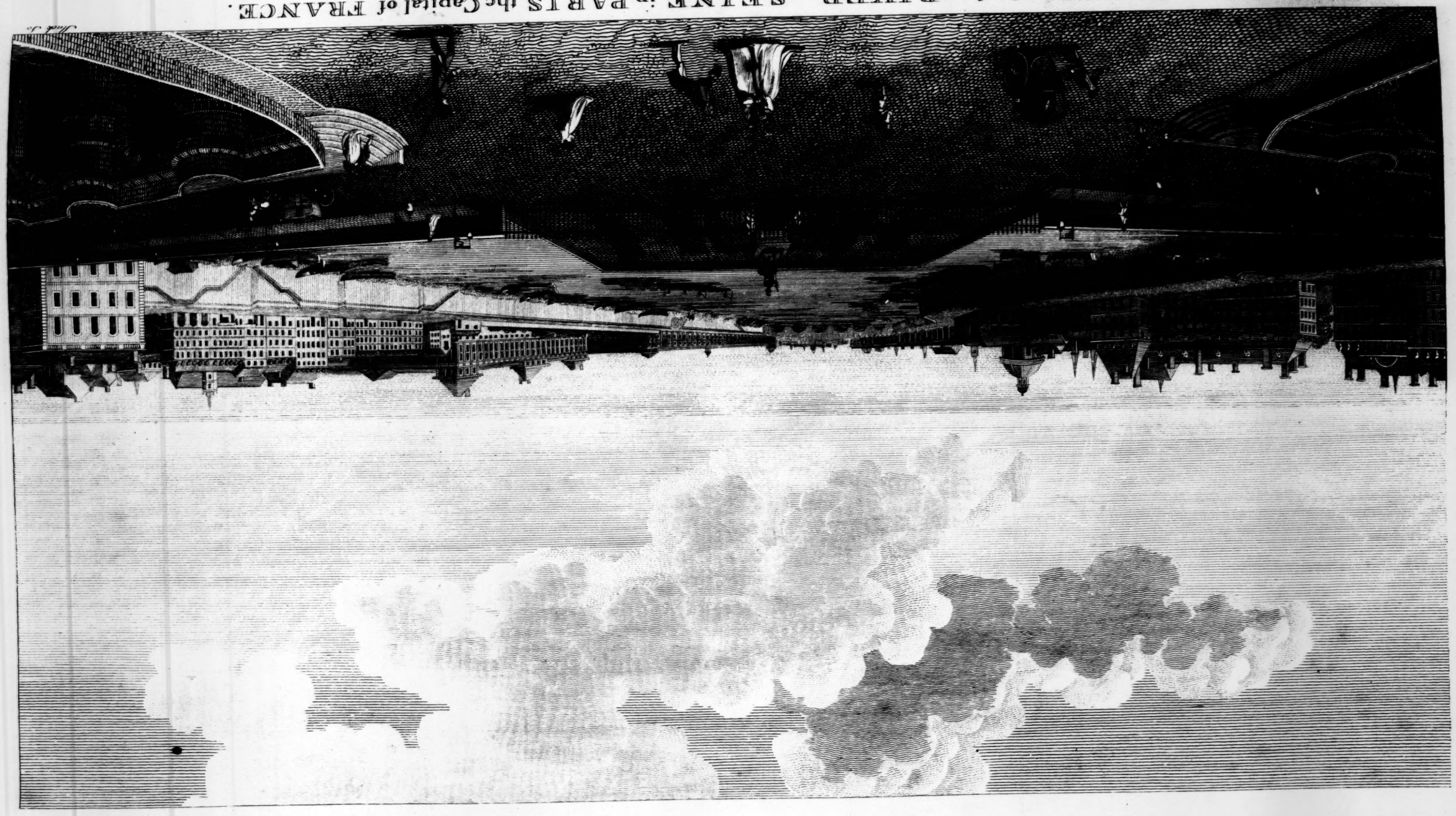
Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the univerſity, and that which was formerly called the town: the city (la cité) is old Paris; the univerſity and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public magnificence than utility. Its palaces are more ſhewy; and ſome of the ſtreets, ſquares, hotels, hoſpitals, and churches, more ſuperbly decorated with a profuſion of paintings, tapeſtry, images, and ſtatues: but Paris, notwithſtanding its boaſted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniencies of life.

The ſtreets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives their capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more ſhew than ſubſtance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of ſtrangers, are moſtly common hacks, hired by the day or week for the numerous foreigners who viſit the city; and, in truth, the greateſt part of the trade of Paris ariſes from the conſtant ſucceſſion of ſtrangers that arrive thither daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This aſcendancy over other nations is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, the gobelines, or manufactures of tapeſtry, their libraries, and collections of paintings that are open to the public: the cheapneſs of proviſions, excellency of the French wines, and, above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all theſe advantages, however, Paris will not bear a compariſon with London in the more eſſential circumſtances of a thriving foreign and domeſtic trade, the cleanneſs of their ſtreets, elegance of their houſes, eſpecially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which is ſaid to diſagree with ſtrangers.

In the houſes of Paris, moſt of their floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being ſprinkled with water, and ſwept once a day. Theſe brick floors, the ſtone ſtairs, the want of wainſcotting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of ſtone, are, however, good preſervatives againſt fire, which ſeldom does any damage in this city. Inſtead of wainſcotting, the walls are covered with tapeſtry or damaſk. There are ſaid to be 105 alleys or ſtreets which have no thoroughfare, upwards of 23,000 houſes of from four to ſeven ſtories, without including the public buildings, religious houſes, ſhops, or warehouſes: the houſes are, in general, handſome, and the fronts, for the moſt part, uniform. Before the revolution, it was the ſee of an archbiſhop, and contained fifty-one pariſh churches, twenty not parochial, ſeventeen collegiate churches, among which were thirteen chapters, forty chapels, three abbies, twenty-two priories, and fifty convents for men, eccleſiaſtical and ſecular; ſeven abbies, ſix priories, and fifty-three convents for women; twelve ſeminaries, ſixteen hoſpitals; ten of them appropriated to children and women, and ſix for deſerted children; an univerſity, ſix academies of ſcience; three academies for the inſtruction of young gentlemen; ſeven public libraries; 124 companies of artiſans and tradeſmen; four royal palaces; upwards of 500 palaces, or houſes inhabited by nobility, and private gentlemen of fortune; ſixteen principal ſquares, and upwards of ſixty inferior; fifty public markets, ſixty fountains, twelve bridges over the Seine, twenty-ſix quays, ſixteen gates, &c.

The chief ornament of the city of Paris is the Louvre, which was built or repaired under the reign of Philip Auguſtus, in the year 1214. It was a caſtle that ſtood without the city. Near it, on the banks of the river Seine, they built a large tower, called the Tower of the Louvre. It defended the river, together with another tower, that ſtood over-againſt it, named the Tower of Neſle. In this tower were ſometimes

A VIEW on the RIVER SEINE in PARIS, the Capital of FRANCE.



ſometimes kept the treaſures of the French kings. It was pulled down when the foundations of what is called the Old Louvre were laid, under Francis I. His ſon Henry II. employed the moſt eminent and celebrated architects of his time to render this building as regular and magnificent as could be. What is called the Old Louvre conſiſts of two ſets of buildings, that form an interior angle, the fronts of which are adorned with very fine pieces of architecture.—The whole building is three ſtories high. The firſt is of the Corinthian order, the ſecond of the Compoſite, and the third of the Attic. The fore or outward courts are adorned with chamfered columns, and the other with pilaſters of the ſame order with thoſe columns. What is chiefly admired is the proportion of the windows of the ſecond ſtory, the caſes of which are moſt elegantly adorned with a pediment alternately triangular and circular. The third ſtory, of the Attic order, has alſo its particular ornaments, conſiſting in trophies of arms, in baſſo-relievo fixed to the window caſes, with other ornaments in the entablatures. In the hall of the hundred Switzers is a kind of gallery ſupported by four gigantic figures. This hall was formerly uſed for great entertainments; and queen Catherine de Medicis cauſed plays and interludes to be acted here for the diverſion of the court.

Henry IV. built a gallery along the river ſide, quite to the Thuilleries, which is very long, and eſteemed the fineſt in Europe. Louis XIII. finiſhed the front to the weſt, and built a large pavilion, in the form of a dome, in the middle, over the gate, which is ſupported by two rows of very large pillars of the Ionic order, and alſo adorned the architrave of the front to the court with fine ſculptures. Louis XIV. beſtowed great coſts upon the eaſt front, in the middle whereof is the eaſt gate of the palace: here are forty columns of the Corinthian order, which ſupport a large terrace, that is railed with a ſtately baluſtrade. The court, which is in the middle of that large building, is very near twenty-three perches ſquare; the four ſides of it are compoſed of eight pavilions, and eight ſets of buildings, which ſurround that great court: there are yet but about three parts of it built. The architecture, after the manner it is begun, is to conſiſt of three orders of columns, with their pedeſtals; the firſt of the Corinthian, and the two others of the Compoſite order.—Louis XIV. who declared himſelf the protector of the French academy, gave that illuſtrious body an apartment in the Louvre to hold their aſſemblies in; as alſo to the academy of medals and inſcriptions, and to the academy of ſciences. The academy of architecture and painting meet in the old Louvre. In the gallery of the Louvre is the royal printing-houſe, eſtabliſhed by cardinal de Richlieu. They printed there the memoires of the royal academies of the ſciences, and the Belles Lettres, the king's orders, the decrees of the council, and ſuch books as the king pleaſed to have printed at his own expence. There is here alſo a mint where they ſtamped the king's medals, and likewiſe thoſe of all the corporations and trading companies in the kingdom, which have every one of them their own emblems and proper mottos. No medals were ſuffered to be ſtruck any where elſe than at the Louvre.

There is in the wardrobe of this palace a prodigious quantity of rich tapeſtry-hangings, both ancient and modern, the fineſt of which have been made in the reign of Francis I. Amongſt them there are the battles of Scipio, and the triumphs of the ſame general; the hiſtory of Joſhua, made after the deſigns of the famous Raphael; the hiſtory of Pſyche; the acts of the apoſtles; the hiſtory of St. Paul, &c. Louis XIV. cauſed ſeveral tapeſtries with gold and ſilver to be made, after the deſigns of Le Brun. There are alſo here, in ſeveral rooms, a large quantity of ancient arms; amongſt which are thoſe which Francis I. wore at the famous battle of Pavia; and on his cuiraſs are ſtill to be ſeen the marks of the blows he received before he ſurrendered to the Spaniards.

Poor women and maidens are allowed to ſojourn in the hoſpital dedicated to St. Catherine, and are entertained three days, being attended by the nuns of St. Auguſtine. In the grand chatelet the ſeſſions were held by the inferior courts of juſtice. Fort L'Eveque contains a mint and a priſon, and is cloſe to the ſpot where Henry IV. was ſtabbed by Ravilliac. St. Germain l'Auxerrais is termed the pariſh church royal, becauſe the Louvre and Thuilleries are ſituated in its pariſh.

The Thuilleries, or Tuileries, ſtands in a place where formerly they made tiles, called Tuiles in French, from whence that palace has its name. It is joined to the Louvre by a gallery which contains 108 models of fortreſſes that are executed with great accuracy: it conſiſts of one range of building, with a pavilion at each end, and a dome in the middle: in the front is an handſome large ſpace divided into three courts; the whole adorned with columns, pilaſters, and other ornaments. Behind this palace are gardens, adorned with fine walks, planted with evergreens, and other trees, and fine parterres; where are to be ſeen, the year round, all the flowers that are in ſeaſon. It has alſo three fine fountains, with their baſons, and a large octagonal canal. Towards the river is a fine terrace planted with three rows of trees. From this terrace is a moſt beautiful proſpect over part of the city, and over the adjacent country. A beautful walk opens on the banks of the river beyond the Thuilleries, which is compoſed of four rows of fine elms, that form three avenues, being together 120 feet broad. In the centre is a ring with trees planted round it in a circular manner, and at each end are iron gates.

The Baſtile was a kind of fortreſs, conſiſting of eight large round towers, joined together by other ſtrong buildings. In the year 1634 it was ſurrounded with ditches and baſtions. It was a priſon for ſtate criminals, and for ſuch as were taken up by lettres-de-cachet, that is to ſay, by warrants ſigned by the king, and ſealed. In it the king kept a governor, a lieutenant, and an independent company of ſoldiers. This building was totally demoliſhed by the populace at the beginning of the French revolution in 1789.

The palace of Luxemburg, alſo called the palace of Orleans, was built by queen Mary de Medicis, on the ruins of the old hotel or houſe of Luxemburg, which name it kept. It was finiſhed in five or ſix years time, under the direction of James de Broſſe; and is one of the moſt perfect and regular pieces of architecture in France. In this palace is a gallery of paintings, done by the famous Rubens, who ſpent two whole years on that work. The whole hiſtory of Mary de Medicis' life is here repreſented allegorically, in 24 large pictures, nine feet broad, and ten feet high, placed in the piers between the windows. The quarter called the Univerſity ſtands in the ſouth of the iſlands of the palace, and of our Lady. It was formerly incloſed by a wall, and ſurrounded with ditches; but under the reign of Louis XIV. the wall was pulled down, and the ditches filled, to make it contiguous to the neighbouring ſuburbs. That of St. Germain is the moſt conſiderable, and is alone larger than the whole quarter called the Univerſity; but it is not ſo populous, becauſe of the many monaſteries, hoſpitals, large houſes or hotels, and gardens that take up a great part of it. Adjoining to this ſuburb are that of St. Michael, which is but ſmall; that of St. James, which is pretty large; and that of St. Marceau, which is larger ſtill: the laſt of all, which is the neareſt to the river on the eaſt, is that of St. Victor, which is very large, but not built all over. The univerſity was founded by Charles the Great, and is appropriated to the cultivation of the arts, ſciences,

ſciences, &c. in general, and phyſic, law, and divinity in particular.

A very humane and noble foundation for the poor of the female ſex, is the general hoſpital, wherein great numbers of them are here provided for: thoſe who are well are compelled to work, but the ſick are tenderly nurſed, and carefully ſupplied with every neceſſary. Different wards are reſpectively aſſigned for foundlings, ſempſtreſſes, idiots, proſtitutes, &c. As this general hoſpital is appropriated to females only, the caſtle of Bicetre is a kind of counterpart, and appointed for the relief of ſimilar neceſſities in the male ſex; and likewiſe for another purpoſe, viz. the puniſhment of children who lead diſſolute lives, or are undutiful to their parents.

In the year 1626, the royal phyſic-garden was firſt founded, by order of Louis XIII. and finiſhed in 1634. There were at firſt four profeſſors of botany, in the room of whom the king eſtabliſhed, in 1671, two demonſtrators of the plants, one of whom is obliged to make the analyſis, or chemical demonſtration of them. There is alſo a laboratory where they read lectures of chemiſtry, and a particular hall for anatomical demonſtrations; and in the year 1712, there was another demonſtrator added, whoſe office is to read lectures on the Materia Medica. The king's firſt phyſician was director of this garden till the year 1718, when Dr. Chirac obtained that place; and after his death it was given to the ſecretary of ſtate for the city and diſtrict of Paris.

The ſeveral following academies in Paris deſerve to be particularly mentioned, viz. 1. The Academie Françoiſe, or French Academy, founded by cardinal Richlieu, for the improvement of the French language, in ſuch a degree as to reduce it to a determinate ſtandard. It conſiſts of forty members, who meet at ſtated times to ſuperintend the inſtitution, and promote the ſame by every probable means. 2. The Royal Academy of Inſcriptions and Belles Lettres, inſtituted for the advancement of polite litterature. In this academy ancient monuments are explained, and the tranſactions of the kingdom perpetuated by medals, inſcriptions, &c. 3. The Royal Academy of Sciences, inſtituted in 1666, has its honorary members, penſioners, aſſociates, and ſtudents. Theſe apply themſelves to the different branches of the mathematics and natural philoſophy. 4. The Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture, founded in 1643. The maſter-pieces of the painters and ſculptors admitted into this academy are diſpoſed in different halls, and marked with the names of the ſeveral artiſts. The Royal Academy of Architecture was founded in 1671, but not authorized by letters patent before the year 1717. It is divided into two claſſes; the firſt is compoſed of ten architects, a profeſſor, and a ſecretary; and the ſecond of twelve other architects. The profeſſor, whoſe poſt, as well as the ſecretary's, is for life, is obliged to read public lectures on ſtated days in the hall of the Louvre. All theſe eſtabliſhments relate to arts and ſciences. There are others deſigned for the improvement of virtue, and promoting religion; ſuch as the ſeminaries where young clerks and prieſts are taught the ceremonies of the church, and the duties and functions of their calling. There are ten of theſe ſeminaries at Paris, among which is one for Engliſh, and another for Iriſh prieſts; and moſt of the biſhops have ſet up ſuch ſeminaries in their dioceſes.

The Pariſians, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor, is conſidered as infamous. Bread and all manner of butcher's meat, and poultry, are extremely good in Paris: the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink, is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the ſummer ſeaſon, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and ſmall wine. The Pariſians ſcarcely know the uſe of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris is ſo well attended to, that quarrels, accidental miſchief, or felonies, ſeldom happen; and ſtrangers, from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever ſo uncommon, meet with the moſt polite treatment. The ſtreets are patroled night and day by horſe and foot; ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, that no offender can eſcape their vigilance. They likewiſe viſit the publicans, who are not permitted to retain company, or ſell liquor, after twelve at night. The public roads in France are under the ſame excellent regulations, which prevent robberies in that kingdom.

The neighbourhood of Paris is very pleaſant, and contains a great number of towns, villages, &c. and ſome fine ſeats, ſome of them being ſituated on the edge of mountains that riſe from the Seine, are extremely delightful. Among the laſt in this government are the royal palace of Meudon; that of the duke of Bourbon at St. Maur des Boſſex; of the arch-biſhop of Paris, near the conflux of the Sciene and Marine, called Conflans; of the prince of Condé at Iſſy; of the count of Thouloufe at Rambouillet; and thoſe called Maiſons and Colaguy, the latter of which belongs to the duke of Maine.

Compeigne, on the Oiſe, 13 leagues north-weſt of Paris, is the place where the maid of Orleans was taken priſoner by the Engliſh in 1430. Here is a palace, which was repaired by Louis XIV. and the gardens finely laid out. The trade of this place principally conſiſts of corn, wood, and wool. At Villers Corteretz, a little town five leagues from Compeigne to the ſouth-eaſt, at the ſide of the foreſt of Retz, is a fine palace formerly belonging to the duke of Orleans, and an abbey.

Soiſſons (now the department of Aiſne) is ſituated ſeven leagues from Paris to the north-eaſt, in a pleaſant valley on the banks of the river Aiſne, over which there is a ſtone bridge. The town is pretty large and well built, being the ſeat of a governor-general, and of an office of the finances, a ſalt-office, ſeveral courts of juſtice, and alſo of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Rheims, and had the right to anoint the French kings during the vacancy of the archiepiſcopal ſee, or in the archbiſhop's abſence. It drives a great trade in corn, contains ſeveral abbies, and other religious houſes, with an old caſtle, and has an academy, whoſe object is the ſame as that of the French academy at Paris.

Verſailles is ſituated four leagues from Paris to the ſouth-weſt; here Louis XIV. built a moſt magnificent palace, and adorned it with noble gardens; it ſtands on a riſing ground in the middle of a valley ſurrounded with hills, having, on the ſide towards Paris, a fine avenue leading to it through the town, which it divides into the Old and New. The apartments of the palace abound with innumerable paintings, ſtatues, antiques, &c. The chapel, built in 1699, is a moſt finiſhed piece of architecture, ſculpture, and painting. Every room in this noble palace has a particular name, taken from the chief ſubject painted on the ceiling.—As for inſtance, the hall or chamber of plenty, La Sale d'Abondance, becauſe plenty and liberality are painted on the ceiling. Here are ſeveral pictures, as the Holy Virgin on a column of jaſper, holding the infant Jeſus in her arms, and ſurrounded below with ſeveral pilgrims, done by Pouſſin: the Virgin Mary and St. Joſeph flying into Egypt, by Guido: the woman cured of a bloody-flux by our Saviour, done by Paul Veroneſe, &c. The hall of Venus has that goddeſs painted on the ceiling; ſhe ſits in a chariot drawn by doves; the gods and heroes, celebrated by the ancients, adorn her triumph. Here are the pictures of Nebuchadnezzar, who orders the forming of the gardens of Babylon: of Auguſtus, exhibiting a race of chariots in the Circus; of Alexander, marrying Roxana; and of Cyrus, reviewing his army. As the hall of war is dedicated

to Bellona, the frize is adorned with trophies, bucklers, and thunderbolts. Over the doors are trophies of gilt metal, under which are repreſented the four ſeaſons, by proper figures and feſtoons, ſignifying that Louis XIV. has been a conqueror in all the ſeaſons of the year. The ceiling of this hall is adorned with five pictures. The largeſt, which is in the middle, repreſents France holding a thunderbolt in one hand, and a buckler in the other. The four others are in the ſides. In the firſt is Bellona in a violent paſſion. The ſecond repreſents Germany doing her beſt but fruitleſs endeavours to defend the imperial crown. In the third, Spain ſeems to threaten France; but her ſoldiers are put to flight. The fourth ſhews Holland thrown back upon her lion. This room is alſo adorned with ſix heads of porphyry, repreſenting as many Roman emperors; they are in buſts, with a drapery of gilt braſs, and ſupported on pedeſtals of oriental alabaſter.

The moſt ſumptuous of all the rooms is the late king's bed-chamber. The carvings are all gilt, on a white ground. The bed is placed in a kind of alcove, where are two figures of Fame, repreſented ſitting: on the cupola, over the bolſter, is France ſitting, and ſeeming to watch for the preſervation of the king. There are ſeveral other pictures in this chamber, and particularly one of Hagar in the deſert, with her ſon, and an angel. The furniture of the bed is of crimſon velvet, embroidered with gold, and otherwiſe beautifully ornamented.

The gardens are not leſs magnificent than the palace. In deſcending from the terrace you meet with two baſons, where there are ſeveral water-ſpouts; and in the middle of each a collection of ſpouts in the form of a wheat-ſheaf, which riſes 29 feet high. The borders of theſe baſons are adorned each with eight groups of brazen figures, repreſenting rivers and nymphs; and four others of the ſame metal, repreſenting cupids, little nymphs, and genii. In two angles of the parterre are two other baſons of marble. The water-ſpouts that come from them form two ſheets of water exceedingly fine; and on the border of each of theſe baſons are two groups of figures of animals, made of braſs. From this parterre you ſee, in a kind of half-moon that is below it, the baſon of Latona, round which are repreſented, in a group of three figures, Latona, Apollo, and Diana. Latona ſeems to complain to Jupiter of the cruelty of the peaſants of Lycia, who are here repreſented metamorphoſed into frogs, which throw a vaſt quantity of water upon the group. There are ſeveral other baſons, with water-ſpouts, and other curious water-works, all adorned alſo with fine groups and ſtatues of ſeveral kinds. At one end of it is a baſon of an octagonal figure, and 420 feet diameter; four of its ſides are circular, three in ſtraight lines, and the other joins with the canal; in two of the angles of this baſon are two ſea-horſes, each of which carries a Triton on his back. The great canal is 32 fathoms broad, and 800 long, including the baſons at each end. In the middle it is croſſed by another canal, about 520 fathoms long. At the other end of the large canal is alſo a baſon 200 fathoms long, and 100 broad. Upon this canal the court ſometimes divert themſelves in yachts and gallies. The orangery, or green-houſe is a maſter-piece in its kind. It is expoſed to the ſouth, and contains firſt a large gallery, which is innermoſt, 408 feet long, and 32 feet broad, with 12 arched windows in the front; on each ſide of this gallery are two others, each 360 feet long. Theſe galleries are adorned without with fine rows of columns; the innermoſt gallery has eight double columns of the Tuſcan order, the two others have four columns each of four feet diameter. At the gate of the porch are two other columns of the ſame order, but much thinner. Before this green-houſe is a beautiful parterre, with a fine baſon in the middle, where the water ſpouts out 40 feet high. It is adorned with four rows of columns, of the Tuſcan order, groups of ſtone figures beautifully carved, vaſes, ſtatues of white marble, &c. In the ſummer time this parterre ſeems to be a foreſt of orange and lemon trees, myrtles, laurels, &c.

Here is a beautiful grove, which contains the labyrinth or maze, the ſeveral walks of which are ſo interwoven with each other, that it is a difficult matter to find the way out of it. At the entrance you meet with two ſtatues, the one of Æſop, and the other of Cupid, holding a clue of thread in his hand. At every turning of the avenues you meet with a beautiful fountain, adorned with a baſon of fine ſhell-work, where they have repreſented, in the moſt natural manner, one of Æſop's fables, the ſubject of which is expreſſed in four lines, engraved in gold letters on a thin braſs-plate with a black ground. In the garden are ſtatues, canals, groves, grottoes, fountains, and every thing that can render it delightful and elegant. The royal cabinet contains many fine medals, coins, paintings, &c. In the park ſtands the beautiful palace of Trianon, the outſide of which conſiſts wholly of variegated marble, of exquiſite workmanſhip. The gardens are large, and abound in ſtatues and water-works.

The late king's royal ſeat, called Marly, ſtands in a park contiguous to Verſailles, it has beautiful gardens belonging to it. The engine here for raiſing water from the Seine, to ſupply the reſervoirs and water-works, is equally grand and ingenious, and, with the other water-works, coſt immenſe ſums; the water being conveyed over ſeveral hills to the great reſervoir here, and from thence to Verſailles. St. Germain en Laye, a town in the foreſt of Laye, is chiefly remarkable for two caſtles, or royal palaces. The foreſt and park, contiguous to the caſtles, are very beautiful.

The town of Fontainbleau is ſituated in the middle of a foreſt of the ſame name, eleven leagues ſouth of Paris, and about one from the Seine. Its ſpacious royal caſtle or palace hath chiefly contributed to its fame. Here are neat gardens, laid out with very good taſte; and beſides the great fountain are many others, which greatly adorn this charming ſeat. All the halls or rooms of this palace are adorned with very fine paintings and carvings. The greateſt room of all is that where plays are acted when the court is here.—There is in that room a fine chimney, built by Henry IV. in 1599; it is twenty-three feet high, and twenty wide, and is adorned with four large Corinthian columns of ſpotted marble, with baſes and chapiters of white marble: in the middle of the chimney is a table of black marble, on which ſtands the Equeſtrian ſtatue of Henry the Great: underneath are two baſſo-relievos; the one repreſenting the battle of Ivry, and the other the ſurrender of the city of Mate. Two marble ſtatues placed on each ſide of this figure repreſent loyalty and peace: over-againſt the chimney is a noble theatre for acting plays.

Fontainbleau was conſiderably increaſed under the reigns of Henry IV. and Louis XIII. The latter built the parochial church, which is adorned with fine paintings: on each ſide of the great altar is a Corinthian column twenty feet high, and over it is a picture of our Saviour curing the man ſick of the palſy, exquiſitely done by Varin. This town is the ſeat of a royal provoſtſhip, conſiſting of a provoſt, a commiſſary of inquiries both in civil and criminal matters, a king's attorney, and a recorder.

The diſtricts of Artois and Picardy (now Somme) produce wine, grain, fruits, paſturage, and turf, Picardy, the name of which is thought to be derived from Picard, ſignifying a paſſionate wrangler, is bounded on the eaſt by Champagne; on the ſouth by the Iſle of France; on the north by the Pais de Calais, Artois, and Hainault; and on the weſt by Normandy and the channel. Its rivers are the Somme, which riſes in the Vermandois, and falls into the channel; the Olſe, in Latin Iſara, which riſes in Picardy,

and at the Conflans falls into the Seine; and the Canche, which riſes in Artois, and falls into the ſea at Staples. The other ſmaller rivers are the Lauthie, the La Lis, the Aa, the Scarpe, and the Deule. This province, in conſequence of its flouriſhing manufactures, its ſituation upon the ſea, and its fiſheries, is the ſeat of a very extenſive trade. Like moſt of the other provinces, it had formerly its petty princes, dependent, however, on the crown of France. For the adminiſtration of juſtice, here were many inferior courts ſubordinate to the parliament of Paris.

Bologne, on the mouth of the Lane, is only eight leagues from the neareſt coaſt of England. It is the capital of a diſtrict called the Boulonnois, which enjoys peculiar privileges of exemption from ſeveral taxes; and has a governor independent of the governor general of Picardy. The harbour cannot be entered but at high-water, and is defended by a fort.—The town is divided into Upper and Lower. The former of which is ſurrounded with walls, and contains about 400 houſes. This part was principally inhabited before the revolution by nobility. The lower town lies nearer to the ſea, and is not ſurrounded with walls, and contains a greater number of inhabitants than the upper town, and, from its connection with the harbour, monopolizes almoſt the whole of the trade. Before the revolution, it was the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Rheims, the ſeat of a governor, a commandant, a king's lieutenancy, &c. The harbour is difficult to enter, and the anchorage not good. There is not depth of water for ſhips of war, and trading veſſels muſt take the advantage of the tide.

The town of Calais, is ſituated on the narroweſt part of the channel oppoſite to Dover, from which it is diſtant about ſeven leagues, is the capital of the Pais Reconquis, or Recovered Country. It is pretty large, and well fortified, but the harbour is of very difficult and dangerous acceſs. Here are a fine arſenal and a citadel which commands the town, the harbour, and all the adjacent country, ſeveral convents, and a fort, whence all the country about the town may be laid under water in twenty-four hours. By the Canal of Calais, the inhabitants have an eaſy communication with Dunkirk, St. Omer, Graveline, Ypres, &c. and in time of peace a packet-boat paſſes regularly twice a week between England and Calais. There are two inconveniencies which they who paſs from Dover to Calais would always wiſh to avoid: The firſt is, that of loſing the tide, and being obliged to take a French boat to get into the harbour; the other is that of landing ſo late as to be ſhut out of the town, and compelled to lodge in one of the houſes that ſtand without it. The town of Calais makes a much handſomer appearance from the water than the town of Dover; its towers begin to become viſible on reaching the middle of the ſtreights. It has two piers of great length, which run parallel, and are both of timber.—One of them affords a very agreeable walk over a boarded floor, which, at ſeveral times of the day, but eſpecially in ſummer evening, is frequented by many genteel people of the place. On this pier a troop of ſervants from the ſeveral houſes of accommodation, ſtand ready to receive the paſſengers at their landing, and conduct them, together with their baggage, according to their ſeveral deſtinations.

Artois, is one of the moſt fertile diſtricts of the whole kingdom. It is 24 leagues long, and 12 broad, being bounded on the eaſt by Hainault, on the north by Flanders, and on the weſt and ſouth by Picardy. A conſiderable trade is carried on in the province in grain, flax, hops, wool, linen, &c. The ſtates conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, and commoners, who hold their ſeat at Arras.

Champagne, or Upper Marne, (now in the department of the Ardennes) has Hainault and Liege on the north, Burgundy on the ſouth, Luxemburg and Lorrain on the eaſt, and the Iſle of France and Picardy on the weſt. It is 160 miles long, in ſome places exceeds 140 in breadth, and is watered by the Seine, Maine, Aube, Aiſne, and Maes. The air is pure, and the ſoil fertile. The few hills abound with mines, the vallies with mineral waters, and the foreſts with game. The province itſelf receives its name from its extenſive plains. The trade conſiſts in corn, wine, and iron; and the whole was under the juriſdiction of the parliament of Paris; except the territory of Sedan, which belonged to the parliament of Metz.

Burgundy (in the department of Yonne, Saonne and Loir,) has Champagne on the north, Lyonnois on the ſouth, Franche Comté, on the eaſt, and Nivernois and Bourbonnois on the weſt. Its length, from north to ſouth, is about 45 leagues, and its breadth, from eaſt to weſt, about 30. It is very fertile in corn, wine, fruit, and tobacco; being watered by the Seine, the Dehume, which falls into the Soane, the Brebince, or Bourbince, the Armancon, the Ouche, and the Tille. There are ſome noted mineral ſprings in it, with ſubterraneous lakes, and plenty of ochre. For a long time it had dukes of its own, ſubordinate to the crown of France; but Louis XI. at laſt, upon the failure of heirs male, ſeized upon it, and annexed it to his crown.

Dauphiné (now the department of Ardeche,) called alſo the Upper Alps, is bounded on the ſouth by Provence, on the north by Breſſe and the Rhône, on the eaſt by the Alps and Savoy, and on the weſt by the Rhône, which ſeparates it from the Lyonnois and Languedoc. It had long princes of its own, who were ſtyled dauphins du Viennois. At laſt Dauphin Humbert, having no children, made it over to Philip VI. of France, on condition that the inhabitants ſhould ſtill retain their privileges, that the province ſhould be for ever incorporated with the crown of France, and that the king's eldeſt ſon ſhould enjoy it, with the arms and title of Dauphin. In the year 1319, this agreement was fully executed. Dauphiné has a governor and parliament. Near two-thirds of the department are very barren and mountainous; but the mountains contain a variety of minerals, and, in ſome places, are covered with larch trees, which are very valuable, as they not only yield a very durable wood, but alſo manna, benzoin, and agaric, the laſt of which is uſed in phyſic and dyeing ſcarlet. The more level and fruitful part of the department is called Lower Dauphiné.—On the mountains are alſo found ſeveral ſorts of wild animals, as bears, marmots, chamois goats, and other ſpecies of goats, called by the French, bouquettons, or chevrels, together with white hares, partridges, eagles, hawks, &c.

Grenoble, ſituated on the conflux of the Iſere and Drac, in a plain at the foot of the mountains. It received its name from the emperor Gratian, ſon of Valentinian I. from whence it is called, in Latin, Gratianopolis. It is, however, much more ancient, was before called Cularo, and belonged to the Allobroges. It has been a biſhop's ſee ever ſince the 4th century. The Delphinial council, eſtabliſhed here in 1340, by Humbert II. dauphin of Viennois, was erected into a parliament in 1453, by king Louis XI. The governor and lieutenant-general of the province reſide here, and had formerly ſeats in the parliament above the firſt preſident. This city is well-peopled, and commanded by a fort called la Baſtille. The Iſere divides the city into two unequal parts. Here are no fine buildings, except the biſhop's palace, which owes its beauty to cardinal le Camus, biſhop of Grenoble; and is adorned by excellent paintings, repreſenting our Saviour's life and paſſion, and by the picture of the biſhop. The town was fortified by the chevalier de Ville. The ſkins and gloves of Grenoble are very much eſteemed; but the woollen ſtuffs are but coarſe.

Provence (in the department of the Lower Alps) derives its name from the Latin Provincia; and is bounded to the ſouth by the Mediterranean; to the north by Dauphiné; to the weſt by the Rhône, which ſeparates

ſeparates it from Languedoc; and to the eaſt by the Alps and the Var, which ſeparate it from the dominions of the king of Sardinia. It is divided into the Upper and Lower, its length being about 42 French leagues, and its breadth about 30. The air and ſoil differ widely in the two diviſions; for in the former the air is temperate, but in the latter extremely hot. The former yields good corn, apples, and pears, and abounds in cattle, but has little wine. On the contrary, the latter has plenty of wine, with orange, lemon, pomegranate, fig, palm, cypreſs, olive, maſtic, medlar, and ſea-cherry trees; but does not produce half the quantity of corn neceſſary for the inhabitants. This diſtrict yields alſo a kind of box, the fruit of which proceeds from the middle of the leaf, and continues all the year round. Of their wines, the Muſcadel is the beſt. In the road and harbour of Toulon is caught a fiſh, encloſed in a ſtone, which muſt be broke before the fiſh can be come at; it is called a date, from its reſemblance to that fruit. The taſte of it is very agreeable: but, in general, the fiſh of the Mediterranean are inferior to thoſe of the ocean. There is alſo a ſmall bird in Provence, called becca-figo, that feeds only upon grapes and figs, and is delicate eating. Iron, black agate, copper, and lead, are found here. There are no conſiderable rivers in this diſtrict: the chief are the Durance, the Sourge, the Largens (ſo called from the tranſparency of its water,) the Lare, the Verdon, and the Var; the laſt of which divides France from Italy. The woods are numerous, and afford a great deal of timber for ſhip-building and other uſes. Almoſt the whole trade from France to Italy, the Levant, and the greater part of Spain, is carried on from this part of the country.

Lyons is the ſecond city of France, in point of ſize and population, but ſuperior to Paris in trade, commerce, and manufactures, containing about 150,000 ſouls. They reckon eleven pariſhes, ſix gates, and four fauxbourgs, and it is divided into thirty-five quarters, named Penonages. It was the ſee of an archbiſhop, who was primate of France, and had formerly great political power over the Lyonnois. The cathedral church was a vaſt Gothic building, yet majeſtic in its appearance. The town-houſe is eſteemed one of the moſt beautiful in Europe; other public buildings, were before the revolution, four abbys, fifty convents, three public ſchools, a college of phyſic, two general hoſpitals, &c. Here were, beſides, an academy of arts and ſciences and belles-lettres, a ſociety of agriculture, a veterinary ſchool, a theatre, public library, ſeventy companies of tradeſmen and artiſts, three forts, an arſenal well ſupplied, and arranged with care, magnificent quays, &c. The trade is immenſe with Spain, Italy, Switzerland, Germany, Holland, England, &c. Early in the French revolution, an union was formed between the towns of Lyons, Marſeilles and Toulon, under the title of Federal Republicaniſm, contrary to the general ſenſe of the nation, which was for a republic one and indiviſible. Lyons contained a great number of diſaffected citizens of every claſs, Royaliſts and Girondiſts, and was declared to be in a ſtate of rebellion. After a ſiege of two months, in which the Lyoneſe were computed to have loſt 2000 men, and great part of the city was reduced to aſhes, the city ſurrendered. The chiefs of the rebels had fled, but ſeveral of them were afterwards taken and executed. By a decree of the convention, the walls and public buildings of Lyons, were ordered to be deſtroyed, and the name of the city itſelf to be changed to that of *Ville Affranchie*; this decree was afterwards repealed.

Rheims, one of the moſt ancient and celebrated cities of all France, ſituated on the Veſle. Before the revolution, it was the ſee of an archbiſhop, who was the firſt duke and peer of France, and always crowned the king. The abby of Benedictines of St. Remy here was one of the nobleſt belonging to that order in all France, and on the altar of its church, under which St. Remigius lies buried, was kept the holy vial, which according to the ſtory, in the year 496, at the baptiſm of Clovis, by biſhop Remigius, was brought from heaven, by a dove, at the prayer of that Saint, the crowd hindering him from being able to come to the font with the uſual oil. The univerſity here was founded in the years 1547 and 1549, authoriſed by the parliament of Paris. This city carries on alſo a conſiderable trade in wine, woollen and ſilk ſtuffs, and gingerbread. In it are ſeveral remarkable remains of Roman antiquities, particularly three gates of the city, which to this day bear the names of ſo many pagan deities, viz. of the Sun, Mars, and Ceres.

Liſle, before the revolution, the capital of French Flanders, is ſituated on a rich and marſhy ſoil, ſurrounded with walls, and ſtrongly fortified by Monſieur Vauban. The river Deule croſſes it. They reckon 170 ſtreets, many of which are handſome, thirty public places, 8000 houſes, and 56,000 inhabitants. Before the revolution, it contained eighteen convents, a penitentiary houſe for women of bad life, ſix hoſpitals, three colleges, &c. It was divided into ſeven pariſhes, and had ſeven gates, ſome of which are admired for their architecture. Here are manufactures of cloth, camblets, ratteens, ſtuffs of ſilk and woollen, cotton, linen, of all qualities and deſigns, lace, ribbons, carpets, hats, ſtockings, paper, ſoap, &c. The citadel of Liſle is conſidered as one of the beſt works of Vauban, and, except Turin, the ſtrongeſt in Europe. In the year 1792, Liſle was ſummoned by the Auſtrians, under the command of the duke of Saxe Teſchen, and on the refuſal of the citizens to ſurrender it, was bombarded, but without ſucceſs. The ſiege began on the 29th of September, and was raiſed on the 8th of October, during which time it is ſuppoſed that upwards of 30,000 red hot balls, and 6000 bombs were thrown into the city, excluſive of the battering train. The damage done to the town was conſiderable, with the loſs of about 500 lives, chiefly women and children.

Dunkirk was only a ſmall village, inhabited by fiſhermen, till St. Eloy, biſhop of Noyon, built a church there in the ſeventh century. In the year 980, it was ſurrounded with walls, by Baldwin III, ſirnamed the Young, count of Flanders, and many inhabitants induced to reſide there by particular privileges and immunities granted them by him and his ſucceſſors. In the year 1662, Louis XIV. made it one of the ſtrongeſt places in Europe, and rendered the harbour commodious. By an article of the treaty of peace ſigned at Utrecht, it was agreed, that all the fortifications ſhould be demoliſhed, and the harbour filled up. This article was renewed in every ſubſequent peace, till the peace of 1783, after the American war. In the year 1793, the Engliſh army, under the duke of York, attempted to beſiege it, but were compelled to retire. It is the moſt important town and harbour on the whole coaſt, and having been declared a free port, had a great deal of commerce. By means of a ſluice forty-two feet wide, the baſon within the town will hold forty ſhips of the line always floating. Dunkirk is divided into Old and New Town. The number of inhabitants is eſtimated at 80,000.

Valenciennes, a ſtrong, large, and well-built city in the French Netherlands, ſituated on the Scheldt, which runs through the town in ſeveral branches, and here becomes navigable. Before the revolution, it belonged to Hainault, and contained ſeveral churches and convents. The town-houſe is an ancient building of free-ſtone, founded in the fourteenth century, the ſquare or grand place is handſome, but the ſtreets are in general narrow, dark, and crooked. The form of its municipial government was conſidered ſo good as to ſerve for the model of ſeveral republics, particularly Venice and Nuremberg, which ſent deputies to collect the laws. Near the town is a coal-mine.

In the year 1793, Valenciennes was inveſted by the allies, under the conduct of the duke of York, and the governor Ferrand, ſummoned to ſurrender, which he refuſed. During the beginning of June, a very briſk fire was kept up from the fortreſs; and on the 5th the French attacked the advanced poſts, but were repulſed. In the courſe of the ſiege a difference of opinion aroſe, between the Engliſh engineer, colonel Moncrief, and M. Ferraris, the chief engineer of the emperor. The Britiſh officer was for planting batteries immediately under the wall of the city, inſtead of approaching it by regular parallels. M. Farraris, however, contended, that the work of the great Vauban was not to be treated with ſo little reſpect, and his opinion was adopted by the council of war. On the morning of the 14th of June, the trenches were opened. The Britiſh commander then ſummoned the garriſon; but receiving an unſatisfactory anſwer, the artillery began to play upon the town with great vigour, and in the courſe of the night above 500 red hot balls were poured in upon it. Towards the beginning of July, the beſiegers were able to bring 200 pieces of heavy artillery to play without intermiſſion on the town, and the greater part of it was reduced to aſhes. The moſt ſingular fact in the hiſtory of this ſiege is, that a conſiderable part of the war was carried on under-ground, mines, and counter-mines innumerable, having been formed both by the beſiegers, and beſieged. The principal of theſe on the ſide of the former, were one under the glacis and one under the horn-work of the fortreſs; theſe mines were completed and charged on the 25th of July, and in the night between nine and ten o'clock were ſprung, with the moſt complete ſucceſs. The Engliſh and Auſtrians immediately embraced the opportunity to throw themſelves into the covered way, of which they made themſelves maſters. The die was now caſt, and, on the 26th, the duke of York again ſummoned the place, which ſurrendered on capitulation the ſucceeding day; the duke of York taking poſſeſſion of it in behalf of the emperor of Germany. The following year, however, in conſequence of the ſucceſſes of the French arms, Valenciennes ſurrendered to the republicans, on capitulation, on the 26th of Auguſt. The garriſon were made priſoners of war, but to be conducted to the firſt poſt of the Imperial and Dutch armies, on condition that they were not to ſerve againſt the republic, till regularly exchanged. Conſiderable ſtores of every kind, with 100 pieces of cannon, 1,000,000 pounds of gunpowder, and 3,000,000 of florins in ſpecie, and 6,000,000 and a half of livres, were found in Valenciennes; 1000 head of horned cattle, and great quantities of oats and other corn were alſo included within the fortreſs. So earneſt indeed had the emperor been to retain this important place, that he is ſaid to have expended 3,000,000l. in repairing and improving the fortifications. What is moſt to be lamented is, that upwards of 1000 unhappy emigrants were ſurrendered on this occaſion, to the vengeance of their enraged countrymen. The principal manufactures are lace, cambrick, and woollen mits, camblets, &c.

Rochelle, or La Rochelle, is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, two leagues from the Iſle of Rhé, and four from Oleron; it is a handſome town, with a fine port, of a circular form, and ſtrong fortifications. Here alſo are a mint, a chamber of commerce, an admiralty, and other courts, an academy of Belles Lettres, a ſugar refinery, and a medical, botanical, and anatomical ſchool. Before the revolution it was the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to Bourdeaux. The ſalt marſhes affect the air of this place greatly. This city, being the chief ſeat of the reformed in France, ſuffered very much during the civil wars, and was often valiantly defended, and long poſſeſſed by that party, till at length Louis XIII. after a long and famous ſiege, made himſelf maſter of it in the year 1628, chiefly by the means of an admirable rampart, or bank of earth which cardinal de Richlieu cauſed to be raiſed againſt it on the ſide of the Ocean. After it was taken, the king cauſed the walls and fortifications to be demoliſhed, except only two towers, which defend the port; but Louis XIV. cauſed new and ſtrong fortifications to be raiſed about it.

Rochfort, a handſome new town, ſituated on the Charente, was built by Louis XIV. It is ſtrongly fortified and furniſhed with all the neceſſary magazines, ſtorehouſes, &c. for ſhipping, together with a fine large dock, a victualling office, and hoſpital for ſick and wounded ſeamen, a foundery, a manufactory of ſail-cloth, and a marine academy. The harbour here is very convenient, and the river, which is well guarded with forts all the way to its mouth, is ſo broad and deep, that the largeſt ſhips may come up to the town without either danger or difficulty.

Breſt is a ſmall but ſtrong town, ſituated on the north ſide of a large commodious bay and harbour, capable of containing 500 men of war in eight, ten, and fifteen fathom at low water. The coaſt on both ſides is well fortified. The entrance is narrow and difficult, with covered rocks, that make it dangerous to thoſe not well acquainted with it. It contains two pariſhes, and a marine ſeminary. The arſenal is an immenſe and ſuperb building, and the dock yards well conſtructed. It is the ſeat of a governor, of an admiralty board, and a municipality.

The city of Toulon, which is large, before the revolution, was the ſee of a biſhop, and, beſides the cathedral and other pariſh churches, contained nine convents, a ſeminary, and a college. The old and new harbour lie contiguous, and, by means of a canal, communicate with one another, both having an outlet into the ſpacious outer harbour, which is naturally almoſt of a circular figure, and very large, being ſurrounded with hills. The entrance on both ſides is defended by a fort, with ſtrong batteries. The new harbour, which is a work of Louis XIV. is well defended by batteries, and round it ſtands the arſenal, where every man of war has its own particular ſtore-houſe, but the guns and cordage are laid up ſeparate. In it are ſpacious working houſes for black-ſmiths, joiners, carpenters, lock-ſmiths, carvers, &c. The rope-houſe is built wholly of freeſtone, being 320 toiſes in length, with three arched walks, in which as many parties of rope-makers may work at the ſame time. The general magazine here, which ſupplies whatever may be wanting in the particular ſtore-houſes for ſingle ſhips, contains an immenſe quantity of all kinds of ſtores, diſpoſed in the greateſt order and conveniency. The cannon foundery here is conſiderable. In Auguſt 1793, Lord Hood, the Britiſh Admiral, obtained poſſeſſion of the harbour, ſhips, and fortreſſes of Toulon, on certain conditions agreed on between the king of Great-Britain and the Royaliſts; but on December 20 following, he evacuated the ſame, after deſtroying ten of the enemy's ſhips of the line in the arſenal, with the maſt-houſe, great ſtore-houſe, hemp-houſe, and other buildings: the admiral alſo took poſſeſſion of the Commerce de Marſeilles, Puiſſant, and Pompée of the line; with the Pearl, Arethuſa, and Topaz frigates, beſides ſeveral large corvettes.

The city of Marſeilles is ſituated on the coaſt of the Mediterranean ſea, and is divided into the Old and New; the former of which is but meanly built, but in the latter, the ſtreets are ſtraight and broad, adorned with handſome edifices. Before the revolution, this city was the reſidence of a bailiwick, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Arles, who has a dioceſe, containing thirty-ſix pariſhes, with an annual revenue of 30,000 livres. In it was alſo a mintage, together with four pariſh churches, including the cathedral and two collegiate ones, with two abbies, an academy of the beaux arts, and an obſervatory. It contains a large arſenal, well ſtored

ſtored with all the implements for fitting out the gallies. The large armoury here, which conſiſts of four walks croſſwiſe, and is accounted the fineſt in the whole kingdom, contains arms for 40,000 men. In the arſenal is a dock for building the gallies. This is roofed over, and communicates with the harbour, which is a parallelogram, having public and private buildings on the two long ſides, and one of the ſhorter. The other ſide is the iſſue into the Mediterranean, which is defended, on each point, by a ſtrong fort. The entrance into the harbour, on account of a rocky cape near it, is difficult, and has not depth of water enough for men of war. Gold and ſilver ſtuffs are made here. It is ſaid to contain 90,000 inhabitants.

Avignon, a large and beautiful city, is ſituated at the conflux of the Rhône and Sorgue, ſeven miles from Arles to the north, and fifteen from Aix to the north-weſt. Here is a papal palace, in which the vice-legate, or governor, reſided; a ſtone bridge over the Rhône; a very handſome college; and an univerſity, founded in the year 1303. No leſs than ſeven popes reſided here ſucceſſively, from the year 1307 to 1377. In the church of the Franciſcans is the tomb of the beautiful and learned Laura, ſo much admired and celebrated by the immortal Petrarch. The grave having been opened in the time of Francis I. a leaden box was found in it, containing a medal, with a copy of verſes written on parchment by Petrarch, in praiſe of his miſtreſs. The Jews enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion in this city.

Languedoc, now called Gard, is bounded to the ſouth by the Mediterranean and Rouſſillon; to the north by Auvergne, Lyonnois, and Guienne; to the eaſt by the Rhône; and to the weſt by Gaſcony. It is ſeventy leagues in length, and, where wideſt, thirty-two in breadth. The principal rivers are the Rhône, Garonné, Aude, Tarne, Allier, and Loire. The royal canal of Languedoc is upwards of 100 miles in length, ſix feet deep every-where, and the breadth about twenty fathoms. In ſome places it is carried under mountains, and in others over vallies, having all along ſluices, dams, reſervoirs, watercourſes, and draw-bridges.

Several remarkable winds are obſerved in this department. That called the cers blows generally from the weſt along the ſouthern coaſts, and is very refreſhing in ſummer: another, called autan, blows generally from the oppoſite quarter, and is hot and unwholeſome: and a third, called biſe, or the black, blows frequently in the valley through which the Rhône runs, very ſtrong and cold. When the wind in this valley blows from the ſouth, unattended with rain, it is no leſs unwholeſome than the autan. From the coaſts of Leucate to the Rhône, in the heat of ſummer, a ſea breeze ſets in, from ten in the forenoon to five in the afternoon, which cools the air, that would be otherwiſe almoſt inſupportable. In a valley, at the foot of the Pyrenees, there is a ſharp weſt or north-weſt wind, called the le vent de pas, which blows only in the night, and generally, in the ſummer, through the openings of the mountains; hence the people of the valley are obliged to winnow their corn in the night. A very remarkable cuſtom prevails in this diſtrict, which is that of treading out their corn by horſes or mules, according to the Eaſtern cuſtom, frequently alluded to in the ſcriptures. The ſtates of the province conſiſted of three orders, the clergy, nobility, and commons. The coaſts of Languedoc are not only dangerous, but deſtitute of ſafe and good harbours. The exports conſiſt chiefly of wine, oil, dried cheſnuts, raiſins, woollen cloth, ſtuffs, ſilk, and corn. The common diviſion of the department is into Upper and Lower.

The capital of the whole department is Thouloufe, ſituated on the Garonne, over which it has a ſtately bridge, is one of the largeſt and moſt ancient cities in France; yet, having little trade, it is neither populous nor rich.

Montpelier, ſituated on an eminence, near the river Lez, is the largeſt city in the department next to Thouloufe, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to Narbonne. It contains a citadel, univerſity, phyſic-garden, and royal academy of ſciences: of the fifteen ordinary fellows of the latter, three apply themſelves to the mathematics, three to anatomy, three to chemiſtry, three to botany, and three to natural philoſophy. The air of this city is deemed remarkably ſalubrious: the houſes are handſome, but the ſtreets narrow; and here is a good trade in ſilks, woollens, wine, ſtrong waters, verdigris, &c. Montpelier is pleaſantly ſituated, and commands many beautiful proſpects. On the Pierou there is a fountain, which, for ſimplicity and beauty, excels moſt others: the water is brought from a mountain five miles diſtant. The environs of this city are planted with vines, olive, fig, and mulberry-trees; the latter to nouriſh the ſilk-worms, which form the moſt conſiderable object of trade. Another thing that brings in a conſiderable revenue to this city is the diſtillation of waters of all ſorts, of *liqueurs*, and ſyrups, that are famous all over Europe. This place is much reſorted to by thoſe of the Engliſh who labour under diſorders of the lungs; whom the reputed clearneſs of its atmoſphere, and fame of its phyſicians, have lured in hopes of a cure. Beſides its univerſity, and ſchools of medicine, Montpelier boaſts a royal academy of ſciences, which is compoſed of ſix honorary members, three phyſicians, three aſtronomers, three mathematicians, three chemiſts, and three botaniſts. Rabelais is ſaid to have been of this univerſity; and his gown and cap are ſtill preſerved, with a kind of religious veneration, and uſed in the ceremony of conferring the degree of doctor. Balaruc, on the Thau, not far from Montpelier, has ſome warm baths, the waters of which will retain their heat at leaſt eight hours.

Foix is bounded on the weſt by Gaſcoigne, on the eaſt and north by Languedoc, and to the ſouth by Rouſſillon and the Pyrenean mountains. It is divided into Upper and Lower. The former is mountainous, but abounds in wood, iron, caverns, and mineral waters; and the latter is fruitful in corn, wine, &c.

Rouſſillon (now the Eaſtern Pyrenees department) is bounded on the north by the Leſſer Pyrenees, on the ſouth by the Greater, on the weſt by Cerdogne, and on the eaſt by the Mediterranean Sea. It is twenty leagues long, and twelve broad, and received its name from a Roman colony, called Ruſcino. The heat here, in ſummer, is intenſe; but the ſoil is fruitful in corn, wine, oil, millet, oranges, &c. Sheep, quails, partridges, and pigeons abound; but cows and oxen are ſcarce. The ground is ploughed by mules; and a great deal of oil, with ſome corn, millet, and wool, are exported from the country. It is watered by the Tet, the Tec, and the Agly, which are, properly ſpeaking, only torrents, produced by the melting of the ſnow on the mountains. It belonged formerly to Spain, but was yielded for ever to France by the treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659. Beſides Rouſſillon, this department includes a part of Cerdagne.

The principal place in Rouſſillon is Perpignan, the capital, ſituated on the river Tet, a league from the Mediterranean, which, though not large, is populous, well built, and ſtrongly fortified. It is alſo the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to Narbonne. Here are an univerſity, ſeveral convents, alms-houſes, hoſpitals, and churches, a noble cannon-foundery, a ſalt-office, a mint, and a high court of juſtice, to which appeals lie from all the inferior courts. The remains of the old town of Rouſſillon lie on the river Tet, not far from Perpignan.

Navarre and Bearn. The boundaries of this department are Labourd on the weſt, Bigorre on the eaſt, Gaſcoigne on the north, and the Pyrenean

mountains on the ſouth. Navarre, included in this department, is but a ſmall portion of the ancient kingdom of Navarre, which, having been ſeized upon by Ferdinand, king of Arragon and Caſtile, this part alone was reſtored, and became annexed to the crown of France. It is only eight leagues in length, and five in Breadth. Navarre is barren and mountainous, and contains only one place worth notice, viz. St. Jean-Pié-de-Port, which is ſituated on the Nice, a league from the borders of Spain, and eight from Bayonne. It is well fortified, and has a caſtle, commanding the paſs of the mountains.

Guyenne and Gaſcony, which is the largeſt department in France, being ſixty-five leagues in length, from eaſt to weſt, and fifty-ſix in breadth, from north to ſouth, is bounded on the ſouth by the Pyrenean mountains; on the north by Limouſin, Angoumois, and Saintonge; on the eaſt by Languedoc and Auvergne; and on the weſt by the Ocean. This department is fruitful in corn, wine, fruits, and hemp, tobacco, brandy, prunes, and many other commodities. They have alſo medicinal ſprings, with copper, coal, and other mines, and quarries of marble of all colours. The chief rivers are the Garonne and Adour, both which diſcharge themſelves into the Ocean.

Guyenne, properly ſo called, is bounded on the north by Saintonge, on the eaſt by Perigord (now Dordogne), and Agenois, on the ſouth by Bzadois and Gaſcony, and on the weſt by the Ocean; and contains the following places of note: Bourdeaux, the capital of the whole department, which ſtands on the banks of the Garonne, about twenty leagues from its mouth, and is one of the moſt ancient in France. It carries on a great trade with moſt parts of Europe, the tide riſing ſo high in the river, that ſhips of great burden can come up to the quay. The city and harbour are defended by three forts. The fineſt parts of the former are the palace-royal near the harbour, and the ſuburb of Chartron. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop. Here are an univerſity, an academy of ſciences and fine arts, a large Gothic cathedral dedicated to St. Andrew, ſeveral other churches and convents, three ſeminaries, ſeveral public fountains, an exchange, a mint, a parliament, an admiralty, ſeveral other courts and offices, ſome remains of antiquity, and a manufactory of lace. About ſix leagues below the city is a watch-tower, or light-houſe, called La Tour de Cordouan. Foreign Proteſtant merchants are indulged here in the private exerciſe of their religion. Richard II. king of England, was born here in 1367.

An ingenious writer comments on this city in the following picturesque manner: "The favourable impreſſion which Bourdeaux cannot fail to make on a ſtranger at his arrival is well confirmed by a reſidence in it. Pleaſure ſeems to have as many votaries here as commerce; luxury and induſtry reigning within the ſame walls, and that in the moſt extended degree. The air of courts is ever effeminate, ſeductive, and voluptuous. Commercial cities are uſually marked by oppoſite manners, and the love of gain. Avarice, powerful in its influence over the human heart, ſwallows up and abſorbs the more ſoft and melting paſſions. Here, however, theſe rules are entirely controverted. Diſſipation and debauchery are more openly patronized, and have made a more univerſal and apparent conqueſt, than in half the capitals of Europe."

The neighbouring diſtrict called Bourdelois, is very fruitful, particularly in vines, cheſnuts, and fig trees.

Montaubon, on the Tarne, is a handſome well built town, eight leagues from Thouloufe, and under the juriſdiction of its parliament. The biſhop is likewiſe ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Thouloufe. Here were an academy of Belles Lettres, ſeveral convents, a manufactory of woollen ſtuffs, ſeveral inferior courts of juſtice, &c. This town ſuſtained conſiderable damage by a dreadful inundation of the river Tarne, which began on the 14th of November 1766, and laid 1200 houſes in ruins. The particulars of this melancholy diſaſter are thus related: The fall of the houſes began in the ſuberb of Sapiac. The noiſe occaſioned by their tumbling was heard in the neighbouring ſuburb, with the cries of ſeveral perſons who called out for help; but as the water ſurrounded entirely the ſuburb of Sapiac, it was very difficult going to the aſſiſtance of the unhappy inhabitants. The river, which was prodigiouſly ſwoln and rapid, was laden with a number of trees of an enormous ſize, that had been torn up by the roots, and carried down along with it; a circumſtance which, joined with the darkneſs of the night, rendered the paſſage of boats very dangerous. Theſe obſtacles, however, did not intimidate a mariner, who, in ſpite of the entreaties and tears of his wife and children, ventured to croſs the river, in order to ſave ſuch as were on the point of periſhing. His courage rouſed ſeveral of his fellow boatmen to imitate him; and by means of their help no one periſhed. The floods continued to increaſe, and redouble their alarms. The inhabitants of the city, ſeparated from the ſuburb by a bridge, ran to the Ville Bourbonne. At ſeven o'clock of the morning of Tueſday, November 18, the floods began to abate, and their decreaſe continued till noon. Hope immediately began to ſpring up in every boſom, but was ſoon ſtifled by the fall of the greateſt part of the ſuburb of Gaſſeras, adjoining to that of Ville Bourbonne; and it was perceived that all the houſes, even thoſe that were yet at a diſtance from the waters, were tottering, and reſted only on a looſe earth, which the waters had already undermined. At noon the ſwell began again, and was continually augmenting. The conſternation was then univerſal. Orders were given to move off all the effects. Perſons of all ranks were deſired to aſſiſt in the removal; and all the carriages were engaged to make the removal the more ſpeedy. The tribunals of juſtice opened their halls, the monks their convents and cloiſters: the churches were alſo offered as repoſitories for the effects of the people. The inhabitants of Ville Bourbonne abandoned ſucceſſively their houſes; and the inhabitants of the city, with an earneſtneſs which did honour to humanity, received their unhappy neighbours, and, with marks of true tenderneſs, endeavoured to aſſuage a grief which had no bounds. The inundation increaſed during the whole day, and continued ſtill augmenting till ſeven in the morning of November 19, when the waters were thirty-two feet above the common water level. Such an extraordinary inundation occaſioned ſundry neighbouring villages to be entirely overflowed, and produced the greateſt ravages. In the plains the buildings were overwhelmed, the grain waſhed away, the cattle drowned, and the greateſt part of the inhabitants found their only ſafety in ſudden flight, or in climbing high trees, where the horrors of famine were joined to the dreadful ſpectacle of beholding their dwellings deſtroyed, and their effects carried away by the flood.

The town of Bayonne is the capital of the diſtrict of Labourd, which produces ſome fruits; it is a pretty large city near the ſea, five leagues on the borders of Spain to the north, and 120 from Paris. Being one of the keys of the kingdom on the Spaniſh ſide, it is ſtrongly fortified. Here are a citadel, with two forts, and other works; an admiralty, a mint, ſeveral convents, and the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to Auch, and has a revenue of 19,000 livres, out of which his taxation to Rome is only 100 florins. Bayonne is moſt agreeably ſituated at the conflux of two rivers, the Adour and the Nive. The firſt is ſcarce leſs conſiderable than the Thames oppoſite Lambeth; and acroſs it is a wooden bridge, which joins the place to a ſuburb, called Le Fauxbourg du St. Eſprit. The Nive, which is ſmall, and riſes in the Pyrenees, interſects the centre of the city, and reſembles one of

†

of the canals in Holland. The entrance into the Adour, which is about four miles below the town, is rendered both difficult and hazardous, from the ſands, which have collected and formed a bar towards the mouth. It is, notwithſtanding, a very agreeable place of reſidence, and furniſhes, in profuſion, all the requiſites of life.

Saintonge and Agoumois, or Angoumois, now Charente department, is twenty-five leagues long, twelve broad, and bounded on the eaſt by Agoumois and Perigord, on the weſt by the Ocean, on the north by Poitou and Aunois, and on the ſouth by the Garonne and Burdelois. The rivers are the Charante and Butonne; and the country abounds in grain, wine ſaffron, fruit, ſalt, and mineral ſprings.

Aunois is bounded on the ſouth and eaſt by Saintonge, on the north by Poitou, and on the weſt by the Ocean. It is only ten leagues long, and about as many broad, being the ſmalleſt province in France; but is fertile in grain, paſturage, vines, &c. It has a good harbour, great quantities of ſalt, and lies within the juriſdiction of the parliament of Paris.

Poitou (now Vendee) is bounded on the north by Touraine and Anjou; on the ſouth by Aunois, Saintonge, and Agoumois; on the eaſt by La Marche and part of Berry; and on the weſt by the Ocean. It is forty-eight leagues long, and twenty-two broad. It belonged formerly to the kings of England; but being loſt by Henry VI. was re-united to the crown of France. The rivers are the Sevre-Niortoiſe, Vienne, and Clain. The produce and commodities are corn, cattle, and woollen ſtuffs; and the whole was under the juriſdiction of the parliament of Paris.

The capital of the department is Poitiers, ſituated on the river Clain; it is large, and contains many churches, ſeveral abbies, convents, and courts of juſtice, ſome remains of Roman antiquities, an univerſity, a mint, and manufactories of woollen caps, ſtockings, gloves, and combs. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux. In the year 1356, the French were defeated by the Engliſh, under Edward the Black Prince, near this town, and John, their king, taken priſoner.

Britanny, (Finiſterre) is a peninſula, which borders on Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Poitou, towards the eaſt only, all the other parts being bounded by the ſea. It is ſixty leagues long, forty-five broad, and had its name from the Britons, who fled hither from the Saxons, in the tenth century. It is watered by the Loire and Vilaine, and abounds in lead, pit-coal, wood, ſalt, butter, cattle, &c. has many good harbours on the coaſt, and contains abundance of ſeamen, fiſhermen, &c. The air is but indifferent. The province had a parliament of its own; and the people ſpeak a jargon ſomewhat reſembling the Welſh.

Rennes, the honorary capital of Bretagne, becauſe the ſtates aſſembled there, is ſituated at the conflux of the Iſle and the Vilaine, about fourteen leagues from the ſea; it is pretty large and populous, the ſeat of ſeveral courts, and alſo of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to Tours. Here were a number of convents and churches, beſides the cathedral. Some of the principal ſtreets are handſome, as the conflagration in the year 1720, which almoſt reduced the whole place to aſhes, obliged the inhabitants to rebuild them. In one of the ſquares is a fine ſtatue, in bronze, of Louis XV. It was erected by the province in 1744, ſoon after his recovery from that dangerous illneſs in Flanders, when he obtained the title of "Bien Aimé." Beneath the prince appears, on one ſide, Hegeya, the goddeſs of health, with her ſerpent and patera; and on the other is the genius of Bretagne kneeling on one knee, and in her countenance exultation and reverence finely marked. At the foot of the pedeſtal is an honorary inſcription in Latin.

The city of St. Malo is ſmall, but populous; it is ſituated on a little iſland (which is joined to the continent by a mole or cauſeway, at the head of which is a ſtrong fort) on the northern coaſt of Brittany. Here are a court of admiralty, ſeveral fine monaſteries and churches, and a large harbour, but of difficult acceſs. For the defence of the town and harbour, there are ſeveral forts, and other works, with a good garriſon. The biſhop is temporal lord of the city, and ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tours. The trade of the town is very conſiderable; in particular it ſends a number of ſhips to the cod fiſhery; and, in time of war, fits out many privateers. The caſtle was built by the celebrated Anne of Bretagne, who annexed the duchy to the crown of France, by her marriage with Charles VIII. Being aſked by the engineer, who conſtructed it, what plan ſhe would chooſe as its model, ſhe replied, "My coach." It is ſo in effect. A large ſquare area within conſtitutes the body; two ſmall towers, in the fore part, anſwer to the fore wheels of a carriage; as two others of ſuperior ſize do to the hinder ones; a projection in front forms the pole; and an arched nich behind correſponds to the place where the laquais ſtand.

Normandy department, now called Calvados and Eure, extends from eaſt to weſt ſixty leagues, and from north to ſouth about thirty leagues. It is bounded on the ſouth by Maine, Perche, and Beauce; on the north by the Britiſh channel; on the weſt by Brittany; and on the eaſt by the Iſle of France and Picardy. It is fruitful in corn, flax, hemp, fruit, and paſturage; and abounds in wood, coals, cattle, madder, woad, mineral-waters, iron, copper, &c. The rivers are the Seine, Eure, Andelle, Rille, Dive, Lezon, Carentone, Aure, Antes, Arne, Drome, &c.

Rouen, the capital of the department, ſtands on the north bank of the Seine, in a valley, almoſt ſurrounded with hills, twenty-two leagues from Paris to the north-weſt, is the ſeat of a parliament and admiralty, and of ſeveral other courts, offices, and churches; and alſo of an archbiſhop. In one of the towers of the cathedral is a bell of an enormous ſize. The bridge of boats over the Seine is a great curioſity, being paved like a ſtreet, and riſing and falling with the tide. Beſides other tombs of great perſons in the cathedral, is that of John duke of Bedford, who was regent of France under our king Henry VI. The trade of this city is very conſiderable, the tide of flood riſing ſo high, that veſſels of above 200 tons can come up to it, though it is twelve leagues from the mouth of the river. In the place Aux Veaux, is a ſtatue of the Maid of Orleans, kneeling before Charles VII. William I. ſurnamed the Conqueror, died here. In one of the ſuburbs are ſeveral mineral ſprings.

Caen is ſituated at the conflux of the Orne and Odon. Here are a caſtle, an univerſity, an academy of ſciences, and many churches and convents, with ſeveral courts and offices. It is a place of good trade. William the Conqueror was interred in the abbey of St. Stephen in this city, which he had founded.

Cherburg, fourteen leagues north of Coutance, has a ſmall commodious harbour, and, by the flowing of the waves, is every tide almoſt ſurrounded by the ſea. This town was taken by the Engliſh in 1758, and the fortifications demoliſhed, together with the famous baſon.

The little town of Mont St. Michael, with an abbey and caſtle, is built on a rock, in the midſt of a ſandy ſhore, which, at high water, is overflowed.—The abbey has been much reſorted to by pilgrims. As this place is diſtinguiſhed by ſome remarkable circumſtances, we ſhall give the following ample and entertaining deſcription of it, in the words of an ingenious traveller:

"This

" This extraordinary rock (for it is no more) riſes in the middle of the bay of Avranches. Nature has completely fortified one ſide by its craggy and almoſt perpendicular deſcent, which renders it impracticable for courage or addreſs, however conſummate, to ſcale or mount it. The other parts are ſurrounded by walls, fenced with ſemilunar towers in the Gothic manner; but ſufficiently ſtrong, ſuperadded to the advantages of its ſituation, to deſpiſe all attacks. At the foot of the mountain begins a ſtreet or town, which winds round its baſe to a conſiderable height. Above are chambers where priſoners of ſtate are kept, and other buildings intended for reſidence; and on the ſummit is erected the abbey itſelf, occupying a prodigious ſpace of ground, and of a ſtrength and ſolidity equal to its enormous ſize; ſince it has ſtood all ſtorms, in this elevated and expoſed ſituation, during many centuries. I ſpent the whole afternoon in the different parts of this edifice: and as the Swiſs, who conducted me through them, found he could not gratify my curioſity too minutely, he left no apartment or chamber unſeen.

" The Sale de Chevalerie, or Knights-hall, where the knights of St. Michael uſed to meet in ſolemn convocation on important occaſions. They were the defenders and guardians of the mountain and abbey, as thoſe of the temple, and of St. John of Jeruſalem, were to the holy ſepulchre. At one end is a painting of the archangel, the patron of their order: and in this hall Louis XI. firſt inſtituted, and inveſted with the inſignia of knighthood, the chevaliers of the croſs of St. Michael.

" We paſſed on through ſeveral leſſer rooms into a long paſſage, on one ſide of which the Swiſs opened a door, and through a narrow entrance, perfectly dark, he led me, by a ſecond door, into an apartment, or dungeon (for it rather merited the latter than the former appellation) in the middle of which ſtood a cage. It was compoſed of prodigious wooden bars; and the wicket, which admitted into it, was ten or twelve inches thick. I went into the inſide. The ſpace it compriſed was about twelve or fourteen feet ſquare; and it might be nearly twenty in height. This was the abode of many eminent victims in former ages, whoſe names and miſeries are now obliterated and forgotten.

" There was, ſaid my conductor, towards the latter end of the laſt century, a certain news-writer in Holland, who had preſumed to print ſome very ſevere and ſarcaſtic reflections on Madame de Maintenon, and Louis XIV. Some months after he was induced, by a perſon ſent expreſsly for that purpoſe, to make a tour into French Flanders. The inſtant he had quitted the Dutch territories, he was put under arreſt, and immediately, by his majeſty's expreſs command, conducted to this place. They ſhut him up in this cage. Here he lived upwards of twenty-three years; and here he, at length, expired. During the long nights of winter, continued the man, no candle or fire was allowed him. He was not permitted to have any book. He ſaw no human face except the jailor, who came once every day to preſent him, through a hole in the wicket, his little portion of bread and wine. No inſtrument was given him with which he could deſtroy himſelf; but he found means at length to draw out a nail from the wood, with which he cut or engraved, on the bars of his cage, certain fleurs-de-lis, and armorial bearings, which formed his only employment and recreation.—Theſe I ſaw, and they are, indeed, very curiouſly performed with ſo rude a tool.

" It is now fifteen years, ſaid the Swiſs, ſince a gentleman terminated his days in that cage. It was before I came to reſide here. But there is one inſtance within my own memory. Monſieur de F——, a perſon of rank, was conducted here by command of the king. He remained three years ſhut up in it. I fed him myſelf every day; but he was allowed books and candle to alleviate his miſery; and at length the abbot, touched with his deplorable calamities, requeſted and obtained the royal pardon. He was ſet free accordingly.

" The ſubterranean chambers, added he, in this mountain are ſo numerous, that we know them not ourſelves. There are certain dungeons, called Oubliettes, into which they were accuſtomed anciently to let down malefactors guilty of very heinous crimes.—They provided them with a loaf of bread and a bottle of wine; and then they were totally forgotten, and left to periſh by hunger in the dark vaults of the rock. This puniſhment has not, however, been inflicted by any king in the laſt or preſent century.

" We continued our progreſs through the abbey.—He led me into a chamber, in one corner of which was a kind of window. Between this and the wall of the building was a very deep ſpace or hollow, of near an hundred feet perpendicular; and at the bottom was another window opening to the ſea: it is called the Hole of Montgomeri. The hiſtory of it is this: In the year 1559, Henry II. king of France, was unfortunately killed at a tournament by the count de Montgomeri. It was not intended on that nobleman's part; and he was forced, contrary to his inclination, to puſh the lance againſt his ſovereign, by his expreſs command. He was a Hugonot; and having eſcaped the maſſacre of Paris and Coligny, made head againſt the royal forces in Normandy, ſupported by our Elizabeth with arms and money. Being driven from his fortreſſes in thoſe parts, he retired to a rock, called the Tombelaine. This is another ſimilar to the Mont St. Michael, only three quarters of a league diſtant from it, and of nearly equal dimenſions. At that time there was a caſtle on it, afterwards demoliſhed, and of which ſcarce any veſtiges now remain. From this faſtneſs, only acceſſible at low tides, he continually made excurſions and annoyed the enemy, who never dared to attack him. He coined money, laid all the adjacent country under contribution, and rendered himſelf univerſally dreaded. Deſirous, however, to ſurpriſe the Mont St. Michael, he found means to engage one of the monks reſident in the abbey, who promiſed to give him the ſignal for his enterprize, by diſplaying a handkerchief. The treacherous monk having made the ſignal, betrayed him, and armed all his aſſociates, who waited Montgomeri's arrival. The chieftain came, attended by fifty choſen ſoldiers, deſperate, and capable of any attempt. They croſſed the ſand, and having placed their ſcaling ladders, mounted one by one: as they came to the top, they were diſpatched each in turn, without noiſe. Montgomeri, who followed laſt, at length diſcovered the perfidy, and eſcaped with only two of his men, with whom he regained the Tombelaine. They preſerve, with great care, the ladders and grappling-irons uſed on this occaſion. The count himſelf was at laſt beſieged and taken priſoner, by the Mareſchal de Matignon, in 1574, at Domfront, in Normandy; and Catharine of Medicis, who deteſted him for his having been, though innocently, the cauſe of her huſband's death, ordered him to be immediately executed.

" The church itſelf detained me a long time, and is matter of high curioſity. It reſts on nine pillars of moſt enormous dimenſions, which ſtand upon the ſolid rock. I did not meaſure them; but as far as the gloomineſs of the place would admit, I apprehend that each of them muſt be five-and-twenty feet in circumference. Beſides theſe, there are two others, of much inferior ſize, which ſupport the centre of the church, over which is the tower. If the prodigious incumbent weight be conſidered, and the nature of its ſituation, nothing leſs maſſy could ſuſtain the edifice. They ſeem as if deſigned to outlive the ravages of time, and the convulſions of nature. The building was begun in 966, when Richard, the ſecond duke of Normandy, began to erect the abbey. It

was

was completed about the year 1070, under William the Conqueror; though many other additions were made by ſucceeding abbots.

"The treaſury is crowded with relics innumerable, among which ſome few have a real and intrinſic value. There is a fine head of Charles VI. of France, cut in cryſtal, which drew my attention. They have got, I know not by what means, an arm of Edward the Confeſſor's; and they ſhewed me another of St. Richard, king of England. Who this ſaint and prince was, I confeſs, is beyond my comprehenſion. I am ſure they could not term Richard I. ſo, unleſs his cruelty againſt Saladine wiped out all his ſins, and canonized him. Richard II. has no better pretenſions to ſanctity. I do not mention him who fell at Boſworth: ſo that who this royal ſaint was, I muſt leave you to decide. As to the monks, they know nothing about it; but they are poſitive he was a king of England. An enormous golden cockle-ſhell, weighing many pounds, given to Richard, the ſecond duke of Normandy, when he founded the abbey, is worthy remark.

"The refractory cloiſters, and cells of the monks, have been magnificent and ſpacious; but a vaſt ſum of money is wanted to put the whole in repair, and reinſtate what the lapſe of ages has defaced and deformed."

Havre-de-Grace, which conſtitutes part of Upper Normandy, was under the juriſdiction of the parliament of that province. Havre-de-Grace is a ſtrong ſea-port town at the mouth of the Seine, 12 leagues weſt of Rouen, well built, ſtrongly fortified, has an excellent harbour, a good trade, is the ſeat of the department, and contains ſeveral courts of juſtice.—Harfleur, on the Lizard, eight leagues from Havre-de-Grace, has ſome concern in the cod and herring fiſheries, by means of a ſmall harbour; is defended by a caſtle, and contains manufactories of tanned leather, hats, laces, ſerges, linens, woollen cloths, &c.

Maine (Mayenne), Perche, and the county of Laval, are compriſed in one.—Maine is bounded by Perche on the eaſt, by Britanny and Anjou towards the weſt, by Touraine and Vendemois towards the ſouth, and by Normandy to the north. It is 30 leagues long, 20 broad, fruitful in corn, wine, wood, paſture, &c. and contains ſome iron-works, ſlate, free-ſtone, quarries of marble, mineral-waters, &c. Its rivers are the Loire, Sarte, Haine, and Mayenne; and this department, as well as Perche, was ſubject to the parliament of Paris.

Mans, the capital of the whole department, ſituated on the river Sarte, is a very ancient city, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to Tours. There are many churches here, ſeveral convents, inferior courts of judicature, with a college, and ſalt-office.

That part of this department called Perche, is bounded on the eaſt by Chartrain and Timerais, on the weſt and north by Normandy, and on the ſouth by Mayenne, being fifteen leagues in length, and twelve in breadth. The country abounds in cattle, ſheep, corn, flax, hay, mineral-waters, iron-mines, and cyder.

In this department is La Trappe, a celebrated abbey of Ciſtertian monks, who are remarkable for the auſterity of their manners. It ſtands between the cities of Seez, Montagne, Verneuil, and Laigle, in a large vale ſurrounded with hills and foreſts, which ſeem deſigned to hide it from the reſt of the world. It was founded in the year 1140, by a count of Perche. But the monks being, in proceſs of time, fallen into a great remiſſneſs of manners and diſcipline, a very ſtrict reformation was introduced in this abbey in the year 1662, by Armand John Bouthilier de Rance, the commandatory abbot.

Orleannois (now Loire department) conſiſts of ſeveral diſtricts, and is bounded on the north by Normandy, on the eaſt by Champagne and Burgundy, on the ſouth by Nivernois and Berry, and on the weſt by Touraine and Maine; including Orleannois Proper, Chartrain, or Beauce Proper, Vendemois, Blaiſois, Solagne, Demois, Perche Gouet, and Gatinois Orleannois. The whole department was ſubject to the parliament of Paris.

Orleannois Proper abounds in cattle, game, and fiſh; yields grain, wine, fruit, and wood; and contains the following places:—Orleans, the capital, not only of Orleannois Proper, but of the whole department, ſtands on the northern bank of the Loire, 20 leagues ſouth of Paris. Over the river is a fine ſtone bridge, leading into a ſuburb on the ſouth ſide of the river. It is one of the largeſt cities in the kingdom, and contains ſeveral inferior courts of juſtice, with an univerſity, a public library, a ſtately Gothic cathedral, and a great number of other churches, ſome of which are collegiate; a public walk, planted with ſeveral rows of trees; ſome ſugar-houſes, a manufactory of ſtockings and ſheep-ſkins, and a ſeminary. It carries on a great trade in brandy, wine, ſpices, and ſeveral manufactures, which, with many other commodities, are conveyed from hence to Paris, and other places, by means of the Loire, and the canal which takes its name from the city. The number of inhabitants are about 35,000. To the north of the city is a foreſt, the largeſt in the whole kingdom, formerly belonging to the duke of Orleans.

Ever ſince the year 1344 this city has been a dukedom and peerage, and uſually an appendage of ſome prince of the blood. Louis XIV. gave it to his brother Philip, who begun and finiſhed the canal, in whoſe family it ſtill continues. The duties paid by veſſels going up and down the canal amounts, in ſome years, to 150,000 livres. The biſhop of this city is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Paris. On the 8th of May 1429, Orleans, then cloſely beſieged by the Engliſh, was relieved by Joan of Arc, commonly called the Maid of Orleans; and the anniverſary of that deliverance is ſtill kept here. To perpetuate the memory of it, a monument of braſs was erected on the bridge. In the Hotel de Ville is a portrait of the ſame extraordinary woman. It was done in the year 1581, and is the oldeſt extant. The painter ſeems to have drawn a flattering reſemblance, and to have decorated her with imaginary charms. Her face, though long, is of exceeding beauty, heightened by an expreſſion of intelligence and grandeur rarely united. Her hair falls looſely down her back. She wears a ſort of bonnet enriched with pearls, and ſhaded with white plumes, tied under her chin with a fillet. About her neck is a little band; and lower down on her boſom a necklace, compoſed of ſmall links. Her habit fits cloſe to the body, and is cut or ſlaſhed at the arms or elbows. Round her waiſt is an embroidered girdle; and in her right hand ſhe wields the ſword with which ſhe expelled the enemies of her country.

Nivernois (now the department of Nyevre) within the juriſdiction of the parliament of Paris, was before the Revolution a dukedom and peerage. It is bounded on the ſouth by Bourbonnois, on the north by Gatinois and Aurenois, on the weſt by Berry, and on the eaſt by Burgundy, being about 20 leagues in extent both ways, as it is nearly of a circular form, and yielding corn, wine, fruit, wood, pit-coal, iron-ore, and mineral ſprings. The moſt barren and mountainous part of it is the diſtrict of Morvant. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, of which three are navigable, viz. the Loire, the Allier, and the Yonne.—Nevers is the capital of the diſtrict, and takes its name from the rivulet Nievre, in Latin Niveris, which, with the Allier, falls near the town into the Loire. Here are ſeveral churches, convents, and courts of juſtice, with manufactories of glaſs, white-iron, and earthen-ware; and a ſtately ſtone bridge over the Loire. The biſhop of this town is lord of three caſtlewards, and ſuffragan to Sens. About two

leagues from hence, at the village of Pouges, in the road to Paris, is a noted mineral ſpring.

Bourbonnois (now Allier department) is bounded on the ſouth by Auvergne (now Cantal) on the north by Berry and Nivernois, on the eaſt by Burgundy and Forez, and on the weſt by Upper Marche (Creuſe,) It is 30 leagues long, 20 broad, fruitful in corn, wine, and paſturage; and is watered by the Loire, Allier, and Cher. From its ancient dukes the late royal family of France are deſcended. This department had belonged to the prince of Condé, whoſe authority was very great; but cauſes of importance were referred to the parliament of Paris.

The capital, Moulins, on the Allier, received its name from the numerous mills in its vicinity. It contains ſeveral churches, convents, courts of judicature, manufactories of hardware, iron, ſteel, &c. and is, upon the whole, a handſome populous town. In the church belonging to the nuns of the Viſitation is the magnificent tomb of duke Henry II. of Montmorenci, who fell a ſacrifice to the reſentment of cardinal Richlieu; and near the town there is an admirable mineral ſpring.—Bourbon le Archambaud, five leagues weſt of Moulins, is remarkable for its mineral waters, hot and cold, and for ſtones reſembling diamonds and cut glaſs, which are found in the rocks near the town. Mont Lucan, near the Cher, with a ſtone bridge over that river, has ſeveral convents, churches, and courts of judicature, with a ſalt office and hoſpital; and a neighbouring market-town, named Neris, has ſome excellent hot baths.

Lionnois department (compriſing Rhône and Loire) contains the provinces Lionnois, Forez, and Beaujolois; and is bounded to the north by Maconnois and Burgundy; to the ſouth by Vivarais and Velais; to the eaſt the Soane and the Rhône part it from Breſſe and Dauphiné; and to the weſt it terminates on Auvergne (Cantal.) It produces corn, wine, and fruits, particularly excellent cheſnuts, with pit-coal and mineral ſprings; and about four leagues from Lyons is a mine of copper and vitriol. Appeals lay from hence to the parliament of Paris. The principal rivers of the department are the Rhône, the Soane, and the Loire. Under the governor in chief, as in all the other provinces, were ſeveral ſub-governors.—Lionnois, properly ſo called, is twelve leagues long, and ſeven broad. Anciently it was ſubject either to counts, or to the archbiſhop and chapter of Lyons.

Auvergne (now Pays de Dome department) which is within the juriſdiction of the parliament of Paris, is bounded on the ſouth by the Cevennes, on the north by Bourbonnois, on the eaſt by Forez, and on the weſt by Limoſin, Quercy, and La Marche. It is 40 leagues long, and 30 broad, and divided into Upper and Lower. The rivers are the Allier, the Dargogne, and the Alagnon; the manufactures are ſilks, ſtuffs, cloths, laces, iron-works, paper; and the produce corn, wine, cattle, cheeſe, coals, &c.

In Upper Auvergne are:—St. Fluer, the capital, which is ſituated at the foot of Mount Cantal, one of the higheſt in Auvergne. It took its name from that of a biſhop, who having come hither from Languedoc to preach the goſpel towards the end of the fourth century, died, and was buried here. It is now the ſee of a biſhop, who is lord of the city, though ſubject in ſpirituals, to the archbiſhop of Bourges. Here is a conſiderable traffic in rye and mules, as well as in knives, carpets, and cloths. Aurillac contains ſeveral convents, inferior courts of judicature, manufactories of tapeſtry and lace, a caſtle, &c.

In Lower Auvergne are:—Clermont, the capital of the whole province, ſituated near the mountain called Pu de Domme, 14 leagues from St. Fleur to the north, betwixt the rivers Artier and Bedat. It was built by the emperor Auguſtus, and thence was anciently called Auguſtonemetum, or Auguſtonemoſum. Here are ſeveral churches, beſides the cathedral; many courts of juſtice, abbies, convents, &c. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourges. In the neighbourhood of the town are ſeveral petrifying ſprings; one of which, in the ſuburb of St. Allire, has formed a ſolid rock, and a kind of bridge, under which the rivulet of Firidaine paſſes.

Of this natural curioſity, and of the town itſelf, we have the following accurate and authentic account from an intelligent traveller: "The ſituation of Clermont is agreeable, on a little eminence, to which the acceſs is gradual and eaſy. The place itſelf ſeems to have been built in an age the moſt barbarous. The ſtreets are ſo narrow and winding, that no carriage can enter them, and the buildings correſpond to the other parts; but, to compenſate for the inconvenience, the ſuburbs are charming, and the houſes modern and elegant. I viſited, this morning, the petrifying ſpring which Charles IX. is ſaid to have ſurveyed with ſo much wonder and pleaſure. It is only a quarter of a mile from the town. In the courſe of ages it has formed a ridge of ſtone, or incruſtation, not leſs than 16 feet in height, above 100 feet long, and, in ſome parts, near 10 in thickneſs. As it impeded, and, at length, totally ſtopped the current of a little rivulet which interſected its courſe, the inhabitants were obliged to dig a paſſage through it. The ſtream is now directed into another channel, and has begun to form a new bridge acroſs the rivulet into which it falls."

Limoſin (now the department of Upper Vienne) is bounded on the eaſt by Auvergne, on the weſt by Angoumois and Perigord, on the ſouth by Quercy, and on the north by Poitou and La Marche. It is 25 leagues long, and near as many broad; the whole being divided into Upper and Lower. The upper parts are cold and mountainous, the lower warm and fruitful; the produce being rye, barley, buck-wheat, cheſnuts, oxen, cows, horſes, &c. alſo lead, tin, copper, iron, and ſteel. The rivers are the Vienne, the Vizere, and the Dordogne.—The government was ſuperintended by a chief governor, a general-lieutenant, and two ſub-governors; but the whole was under the juriſdiction of the parliament of Bourdeaux.

In Upper Limoſin are:—Limoges, on the Vienne, 165 leagues ſouth of Paris, the capital of the whole department, which contains three abbies and convents, is the ſeat of ſeveral courts of judicature, and the ſee of a biſhop. Here are manufactories of paper, leather, and woollen cloths; four aqueducts, conſtructed by the Romans, and other remains of antiquity.—St. Leonard, on the Vienne, contains manufactories of paper and cloth; and St. Iriez, on the Iſle, hath likewiſe ſome conſiderable iron-mines in the neighbourhood.—Chalus, a town and caſtle ſituated at the ſpring of the Tardouere, one of the rivers that fall into the Charente, is ſix leagues diſtant from Limoges to the north-weſt. This little city has the title of a county or earldom, and belonged formerly to the viſcounts of Limoges.

It happened that a gentleman of Limoſin found upon his eſtate a treaſure, which had been buried there many ages before. It conſiſted of the ſtatues of an emperor and his conſort, ſitting round a table with their children, the whole being of ſolid gold. Richard I. king of England, who was then maſter of Limoſin, pretended that the treaſure belonged to him as ſovereign lord of the country where it was found. The gentlemen was willing to give him part of it; but ſeeing that the king claimed the whole, he implored the protection of the viſcount of Limoſin, who gave him leave to take ſanctuary in his caſtle of Chalus. Richard going to beſiege the place, was wounded with an arrow ſhot by a croſs-bow-man, and died of the wound April 6, 1199. There is a famous horſe-fair kept here every year on St. George's day.

In Lower Limoſin are:—Tulle, the capital, at the conflux of the Coureze and Solan. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is temporal lord of the town, and ſuffra-

gan

gan to the archbiſhop of Bourges. Here are ſeveral inferior courts of judicature, and convents.

La Marche (now the department of Creuſe) is bounded on the ſouth by Limoſin, on the north by Berry, on the weſt by Poitou, and on the eaſt by Anvergne; being about 22 leagues from eaſt to weſt, and eight or ten from north to ſouth, and lying within the juriſdiction of the parliament of Paris. It is watered by the Vienne, the Cher, the Creuſe, and the Gartempe; and is not only fruitful in corn, but produces wine. It was a dukedom and peerage, and, beſides a chief-governor, had two ſub-governors.—Gueret, the capital of the province, is ſituated in the Upper Marche, on the river Gartempe. Here are ſeveral inferior courts of juſtice, with a college, two convents, a priory, and an hoſpital. Anthony Varillas, the hiſtorian, was born, and founded a convent here.—Aubuſſon, on the river Creuſe, has a manufactory of tapeſtry, and belongs to the duke de la Feuillade, whoſe ſurname is d'Aubuſſon.

Berry (now Cher department) is bounded on the ſouth by Bourbonnois and Marche, on the north by Orleannois, and on the weſt by Nivernois; its greateſt length being about 35 leagues, and its breadth about 28. Its name, and that of its capital, Bourges, are derived from the ancient Bituriges, ſurnamed Cubi, to diſtinguiſh them from the other Bituriges, called Vibiſci, who were thoſe of Bourdeaux. The air of this department is temperate, and the ſoil fruitful, producing wheat, rye, wine, good fruit, a great deal of flax and hemp, and fine paſture, both for ſheep and black cattle. Near Vierzon is a mine of ochre, and near Bourges are quarries of ſtone. Here are ſeveral rivers, the chief of which are the Loire, the Creuſe, the Cher, the Large and Leſſer Saudre, the Indre, the Orron, the Aurette, the Moulon, and the Evre. There is alſo a lake, called the lake of Villiers, which is pretty large.

Touraine (now Indre and Loire department) is bounded to the ſouth by Berry and Poitou, to the north by the river Maine, to the weſt by Anjou, and to the eaſt by Orleannois; its greateſt breadth being 22 leagues, and its length 24. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, the chief of which are the Loire, the Cher, the Creuſe, and the Vienne. The climate is very mild, and the ſoil, in general, fertile. In the country of Noyers are mines of iron and copper. This diſtrict had formerly counts of its own; but, in 1202, was united with the crown; and in 1356, was raiſed to a dukedom and peerage. It lay within the juriſdiction of the parliament of Paris, and, beſides a chief governor, had a general-lieutenant, and a ſub-governor.—Tours, the capital of the department, which alſo takes its name from it, is ſituated on the Loire. Here is a fine bridge over that river, ſeveral inferior courts of juſtice, many churches and convents, a mint, a ſalt-office, an academy, and is the ſee of an archbiſhop. The cathedral is a fine building, containing a library, in which are ſome ancient manuſcripts. This city is free, the people paying no taille, or tillage. In 737 Charles Martel defeated the Saracens near this place with a very great ſlaughter. Here is a ſilk and cloth manufactory.—At Amboiſe, a town ſituated at the conflux of the Amaſſe and Loire, Charles VIII. was born and died. The name of Hugonot had its riſe in this town, wherein alſo the civil war broke out in 1561. Beſides a ſalt-office, an hoſpital, and two churches, here are ſeveral convents and inferior courts of juſtice.—At Loches, ſituated on the river Indre, ſeven leagues from Amboiſe, is a ſtrong caſtle, in one of the ſubterranean paſſages of which Louis Sforza, duke of Milan, was kept priſoner ten years. In one of the two cages alſo, which are kept in this caſtle, cardinal Balvre, biſhop of Algiers, was confined by Louis XII.—Chinon, on the Vienne, has four churches, and a number of convents. The celebrated Rabelais was a native of this town; and, A. D. 1189, Henry II. king of England, died in the caſtle here. Ten leagues ſouth of Tours is La Hayne, the birth-place of the great philoſopher Des Cartes.

Anjou (now the department of Mayne and Loir) which is 26 leagues long, and 24 broad, is bounded by Poitou to the ſouth, by Maine to the north, by Touraine on the eaſt, and by Bretagne to the weſt. It is fruitful, pleaſant, well watered, and was within the juriſdiction of the parliament of Paris. Angers, the capital, ſituated on the Mayenne, is a large city, being the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tours. It contains, beſides the cathedral, many churches, of which ſome are collegiate, a ſtrong caſtle, ſeveral abbies and convents, a ſalt-office, and a mint. Here alſo are ſeveral inferior courts of juſtice, a ſeminary, an academy, an univerſity, and ſome remains of Roman antiquities. The firſt walls of the city were built by John, king of England, and duke of Anjou. The inhabitants are employed chiefly in bleaching wax and linen, refining ſugar, and making camblets, ſerges, and fine woollen ſtuffs, ſtriped with ſilk and gold. At Chateau-Gontier on the river Maienne, are a caſtle, ſeveral churches and convents, with manufactories of linen cloth and ſerges, and mineral ſprings. Saumur is a town on the ſouth bank of the river Loire, over which it has a ſtone bridge, ſix leagues from Angers to the ſouth. Here are a caſtle, ſeveral convents, churches, and inferior courts of juſtice, together with an univerſity, and ſome trade in ſalt-petre, ſugar, ſteel, iron-works, medals, rings, chaplets, and ſtrings of beads. It was one of the cationary towns given to the Proteſtants; and during the time of its being in their hands, the celebrated John Cameron, a Scotch divine, was for ſome time profeſſor of divinity in the univerſity. The diſtrict is called Saumurois; and the governor of that, as well as the town and caſtle, is independent of the governor of the department. While the town was in the hands of the Proteſtants it was opulent, but was declined ſince its being re-poſſeſſed by the Roman-Catholics.—At Doé, three leagues weſt of Saumur, is a fountain in the form of a horſe-ſhoe, which is one of the greateſt curioſities in France.

The natural curioſities of France conſiſt chiefly in ſprings and ſubterraneous caverns.

Near Salins in Burgundy are ſeveral very remakable caves, the extent of which taken all together is about 400 feet in length, and ſixty in breadth. The deſcent into them is by forty ſtone ſteps, and twenty of wood. At the bottom, by help of lighted torches, which each perſon carries with him, may be ſeen ſix ſprings of ſalt-water, and two of freſh, guſhing out and running with great rapidity. Theſe ſtreams are kept ſeparate by proper trenches, which conduct them into other vaults ſupported by large pillars, wherein are placed reſervoirs for the reception of the ſalt-water, afterwards conveyed to the top by proper engines, and being put into pans, great quantities of ſalt are extracted from it. This water is obſerved to be moſt ſtrongly impregnated in rainy weather; and is ſuppoſed to acquire its ſaline quality from ſome vaſt rocks of ſalt through which it paſſes in its ſubterranean courſe. At Baulme, twelve miles from Beſançon, is a cavern, above three hundred feet under ground, wherein are a number of icicles, and in the bottom a little river, which flows in the winter, but is frozen in ſummer. In the foreſts of St. Aubin du Cormies in Bretagne, is a cave, through which runs a great torrent of water; and from another, ſituated at Nions, proceeds a violent wind. The cave of our Lady of Balm, in Dauphiné, is between four and five fathoms broad, and from five to eight feet deep; and, in the valley of Liberſtat, in Alſace, is a cavern, out of which flows an oily liquor, which being diſtilled, and properly prepared, yields a moſt excellent ſalubrious oil. In the neighbourhood of Niſmes, there is a ſubterraneous paſſage, which the vulgar inform us reaches

to

to Arles, under the Rhône, being a diſtance of 20 miles.

The artificial curioſities of France conſiſt chiefly in their canals, and public buildings. The former of theſe have already been deſcribed, and the others have been noticed in the account of its cities and principal towns.

France poſſeſſes ſeveral valuable remains of antiquity, many of which have been traced back even to the time of the Celts: and after Gaul was reduced by the Romans, they adorned it with numerous edifices, both civil and ſacred, ſome of which are ſtill very perfect. Triumphal arches are found in ſeveral parts of the kingdom, but the moſt entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones, by Caius Marius and Luctacius Catulus. Niſmes abounds in monuments of antiquity. The famous Pont du Garde was raiſed in the Auguſtian age by the Roman colony of Niſmes, to convey a ſtream of water between two mountains for the uſe of that city, and is as freſh to this day as Weſtminſter-Bridge: it conſiſts of three bridges, or tiers of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other ſtupendous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients, that all ſtreams will riſe as high as their ſources.

The commerce and manufactures of France may be conſidered under two heads, viz. inland and foreign. This country, by her ſituation, the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happineſs of her ſoil, muſt be always poſſeſſed of a great inland traffic, which in many particulars exceeds that of any other country in Europe, and is in a great meaſure carried on by their navigable canals.

The introduction of the ſilk manufacture to France took place ſo late as in the reign of Henry IV. and in that of his grandſon Louis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjuſt revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulſion of the Proteſtants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreaſed to 4000; and their ſilk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French Proteſtants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and ſtuffs, more eſpecially at Abbeville, are ſaid to be now little inferior to thoſe of Holland and England, aſſiſted by the clandeſtine importation of Engliſh and Iriſh wool, and workmen from this country. This deſtructive traffic is principally carried on between Boulogne in France and Romney-Marſh in Kent.

The foreign trade of France may be ſaid to extend itſelf all over the globe. That country is thought to be no great loſer by its ceſſion of Canada, and part of Louiſiana at the late peace. But the moſt valuable part of Hiſpaniola in the Weſt-Indies, which ſhe poſſeſſes by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a moſt improveable acquiſition, and the moſt valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the Weſt-Indies, ſhe likewiſe poſſeſſes the important ſugar-iſlands of St. Lucia, St. Bartholomew, Deſeada, and Marigalante. A ſmall tract upon the Miſſiſſippi is the whole of what ſhe poſſeſſes in North-America. Thoſe belonging to her in the Eaſt-Indies are not very conſiderable; though had the genius of the French been more turned for commerce than war, they might have ingroſſed more territory and revenues than are now in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh; but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their Eaſt-India company never made a conſiderable figure. Pondicherry, &c. in the Eaſt-Indies, and St. Domingo in the Weſt, were taken by the Engliſh in the year 1793.

The manufactures of France are ſilks, as luſtrings, alamodes, ſarcenets, broad, flowered, and brocaded ſilks, velvets, and gold and ſilver ſtuffs. Woollen manufactures in imitation of thoſe of England, which are chiefly carried on in Normandy, Poictou, Languedoc, Provence, and Guienne. Fine linens, lawns, and lace are made in the inland parts; as is canvaſs in Normandy, ſail-cloth at Vitry, and other places, and dowlaſſes at Morlaix. In Picardy and Paris are made exceeding beautiful and rich tapeſtries, and Auvergne is famous for fine paper. Manufactures of ſoap are eſtabliſhed in Provence; this is ſo conſiderable an article in their commerce, that when they have a ſcarcity of oil, they fetch a prodigious quantity from the Levant to ſupply the ſoap-makers. They have long obtained the ſecret from Spain of making that ſpecies of ſoap called Caſtile, of which they have eſtabliſhed large manufactures at Marſeilles and Toulon, and thereby deprived the Spaniards of that valuable branch of trade.

The conſtitution of France was formerly a limited monarchy; but the oppreſſions of the great landholders grew, by degrees, ſo irkſome to the ſubjects, that they preferred the monarchical to the ariſtocatical government. But Richlieu, in the time of Louis XIII. gave ariſtocracy a mortal blow; and all the civil diſputes in France, ſince that period, have been among great men for power and places, and between the kings and their parliaments.

The life and property of the ſubject were afterwards entirely at the mercy of the ſovereign; he impriſoned whom he pleaſed, without being accountable to the laws, and, whenever he thought it neceſſary for his purpoſe, appointed what judges he deemed proper for the trial of offenders. The great officers of ſtate took their oaths to him, which they formerly did to the parliament; and he appointed, removed, extended, or retrenched their authority as he pleaſed. The regiſtering of the edicts, which formerly gave them the ſanction or force of laws, at length became a mere matter of form. The parliaments indeed ſome years ago made a noble oppoſition to the king's command with regard to this particular, but this generally procured a temporary baniſhment; for, arbitrary as he was, he never ventured to inflict any further puniſhment than a ſlight baniſhment, or impriſonment, for their moſt provoking acts of diſobedience; a tacit acknowledgment of the infirmity of the French conſtitution, and a proof that the people conſidered the parliaments as their natual guardians and protectors.

Before the revolution, diſtributive juſtice was adminiſtered in France by parliaments, chambers of accounts, courts of aid, preſidial courts, generalities, elections, and other inferior courts. The parliaments were fifteen in number, namely, Paris, Thouloufe, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rheims, Pau, Metz, Beſançon, Doway, Perpignan, Calmer, and Arras; but ſeveral of thoſe parliaments are now united into one, and that of Paris branched out into ſix. It was however the chief, and took the lead in all national buſineſs. It was divided into ten chambers. The grand chamber was chiefly appropriated to the trial of peers. The Tournelle took cognizance of all matters of property above 1000 livres in value. The Tournelle Criminelle received and determined appeals from inferior courts in criminal caſes. Beſides theſe three capital chambers, there were five of requeſts for receiving the depoſitions of witneſſes, and determining cauſes, nearly in the ſame manner as our court of exchequer. In ſome provinces, the adminiſtration of juſtice was regulated by the civil law, and in others by their particular cuſtoms, ſo far as they were conſiſtent with the king's edicts and declarations.

The chamber of accounts was the next court of judicature in France: here all matters of public finance were examined, treaties of peace and and grants regiſtered, and the vaſſalages due from the royal fiefs were received: the chambers were in number twelve, and held in the cities of Paris, Rouen, Dijon, Nantes,

Montpelier

Montpelier, Grenoble, Aix, Pau, Blois, Liſle, Aire, and Dole. The third court of judicature was the court of aid, where all matters that related to the royal revenue, and the raiſing of money, were determined. The fourth were the preſidial courts, which were compoſed of judges for determining matters in appeal from magiſtrates of little towns and villages. The next court were the generalities, who proportioned the taxes to be raiſed in their diſtricts, according to the ſum that is appointed to be levied: they likewiſe took cognizance of matters relating to the crown-lands, and certain branches of the revenue. Theſe courts are in number 23, each conſiſting of 23 perſons, and they were diſtributed over the kingdom for the more convenient diſpatch of buſineſs. The courts of elections, which were ſubject to thoſe generalities, ſettled the ſmaller proportions of taxes that were to be paid by pariſhes and inferior diſtricts, and how much each individual in the ſame was to pay: this was done by a collector, who returned the aſſeſſments to the court of generalities.

Beſides the above courts, the French had intendents of juſtice, police, and finances, whoſe powers, when properly executed, were of great ſervice to the peace of the community. They had likewiſe provoſts, ſeneſchals, baliffs, and a variety of other officers.

From this general review of France in its monarchical ſtate, the reader will be apt to conclude, that ſhe was the moſt powerful nation, and the people the moſt opulent and happy in Europe. The reverſe, however, appears to be the conſtant ſtate of that nation; ſince we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy. In a country ſo extenſive and fruitful, her government finds immenſe reſources in men and money; but, as if the French councils were directed by an evil genius, theſe reſources, great as they are, have proved, by a wrong application, the ruin of the people. The moſt obvious cauſes of this national poverty originated from the ambition and vanity of their kings and leading men, which led them into ſchemes of univerſal dominion, the aggrandizement of their name, and the enſlaving of Chriſtendom. Their wars, which they ſometimes carried on againſt one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the ſubject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free-gifts, &c. When theſe failed, other methods, more arbitrary and unjuſtifiable were adopted, ſuch as raiſing and reducing the value of money, as they thought proper, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppreſſions, which gave the finiſhing ſtroke to public credit, and ſhook the foundations of trade, commerce, and induſtry; the fruits of which no man could claim as his property. When we alſo conſider the motives of theſe wars, a deſire to enſlave and render miſerable the neighbouring nations, that man muſt be devoid of humanity whoſe breaſt is not fired with indignation at the bare mention of the blood that has been ſpilt, the miſeries and deſolations that have been brought upon mankind, and the numerous places that have been ſacrificed to their ambition and avarice. From the late attack upon Corſica, it appears that their own misfortunes have not taught them wiſdom or humanity; for while they thus graſped after foreign conqueſt, their own country exhibited a picture of miſery and beggary, unknown even to ſome of the moſt uncivilized of the adjoining kingdoms.—To this we may add, that many of the taxes and revenues in France were let out, for a time, or farmed to the beſt bidder; and theſe harpies, the farmers-general, and their under-farmers and receivers, made no ſcruple of fleecing the people moſt unmercifully; and the reſidue, if any remained, went to ſatisfy the cravings of a numerous clergy, who in their turn were obliged, as well as the laity, to advance the government immenſe ſums under various names.

The revenues of ſo deſpotic a government as that of France was during the monarchy, when the eſtates as well as lives of the people were ſubject to the will of the prince, cannot well be aſcertained. The whole ſpecie of France, in gold and ſilver, was computed in 1716 to be about 17,000,000l. ſterling; and though the crown was then doubly a bankrupt, being in debt about 100 millions ſterling, or 2000 millions of livres, yet by ſeizing almoſt all the current money in the kingdom, and by arbitrarily raiſing or lowering the value of coins, in four years time the duke regent of France publiſhed a general ſtate of the public debts, by which it appeared that the king ſcarcely owed 340 millions of livres. The reader is left to judge whether ſo great a reduction muſt not be the effect of the moſt abſolute deſpotiſm, and the act itſelf deſerves no better name than that of a national robbery. The French court has not ſince that time bluſhed to own, as towards the concluſion of a former war, and alſo in 1769, that their king was a bankrupt; and, in order to recruit the royal finances, his miniſters have purſued meaſures pretty ſimilar to thoſe practiſed by the regent above-mentioned.

The ordinary revenues of France, by ſome late calculations, amounted, during the monarchy, to above 12,000,000l. ſterling. They aroſe from the demeſnes; the taillé, or land-tax; the taillon, another ſort of land-tax, which the nobility were obliged to pay as well as the commons; by aids, which we call cuſtoms on merchandize; by gabels, which is a tax upon ſalt; by a capitation, or poll-tax; by the tenths of eſtates and employments; by the ſale of all offices of juſtice; by a tenth, or free-gift of the clergy; excluſive of their additional yearly ſum of 12,000,000 of livres; and by confiſcations and forfeitures.

The comptroller-general was the head of the officers of the finances; and for the management of the revenues, and the determination of all diſputes relative to it, there were ſeveral tribunals and offices in different parts of the kingdom, of which one at Paris was the chief.

The amount of the aſſeſſed taxes for the year 1792, are by ſome authors eſtimated only at 300,000,000 livres, equal to 12,500,000l. ſterling; and with the incidentel taxes in all 15,500,000l. ſterling; near nine millions leſs than before the revolution, when the clergy and nobleſſe were exempted.

All exciſes and exciſemen, tythes, and game-laws, are now aboliſhed, and the funds maintained at the public charge.

In the year 1788, before the revolution, the revenue was twenty millions and a half ſterling; and its ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue five millions and a half. In 1784, the public debt was 141,666,000l.

There is no nation in Europe where the art of war, particularly that part of it relative to gunnery and fortification, is better underſtood than in France. Beſides other advantages for learning it, there is a royal academy eſtabliſhed purpoſely for training up five hundred young gentlemen at a time, in the ſeveral branches of this great art. The number of forces in France, even in time of peace, are ſeldom leſs than 200,000, the pay of theſe being little more than twopence halfpenny per day; in time of war, they are uſually double that number; but thoſe raiſed from the militia are very indifferent troops.—In the reign of Louis XIV. the navy of France amounted to 100 ſhips of the line of battle, but it has not been ſo conſiderable lately. In the war of 1756 with England, their marine was almoſt totally deſtroyed; but ſince the peace they have been very aſſiduous in reſtoring it, and in the year 1769, it was ſaid to conſiſt of ſixty-four ſhips of the line, including thoſe of fifty guns, and twenty-five frigates, beſides ſmaller veſſels. The ſeamen in the maritime provinces of this kingdom were regiſtered, and divided into claſſes, each claſs ſerves three or four years alternately, and thoſe who

were not in actual ſervice, might enter on board merchant ſhips. Beſides the ſeamen, an hundred independent companies were maintained to ſerve on board the ſhips of war as marines. After the commencement of hoſtilities in the war of 1774, between Great Britain and France, the French navy was more formidable than at any preceding period.

Towards the cloſe of the year 1791, the report of the miniſter ſtates the ſhips in good condition to be eighty-ſix of the line, and, including thoſe building, as follows:

Large firſt-rates	8
100 guns	5
80 guns	10
74 guns	67
64 guns	1
Total	91
Frigates	78

beſides fire-ſhips, corvettes, galleys, and cutters. But from this account we muſt probably make a deduction, in conſequence of the naval ſucceſſes of England, and the ſhips deſtroyed at Toulon and in different ſea engagements.

There are twenty-eight of the line and five frigates in commiſſion, and 80,000 ſeamen, with officers regiſtered to man the fleet; but the French navy is at preſent without proper ſubordination.

Under the revolution, the peace eſtabliſhment of the army for the year 1792, was:

Infantry	111,000
Cavalry	30,000
Artillery	11,000
Total	152,000

They call theſe troops of the line, and, along with the volunteer national guards, they formed an army on the frontiers of 224,000 men.

Thoſe termed the municipal army, or national guards, are a kind of embodied militia for the interior defence of the kingdom, and amount to between three and four millions.

Beſides the above, we may add the gens-d'armerie, an auxiliary body of troops for the protection of police and laws.

The national aſſembly, deſirous of eſtabliſhing the French conſtitution on the principles it has announced, has aboliſhed, irrevocably, thoſe inſtitutions which have been deemed injurious to liberty and equality of rights, ſuch as royal titles, arms, nobility, orders, &c.

In France there is no longer any nobility, nor peerage, nor hereditary diſtinctions nor difference of orders, nor feudal government, nor patrimonial juriſdiction, nor any of the titles, denominations, and prerogatives, which are derived from them; nor any of the orders of chivalry, corporations, or decorations, for which proofs of nobility were required, nor any kind of ſuperiority but that of public functioners in the exerciſe of their functions. Royalty alſo, which was one branch of the firſt conſtitution, is now aboliſhed, and the unfortunate monarch put to death by his ſubjects.

The French gold coins were the old Louis-d'or, worth 16s. 9d. and the new Louis, or guinea, worth 20s. The ſilver coins are the old ecu, or crown, worth 4s. 6d. and the new ecu, worth 5s. all theſe have the half and quarter in proportion.—Accounts are kept in France by livres, ſols, and deniers; one livre is 20 ſols, and one ſol 12 deniers. Their livres, by ſome late arrets, have been reduced to half the value.

The king's titles were, Louis XVI. by the grace of God king of France and Navarre. His ſubjects, in writing or ſpeaking, called him Sire; foreigners called him the Moſt Chriſtian King; and the pope gave him the appellation of The Eldeſt Son of the Church.—His arms were three fleurs-de-lis, Or, in a field argent, ſupported by two angels in the habits of Levites, having each of them a banner in his hand, with the ſame arms. The motto is *Lilia non laborant neque nent*, "Lilies neither toil nor ſpin." The ſon of the king of France, and heir to the crown, was ſtyled Dauphin; the ſecond ſon duke of Orleans, and the third duke of Anjou. The eldeſt ſon of the Dauphin was the duke of Burgundy, the ſecond duke of Aquitain, the third duke of Berry, and the fourth duke of Provence.

The nobility conſiſted of four claſſes, viz. princes of the blood, high nobility, ordinary nobility, and modern nobility. He who was neareſt to the crown, after the king's children, was the firſt prince of the blood. Among the higher nobility, the dukes and counts, peers of France, had the precedence; they aſſiſted at the unction of a king, attended when he held a *lit de juſtice*, or *bed of juſtice*, and enjoyed a ſeat in the parliament of Paris. In this claſs were likewiſe included the knights of the Holy Ghoſt, the governors of provinces, and lieutenant generals, with ſome other dukes, counts, and marquiſes. The ordinary nobility were divided into *nobleſſe de race*, and *nobleſſe de naiſſance*. The modern or new nobility were thoſe to whom the king had granted letters of nobility, or on whom he had conferred ſome places by which they became ennobled.

In this kingdom there were three orders of knighthood: firſt, that of St. Michael; ſecondly, that of the Holy Ghoſt; and thirdly, that of St. Louis.

The order of St. Michael was inſtituted in 1469, and was at firſt compoſed of thirty-ſix knights only; but their number was afterwards increaſed to a hundred. They wore a gold chain of double ſcolloped ſhells, with a medal expreſſing a rock, on which is repreſented St. Michael encountering the dragon. It is fallen into diſrepute, being conferred on artiſts, phyſicians, magiſtrates, &c.

The order of the Holy Ghoſt, which was founded in 1578, by Henry III. conſiſted of an hundred perſons, excluſive of the ſovereign. Their enſigns were a gold croſs, with a white dove enamelled on the centre of one ſide, and on the other the image of St. Michael, which is appendent to a blue ribbon, paſſing from the right ſide to the left; and on the left breaſt of their coats is a ſilver croſs, with a dove embroidered argent. No perſon can be admitted a knight of this order, who has not firſt belonged to St. Michael; and it is never conferred but on princes of the blood and perſons of the higheſt rank. All were to be Papiſts, and, except the fourteen commanders, which conſiſted of cardinals, prelates, and the officers of the order, were all to prove the nobility of their deſcent for above 100 years. The Dauphin was received into both orders on the day of his birth.

The order of St. Louis was inſtituted by Louis XIV. in 1693, and was deſigned as an encouragement and reward to military merit. Accordingly there was ſcarce a French officer, even ſubalterns, who did not wear it. Its enſign is a gold croſs enamelled, argent, and adorned with golden lilies, having on one ſide a coat of mail with the inſcription LUD. M. INSTITUT. 1693, and on the other a drawn ſword, with a wreath of laurel at its point, and the motto *Bell. virtutis præm.* Thoſe called the Grand Croix, wore it on a broad flame-coloured ribbon over the ſhoulder, having alſo a gold embroidered croſs on their coat. The commanders wore it in the ſame manner; but without the embroidered croſs; and the other knights wore the croſs appendent to a narrow flame-coloured ribbon faſtened to one of their button-holes. There are two chevaliers of the Grand Croix, four of the ſecond claſs, and an unlimited number of ordinary knights.

HISTORY OF FRANCE.

This kingdom was called, by the Romans, Tranſalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to diſtinguiſh it from Ciſalpine Gaul, or Gaul on the Italian ſide of the Alps. It was probably peopled firſt from Italy; but, like other European nations, it ſoon became a deſirable object to the Romans, and, after a very brave and reſolute reſiſtance, was annexed to their empire by Julius Cæſar, about 48 years before the birth of Chriſt.

Gaul continued in the poſſeſſion of the Romans till the ſubverſion of the empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who ſubdued but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of ſeveral people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of juriſprudence better than their neighbours. The Franks, who were ſtill mixed with the Salii, adopted one of the laws of that people, by which all females were excluded from the ſovereignty, and is ſtill known by the name of the Salic law among the French.

After the Franks and Burgundians had eſtabliſhed their power, and reduced the original natives to a ſtate of ſlavery, they parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and ſucceeding kings found it neceſſary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective governments, until they at length aſſumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave riſe to thoſe numerous principalities which were formerly in France, and to the ſeveral parliaments there; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes impoſed, without the concurrence of the grand council, conſiſting of the clergy and nobility. Thus the firſt government in France ſeems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings was extremely circumſcribed and limited by the feudal barons.—The ſame circumſtances took place in other European nations, immediately after the diſſolution of the Roman empire.

A French hiſtorian of credit informs us, that Clovis was the firſt Chriſtian monarch of the French: that he began his reign in the year 481, and, after being baptized, introduced Chriſtianity in the year 496; from which period the French hiſtory exhibits a ſeries of remarkable events; and we find them generally engaged in domeſtic broils, or in foreign wars. The firſt race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarity of the Goths and Vandals upon their poſterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, who was the glory of that dark age in which he lived, made himſelf maſter of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, was crowned king of the Romans by the pope, and thus became emperor.

Charlemagne, at his death, divided his empire by will among his ſons, which proved fatal to his family and poſterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce, warlike people of Norway and Denmark, invaded and ravaged the kingdom of France, and, A. D. 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo their leader, who became a Chriſtian, and married the king's daughter. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France, which afterwards became of pernicious conſequence to that nation; as from William the Norman, who conquered England, the animoſities between that kingdom and France had their origin, and the conteſts proved for the moſt part injurious to the latter, notwithſtanding their numbers, and the aſſiſtance they received from the Scots.

It hath been juſtly obſerved, that the rage of cruſading, which broke out about this time, was rather beneficial than otherwiſe to the French monarchs, as they took off many of their turbulent ſubjects, who were almoſt independent of their authority, and left them heirs to ſeveral of their nobles, who died in the Holy Land. But we ſhall paſs over theſe dark ages, and proceed to the period, when the French began to extend their influence over Europe, and this brings us to the reign of Francis I. who was cotemporary with our Henry VIII. of England. This prince was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but loſt the Imperial crown. Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and king of Spain, being choſen in his ſtead. Francis made ſeveral capital expeditions into Spain, but in one, which he undertook againſt Italy, he was defeated at the battle of Pavia, taken priſoner, and obliged to agree to the moſt humiliating terms, in order to obtain his releaſe. His breach of the terms by which he procured his enlargement occaſioned continual wars againſt the emperor till the death of Francis, which happened in 1547.

At this period, France was rather in a flouriſhing condition, and Henry II. ſon and ſucceſſor of Francis I. was in general a very fortunate prince; for though he loſt the battle of St. Quintin, againſt the Engliſh and Spaniards, yet he took Calais from the former, who never after had any footing in France. He married his ſon the Dauphin to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his own; but in this ſcheme he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland. In 1559, he was killed at a tilting match by the count of Montgomery. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Francis II. who lived but two years; after whom his brother Charles IX. aſcended the throne, who being then but eleven years of age, and the Guiſes, with the concurrence of Catherine de Medicis, the king's mother, taking upon them the adminiſtration, Anthony de Bourbon king of Navarre, the prince of Condé, and the Proteſtants, entered into a confederacy againſt the court, and a civil war enſued, in which the king of Navarre was killed on one ſide, and the duke of Guiſe on the other; but a peace was concluded ſoon after between the contending parties. The war was however renewed ſeveral times till the year 1571, when a treacherous peace was made with the Proteſtants, in order to deſtroy them by a maſſacre, which was put in execution at Paris, in the night of the 24th of Auguſt, 1572, and immediately after in ſeveral other great towns; and a confederacy called the Holy League, was entered into by the Papiſts of France and Spain for the extirpation of the Proteſtants. This project proved but too ſucceſsful, though it was not completely executed till on St. Bartholomew's day, 1672. The heads of the Proteſtants were invited to the celebration of the nuptials between the young king of Navarre, a Proteſtant, and the French king's ſiſter. The king himſelf, Charles IX. aſſiſted in the maſſacre, in which the admiral Coligni fell. The ſignal for the inhuman ſlaughter of ſo many thouſands was to be made by ſtriking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell the work of death was begun, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St. Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect, amidſt the general carnage, that ſome few moments ſhould be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had not long retired to reſt, when he was arouſed by the noiſe of the aſſaſſins who had ſurrounded his houſe. A German, named Beſme, entered his chamber; and the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever diſtinguiſhed him. Incapable of reſiſtance from the wounds he had received by two balls in a late attempt to aſſaſſinate him, he had ſcarce with an undiſmayed countenance uttered the words, "Young man,

man, reſpect theſe grey hairs, and ſtain them not with blood," when Beſme plunged his ſword into his boſom, and with the help of his barbarous aſſociates, threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guiſe contemplated it in ſilence; but Henry count d'Angouleſme, natural brother to Charles, ſpurned it with his foot, exclaiming, "Courage, my friends; we have begun well, let us finiſh in the ſame manner." It is ſaid that about 30,000 Proteſtants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a freſh peace was concluded in 1573, with the Proteſtants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.—About the ſame time the duke of Anjou, who was offered the ſovereignty of the Netherlands, made his court to Elizabeth queen of England, to whom ſhe ſeemed to give encouragement, either on political views, or to procure the Proteſtants ſome relaxation from perſecution; but the queen, at length, diſcarded the duke, which occaſioned ſome ſevere reflections upon her inconſtancy.

Henry III, king of Poland, ſucceeded to the kingdom of France, 1574, when pope Sixtus V. depoſed the king of Navarre, and abſolved his ſubjects from their allegiance on account of religion; and the king of France, Henry III. taking the part of the Proteſtants againſt the leaguers, was mortally wounded by one Clement, a friar, with a knife, which the king drew out of his body, and ſtruck the aſſaſſin in the eye with the ſame knife, and he was ſoon knocked on the head by the king's ſervants.

Henry, king of Navarre, of the houſe of Bourbon, ſucceeding, the Proteſtants obtained an edict, called the edict of Nantz, 1589, in their favour, from Henry IV. whereby they were tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion, in all parts of the kingdom except at Paris; but ſtill the king (Henry IV.) obſerving a great majority of his kingdom zealous Catholics, found himſelf under a neceſſity of declaring himſelf of that religion; nor could this preſerve him from the malice of the monks; for Ravillac a friar ſtabbed him to the heart in his coach, in the ſtreets of Paris, the 14th of May 1610, on preſumption that he was ſtill a Proteſtant. The king leaving his ſon Louis XIII. a minor of nine years of age, the queen his mother, Mary of Medicis, was made regent; during whoſe adminiſtration, great encroachments were made on the liberties of the people, notwithſtanding the oppoſition that was made to thoſe arbitrary meaſures by the parliament of Paris; but the Proteſtants, being moſt oppreſſed, ſtood upon their defence, and the kingdom was involved in another civil war. The king having taken ſome extraordinary ways to raiſe money, the parliament of Paris refuſed to concur in them, until his majeſty went thither in perſon, with the princes of the blood, and terrified them into a compliance. Cardinal Richlieu, being advanced to the poſt of prime-miniſter, ſoon after put a final end to the liberties of France. He began by ſuppreſſing the Hugonots, and reducing all the towns they were poſſeſſed of, the laſt of which was Rochelle, which held out two years againſt the whole power of France, but was obliged to ſurrender the 8th of October 1628. This put an end to the civil wars, on account of religion, in France. Hiſtorians ſay, that during theſe wars above 1,000,000 of men loſt their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were ſpent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, 400 villages, 2000 churches, 2000 monaſteries, and 10,000 houſes were burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed. He proceeded to inſult the parliament of Paris, prohibiting them, in the king's name, to intermeddle in affairs of ſtate; he then erected courts of juſtice to try by a ſpecial commiſſion the peers that oppoſed his meaſures. Whereupon the dukes of Orleans and Montmorency had recourſe to arms; but being defeated, Montmorency was taken priſoner, and executed as a traitor. This occaſioned ſeveral conſpiracies of the princes of the blood, and the nobility, againſt the cardinal, which he however defeated, but very narrowly eſcaped being aſſaſſinated.

Louis XIV. ſon of Louis XIII. and of Anne of Auſtria, Infanta of Spain, was born the 5th of September 1638. He ſucceeded his father the 14th of May 1643, being then in the fifth year of his age: cardinal Richlieu died juſt before the late king, and the queen-mother about the ſame time. The king being a minor, the queen his mother had the adminiſtration of the government, and made cardinal Mazarine, an Italian, her prime-miniſter. He had been introduced into the adminiſtration by Richlieu, in the laſt reign, and followed his plan of continuing to enlarge the French frontiers in Flanders, Catalonia, Germany, and Italy; and imagining that Charles I. king of England was inclined to aſſiſt Spain, he fomented the rebellion againſt that prince, as Richlieu had done, when he might eaſily have ſuppreſſed it. By the treaty of Weſtphalia, the biſhoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, were confirmed to France, with ten imperial cities in Alſace, among which were Landau, and the caſtle of Philipſburg in the palatinate.

The parliament of Paris beginning to reſume their authority, and inſiſting on the baniſhment of the cardinal, as an enemy to the king and kingdom, the the queen-mother and the cardinal engaged the prince of Condé and the army in their intereſt, and perfectly ſubdued the parliament; and becauſe the prince of Condé ſeemed inclined to defend the rights and privileges of the peers, he was laid aſide as ſoon as he had ſerved the miniſter's turn, and the command of the army given to other generals; whereupon the prince of Condé quitted the kingdom, and commanded the Spaniſh army in Flanders.

Cardinal Mazarine entered into an alliance with Cromwell, as the likelieſt means to ſupport himſelf; and his forces having joined the cardinal's in Flanders, they beſieged and took Dunkirk, which was put into the hands of the Engliſh, and the cardinal found himſelf obliged to ſubmit to ſuch terms as Cromwell inſiſted on; but the union between the protector and this French miniſter proved the ruin of the conſtitution in both kingdoms, and of the balance of power in Europe. In the year 1661 died cardinal Mazarine, when Louis XIV took the adminiſtration of the government into his own hands.

Louis XIV. on the death of Mazarine, put the domeſtic affairs of his adminiſtration into the hands of Colbert, who formed new ſyſtems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which were carried into execution with great aſſiduity. A late author very juſtly ſays, "To write the hiſtory of his reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Louis. Through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty as a king, and promoted the intereſts of his ſubjects only that they might the better anſwer the purpoſes of his greatneſs; by the latter, he embroiled himſelf with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a diſmal ſcene of devaſtation." His reign, which began ſplendidly, was, towards the cloſe of it, one continued ſeries of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe places taken from him, which, in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thouſand lives. He died on the firſt of September 1715, being ſucceeded by his grandſon Louis XV. who in the courſe of his reign, was ſtyled the Well Beloved, which he loſt ſome years before he died; he was deteſted and deſpiſed by his ſubjects, for his ſhameful and licentious attachments, and illiberal treatment of ſome of the worthieſt men of the kingdom. Though the ſyſtem of this prince was more pacific than that of his grandfather, yet the ſituation of affairs in Europe more than once embroiled him with the houſe of Auſtria. The intention of the French king was, to place his father-

in-law

in-law, Staniſlaus, on the throne of Poland. In this he failed, through the interpoſition of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians; but Staniſlaus enjoyed the title of king, and the revenues of Lorrain, during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war with Great-Britain; in the management of which the latter was ſo ill ſeconded by her allies, that it was finiſhed by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. We have mentioned, in the hiſtory of England, the war ſo humiliating to France, and the chief events attending it, which was ended by the peace of Fontainbleau, in 1763. He died A. D. 1774, in the 64 year of his age, and 59 of his reign.

Louis XVI. the late unfortunate king of France, ſucceeded his grandfather, Louis XV. on the 10th of May 1774. Several regulations, highly favourable to the general intereſts of the nation, particularly the ſuppreſſion of the muſquetaires, took place ſoon after the acceſſion of this monarch. But the moſt remarkable circumſtance which attended the preſent reign, was the placing Mr. Neckar, a Proteſtant, and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776. Under the direction of this gentleman, a general reform took place in France, throughout every department in the revenue. When hoſtilities commenced between France and Great-Britain, in conſequence of the former's taking part with the revolted Britiſh colonies in America, the people of France were not burdened with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the public revenue was augmented by his œconomy, improvements, and reformation that were introduced into the management of the finances. But the beneficial meaſures purſued by Mr. Neckar were not calculated to procure him friends at court; the vain, the intereſted, and the ambitious, naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have poſſeſſed ſufficient firmneſs of mind to ſupport an upright and able miniſter. He was therefore for a time diſplaced; and is ſaid to have been particularly oppoſed by the queen's party. The freedom of America had been the grand object of France; and that having been acknowledged in the fulleſt and moſt expreſs terms by Great-Britain, the preliminary articles of peace were ſigned at Paris on the 20th of January 1783; but the immenſe expences incurred were found at laſt to be much more than the revenues of the kingdom could by any means ſupport; and the miſerable exigencies to which government was reduced, contributed no doubt to bring about the revolution. In the year 1786 a treaty of navigation and commerce was concluded between the two courts of London and Verſailles; and this concluded the tranſactions between the two kingdoms.

The ambition of the French government, which made it acquainted with liberty, in aſſiſting the inſurgents in America and Holland, kindled a ſpirit among the people, which could not well admit of the continuance of arbitrary power at home.

The diſmiſſion of Monſieur Neckar from the direction of public affairs, and ſucceeding miniſters being endowed neither with his integrity nor abilities, the finances of the nation were on the point of being totally ruined. And when the edict for regiſtering the loan at the concluſion of the year 1785, which amounted to the ſum of three millions three hundred and thirty thouſand pounds, was preſented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the remonſtrances of the aſſembly, aſſumed a more legal and formidable aſpect. The king, however, ſignified to the ſelect deputations that were commiſſioned to convey to him their remonſtrances, that he expected to be obeyed without further delay. The ceremony of the regiſtering took place on the next day, but was accompanied with a reſolution, importing, that public œconomy was the only genuine ſource of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the neceſſity of the ſtate, and reſtoring that credit which borrowing had brought to the brink of ruin. This proceeding was no ſooner known, than the king required the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament: he eraſed from their records the reſolution which had been adopted; and declared himſelf ſatisfied with Monſieur de Calonne, his comptroller-general and acting miniſter.

This gentleman, how gratified ſoever he might be by the ſupport of his ſovereign, could not but feel himſelf deeply mortified by the oppoſition of the parliament. An accurate inquiry into the ſtate of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure had far exceeded the revenues: to impoſe any new taxes, in the preſent ſituation was impoſſible; to continue the method of borrowing, was ruinous; and to have recourſe only to œconomical reform, would be found wholly inadequate; therefore he heſitated not to declare, that it would be impracticable to place the finances on a ſolid baſis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the conſtitution of the ſtate. The miniſter, in order to give weight to this reform was ſenſible that ſomething more was neceſſary than royal authority; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit inſtrument for introducing a new order into public affairs; nor would ſubmit to be a paſſive machine for ſanctioning the plans of a miniſter, even if theſe plans had perfect wiſdom for their ſource.

The only alternative that ſeemed, under theſe circumſtances, to remain, was, to have recourſe to ſome other aſſembly, more dignified and ſolemn in its character, and that ſhould conſiſt in a greater degree of members from the various orders of the ſtate, and the different provinces of the kingdom; but the true and legitimate aſſembly of the nation, the ſtates-general, had not met ſince the year 1614. Another aſſembly had occaſionally been ſubſtituted in the room of the ſtates-general: this was diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the notables, or men of note, and conſiſted of a number of perſons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly ſelected from the higher orders of the ſtate, and nominated by the king himſelf. This aſſembly had been convened by Henry IV. and again by Louis XIII and was now once more ſummoned by the authority of the then reigning monarch; and the period appointed for their opening was the 29th of January 1787.

Monſieur de Calonne, though embarraſſed by great difficulties, firſt met the aſſembly of the notables, and communicated his long-expected plan. He began by ſtating, that the public expenditure had for centuries paſt exceeded the revenues: that a very conſiderable deficiency had of courſe exiſted; and that at his own acceſſion to office it was three millions three hundred and thirty thouſand pounds. To remedy this evil, the comptroller-general recommended a territorial impoſt, in the nature of the Engliſh land-taxes; from which no rank or order of men were to be exempted; an inquiry in the poſſeſſions of the clergy, which hitherto had been deemed ſacred, from their proportion of the public burdens: the various branches of internal taxation were alſo to undergo a ſtrict examination; and a mortgage of the demeſne lands of the crown preſented a conſiderable reſource.

Monſieur Neckar, before he retired from the management of the finances, had publiſhed his Compte rendue au Roi, in which France was repreſented as poſſeſſing a clear ſurplus of four hundred and twenty thouſand pounds ſterling. This performance had been read with avidity, and was conſidered as an æra in the hiſtory of France. The credit of this ſtatement was ably vindicated by M. de Brienne, archbiſhop of Thouloufe, and by the count de Mirabeau, a ſtill more formidable enemy to Calonne. His eloquence, however, might have ſucceſsfully vindicated his ſyſtem and reputation againſt the calculations of Brienne, and invectives of Mirabeau: but the genius of the comptroller-general ſunk under the influence of the three

great bodies of the nation. The grand and eſſential object of reform was, to equalize the public burdens, and, by rendering the taxes general, to diminiſh the load of the lower and moſt uſeful claſſes of the people.

The ancient nobility and the clergy had ever been free from all public aſſeſſment; the crowds of new nobleſſe, who had purchaſed their patents, were by that ſhameful cuſtom exempted, together with their poſterity, from contributing proportionably to the expences of the ſtate; the magiſtrates likewiſe throughout the kingdom enjoyed their ſhare of exemptions; ſo that the whole weight of the taxes fell on thoſe who were the leaſt able to bear them. Thus the nobility, the clergy, the magiſtracy, were united againſt the miniſter, and the event was ſuch as might be expected. The intrigues of theſe three bodies raiſed againſt him ſo loud a clamour, that, finding it impoſſible to ſtem the torrent, M. de Calonne not only reſigned his place on the 12th of April, but, to avoid the ſtorm of perſecution, ſoon after retired to England.

In the mean time the notables proceeded in their inquiries: and it was now ſuggeſted, that an aſſembly of the ſtates ſhould be called, as the notables were not competent to impoſe a new tax. As the deliberations of the notables were not carried on in ſecret, this propoſal was inſtantly circulated through the capital, and ſuppoſed to be a new diſcovery. The notables were ſoon after diſſolved, without having accompliſhed any thing excepting the juſtification of M. Neckar. The ſtamp-act, however, was eſtabliſhed, and a bed of juſtice was held by the king on the 5th of Auguſt 1787, at which the parliament of Paris was obliged to attend; and the edict was regiſtered, notwithſtanding their proteſt to the contrary. But the parliament, though defeated, were far from ſubdued: on the day after the king had held his bed of juſtice, they entered a formal proteſt againſt the conceſſion that had been extorted from them. On the other hand, though every appearance of violence muſt have proved painful to the mild diſpoſition of Louis, he could not conſent to ſurrender, without a ſtruggle, that authority which had been ſo long exerciſed by his predeceſſors.

Since the commencement of the preſent diſcontents, the capital had been gradually filled with conſiderable bodies of troops; and about a week after the parliament had entered their proteſt, an officer of the French guards, with a party of ſoldiers, went at break of day to the houſe of each individual member, to ſignify to him the king's command that he ſhould immediately get into his carriage, and proceed to Troys, a city of Champagne, about ſeventy miles from Paris, without writing or ſpeaking to any perſon out of his own houſe before his departure. Theſe orders were ſerved at the ſame inſtant; and before the citizens of Paris were appriſed of the tranſaction, the parliament were already on the road to the place of their exile.

The reſentment of the whole nation, againſt the baniſhment of the parliament, roſe to ſo great a height, that, after a month's abſence, it was recalled. This was ſcarcely done, when they were required to regiſter a loan; at which they heſitated, notwithſtanding all the manœuvres of the miniſter. At laſt the king came to the houſe, and held what is called a royal ſeſſion. The edicts were now regiſtered; but the duke of Orleans proteſted, in the preſence of the king, againſt the legality of the proceeding. The parliament proteſted againſt the legality of the ſeſſion itſelf, but to no purpoſe. The duke of Orleans, with four others, were baniſhed; the king called for the journals of the houſe, deſtroyed the proteſt, and forbad it to be inſerted again. Great clamours were excited by the baniſhment of the duke of Orleans, and the other members of parliament; remonſtrances were preſented by the parliaments of Paris, Bourdeaux, and Rennes; but it was not till the ſpring of 1788 that the exiles were recalled.

Louis had now no alternative remaining, but to plunge his country into all the calamities of civil war, or to comply with the wiſhes of his people, and reeſtabliſh the ſtates-general. In the firſt caſe, he muſt have expected to encounter the majority of the people, animated by the exhortations and examples of their magiſtrates: the peers of the realm had expreſſed the ſtrongeſt diſapprobation of his meaſures, nor could he even depend any longer on the princes of the blood: but what afforded moſt ſerious matter of alarm was, the ſpirit lately evidenced among the military, who, during the diſturbances in the provinces, had reluctantly been brought to draw their ſwords againſt their countrymen; and many of whoſe officers, having recently ſerved in America, publicly avowed their abhorrence of a deſpotic government.

Under theſe impreſſions, in the beginning of Auguſt, an arret was publiſhed, which fixed the meeting of the ſtates-general to the firſt of May in the enſuing year, 1789; at the ſame time every ſtep was taken to ſecure the favourable opinion of the public. New arrangements took place in the adminiſtration; and M. Neckar, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was again introduced into the management of the finances. The torture, which by a former edict, had been reſtricted in part, was entirely aboliſhed; every perſon accuſed was allowed the aſſiſtance of council, and permitted to avail himſelf of any point of law; and it was determined, that in future ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed on any perſon, unleſs the party accuſed ſhould, by a majority of at leaſt three judges, be pronounced guilty.

At this time the eyes of all Europe were turned on the ſtates-general, or national aſſembly, whoſe reeſtabliſhment, in the month of May 1789, preſented a new æra in the government of France.—By the revolution which took place in that year, France founded a new conſtitution, upon the principles that all men are free and equal in their rights, and that ſovereignty reſides in the nation. This conſtitution has been virtually overthrown by the abolition of the monarchical part of it, and by the ſubſequent condemnation and execution of the king; a deed of moſt ſingular atrocity, by which the national convention have ſtamped eternal infamy upon their characters.

The moment of the meeting of the ſtates-general was far from auſpicious to the court, but abundantly ſo to the intereſts of the nation. The minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours; the unanimity that had been looked for from the different orders of the ſtates was extinguiſhed by the jarring pretenſions of each; and their mutual jealouſies were attributed, by the ſuſpicions of the people, to the intrigues of the court, who were ſuppoſed already to repent of the haſty aſſent that had been extorted. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom increaſed the general gloom and diſcontent; and the people, preſſed by hunger, and inflamed by reſentment, were ripe for revolt. The ſovereign alſo, equally impatient of the obſtacles he inceſſantly encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again eſtabliſhed, and was attended with the immediate removal of M. Neckar. This ſtep, which evinced a total change of reſolutions, and, which, from the popularity of the miniſter, was likely to produce a violent fermentation in every order of men, was followed by others equally injudicious. The ſtates-general were driven into the Salle des Etats, where they held their meetings, by detachments of the guards, who ſurrounded them, and who waited only the orders of the court to proceed to greater extremities againſt the repreſentatives of the nation, who were obnoxious to them.

Theſe manifeſtations of vigour, had they been only ſuſtained by inſtantly attacking and entering Paris, it is not to be doubted that, unprepared as it ſtill was, and unwilling to expoſe the lives and properties of its citizens to the licentious will of an incenſed ſoldiery, the capital would have been without difficulty

reduced

reduced to obedience: but the delay which ſucceeded gave the inhabitants time to recover from their firſt emotions of ſurprize and apprehenſion. They ſaw the timidity and imbecility of the government, who, having founded the charge, dared not advance to the attack. They profited by this want of exertion; and, rapidly paſſing from one extreme to another, they almoſt unanimouſly took up arms againſt their rulers. Joined by the French guards, who, from a long reſidence in the capital, had been peculiarly expoſed to ſeduction, and who at this deciſive moment abandoned their ſovereign, the Pariſians broke through every obſtacle by which they had hitherto been reſtrained.

By the acceſſion of the French guards, the people had obtained a ſupply of arms and ammunition, and a conſiderable train of artillery; the ſhops of the armourers were ranſacked for weapons, and the ſoldier-citizens were even trained to ſome appearance of diſcipline. The night of the 13th of July paſſed without any event of conſequence: the morning diſcovered that, taking advantage of the darkneſs, the troops encamped in the Champs Eſyſées had moved off. The people, however, were ignorant of the cauſes of this removal, and an immediate attack was expected. The national guard (for that was the name which the mixed band of ſoldiers and citizens now aſſumed) amounted to the number of 150,000 men; but the majority were ſtill without arms. The marquis de la Salle was named commander in chief; the green cockade, which they had at firſt adopted, was changed for the ſince national colours, red, blue, and white; the new army was now more regularly officered; and various deputations were diſpatched in queſt of arms and implements of war. M. de Fleſſelles, the prévôt des marchands (or mayor) made many promiſes on this ſubject; but they all proved deluſive.—In the courſe of their inquiries after arms, a party of more than 30,000, conducted by M. Ethis de Corny, repaired to the Hôtel des Invalids.

M. Sombreuil, the governor, had received orders ſo early as on Sunday the 12th to hold himſelf in readineſs for an attack, and his men had remained during the whole of Monday under arms, and on the morning of Tueſday he had permitted them to take a few hours reſt. At this moment M. de Corny arrived; and on making known to the governor the object of his miſſion, he was anſwered, that the invalids had not any arms. M. Corny was re-conducted by M. Sombreuil to the gate; but it was no ſooner opened than the multitude ruſhed in, like an irreſiſtible torrent, and in a few minutes ranſacked every part of the hôtel.—More than 30,000 muſkets, and twenty pieces of cannon, were the fruit of this expedition. On the oppoſite ſide of the Seine a ſimilar event occurred; there another party attacked the *garde-meuble* de la couronne, and procured from that ancient ſtore an immenſe number of weapons of different kinds.

The Baſtile had from the firſt moment of the alarms in Paris been put in a ſtate of defence. Fifteen pieces of cannon were mounted on the towers; and three field-pieces, loaded with grape and caſe-ſhot, guarded the firſt gate. An immenſe quantity of powder and military ſtores had been brought from the arſenal, and diſtributed to the different corps; the mortars had been exerciſed, the draw-bridge and gates ſtrengthened and repaired; the houſe of the governor himſelf was fortified, and guarded by light pieces of artillery. The ſhortneſs of the time had not permitted him to be equally provident in laying in a ſufficient ſtore of proviſions. The forces which the fortreſs included were chiefly foreigners.

On the morning of the 14th, ſeveral deputations had waited on the Marquis de Launay, the governor, to demand arms and peace: they were courteouſly received by him, and he gave them the ſtrongeſt aſſurances of his good intentions. Indeed, it is ſaid, that he was himſelf averſe to hoſtile meaſures, had he not been ſeduced by the perfidious counſels of the ſieur Louis de Flue, commander of the Swiſs guards, by the orders of the baron de Bezenval, and by the promiſes of M. de Fleſſelles. The Swiſs ſoldiers had even been engaged by an oath to fire on the invalids who were in the fortreſs, if they refuſed to obey the governor; and the invalids themſelves, it is ſaid, were intoxicated with a profuſion of liquor which had been diſtributed among them.

M. de la Roſiere, a deputy of the diſtrict of St. Louis de la Culture, waited on the governor, about eleven o'clock in the morning, and was accompanied by a mixed multitude of all deſcriptions. He entered alone into the houſe of the governor, and the people remained in the outer court. "I come, Sir," ſaid the deputy, "in the name of the nation, to repreſent to you, that the cannons which are levelled againſt the city from the towers of the Baſtile, have excited the moſt alarming apprehenſions, and I muſt entreat that you will remove them." The governor replied, "that it was not in his power to remove the guns, as they had aways been there, without an order from the king; that he would, however, diſmount them, and turn them out of the embraſures."

The deputy having with difficulty obtained leave from M. de Loſme, major of the fortreſs, to enter into the interior court, ſummoned the officers and ſoldiers in the name of honour and their country to alter the direction of the guns, &c.—and the whole of them, at the deſire even of the governor, engaged themſelves by oath to make no uſe of their arms, unleſs attacked. M. de la Roſiere, after having aſcended one of the towers with M. de Launay, went out of the caſtle, promiſing to engage the citizens to ſend a part of the national guard to do the duty of the Baſtile in conjunction with the troops.—The deputy had ſcarcely retired, before a number of citizens approached the gate, and demanded arms and ammunition. As the majority of them were unarmed, and announced no hoſtile intention, M. de Launay made no difficulty of receiving them, and lowered the firſt draw-bridge to admit them. The more determined of the party advanced to acquaint him with the object of their miſſion: but they had ſcarcely entered the firſt court, when the bridge was drawn up, and a general diſcharge of muſketry deſtroyed the greater part of theſe unfortunate people.

This apparent act of perfidy immediately raiſed the reſentment of the people almoſt to phrenſy. The inſtantaneous determination was, to ſtorm the fortreſs; and the execution was as vigorous, as the reſolution was daring. An immenſe multitude, armed with muſkets, ſabres, &c. ruſhed at once into the outer courts. A ſoldier of the name of Tournay, climbed over the corps-de-garde, and leaped alone into the interior court. After ſearching in vain for the keys of the draw-bridges in the corps-de-garde, he called out for a hatchet—he ſoon broke the locks and the bolts; and being ſeconded by the efforts of the people on the other ſide, the two draw-bridges were immediately lowered. The people loſt no time in making good their ſtation, where for more than an hour they ſuſtained a moſt ſevere fire from the garriſon, and anſwered it with equal vigour.

Several deputations from the Hotel de Ville appeared, before the walls, during the conteſt, with flags of truce, intending to perſuade the beſieged to a peaceful ſurrender: but either they were not diſcovered amidſt the general confuſion, or, what is more probable, M. de Launay deſpaired of finding mercy at the hands of the populace, and ſtill flattered himſelf with ſome deluſive hope of deliverance. The guards, who now acted openly with the people, proved of moſt eſſential ſervice; and, by the advice of ſome of the veterans of this corps, three waggons loaded with ſtraw were ſet on fire under the walls, the ſmoke of which interrupted the view, and conſequently intercepted the aim of the beſieged; while the

the aſſailants, being at a greater diſtance, were able to direct their fire to the battlements with an unerring aim. In the mean time, the arſenal was ſtormed, and a moſt dreadful havock was prevented there by the prudence and courage of M. Humbert, who firſt mounted the towers of the Baſtile: a hair-dreſſer was in the very act of ſetting fire to the magazine, when M. H. whoſe notice was attracted by the cries of a woman, knocked the deſperado down with the but-end of his muſket; next, inſtantly ſeizing a barrel of ſalt-petre which had already caught fire, he was happy enough to extinguiſh it, by turning it upſide down.

An immenſe crowd, as if unconſcious of danger, filled the courts of the fortreſs, in ſpite of the unremitted fire of the garriſon, and even approached ſo near the towers, that M. de Launay himſelf frequently rolled large maſſes of ſtone from the platform upon their heads. Within, all was confuſion and terror; the officers themſelves ſerved at the guns, and diſcharged their firelocks in the ranks. But when the governor ſaw the aſſailants take poſſeſſion of the firſt bridge, and draw up their cannon againſt the ſecond, his courage then was changed into deſpair, and even his underſtanding appeared to be deranged. He raſhly ſought to bury himſelf under the enormous maſs, which he had in vain attempted to defend.—While a turnkey was engaged in diſtributing wine to the ſoldiers, he caught the match from one of the pieces of cannon, and ran to the magazine with an intention to ſet it on fire; but a ſubaltern of the name of Ferrand, repulſed him with his bayonet. He then went down to the Tour de la Liberté, where he had depoſited a quantity of powder: but here alſo he was oppoſed by the ſieur Beguard, another ſubaltern officer, who thus prevented an act of inſanity, which muſt have deſtroyed thouſands of citizens, and with the Baſtile would have infallibly blown up all the adjacent buildings, and a conſiderable part of the ſuburb of St. Antoine.

De Launay at length propoſed ſeriouſly to the garriſon to blow up the fortreſs, as it was impoſſible that they could hope for mercy from the mob. But he was anſwered by the ſoldiers, that they would rather periſh, than deſtroy in this inſidious manner ſuch a number of their fellow-citizens. He then hung out a white flag, intimating his deſire to capitulate; and a Swiſs officer would have addreſſed the aſſailants through one of the loop-holes of the draw-bridge—but the hour was paſt, and the exaſperated populace would attend to no offer of capitulation. Through the ſame opening he next diſplayed a paper, which the diſtance prevented the beſiegers from reading. A perſon brought a plank, which was reſted on the parapet, and poiſed by a number of others. The brave unknown advanced upon the plank; but juſt as he was ready to ſeize the paper, he received a muſket ſhot, and fell into the ditch. He was followed by a young man of the name of Maillard, ſon to an officer of the chatelet, who was fortunate enough to reach the paper, the contents of which were—"We have twenty thouſand pounds weight of gunpowder, and will blow up the garriſon and all its environs, if you do not accept the capitulation."—M. Elie, an officer of the queen's regiment, who was inveſted with a kind of ſpontaneous authority, was for agreeing to terms; but the people indignantly rejected the very word Capitulation, and immediately drew up three pieces of artillery to the ſpot.

It being now perceived by the garriſon that the great bridge was going to be attacked, they let down the ſmall draw-bridge, which was to the left of the entrance into the fortreſs. Meſſrs. Elie, Hulin, Maillard, Reole, Humbert, Tournay, and ſome others, leaped inſtantly on the bridge, and, ſecuring the bolts, proceeded to the door. In the mean time the French guards, preſerving their habitual coolneſs and diſcipline, formed a column on the other ſide of the bridge, to prevent the citizens from ruſhing upon it in too great numbers. An invalid came to open the gate behind the draw-bridge, and aſked the invaders what they wanted? "The ſurrender of the Baſtile," they cried; and he permitted them to enter. The conquerors immediately lowered the great bridge, and the multitude entered without reſiſtance: the invalids were ranged to the right, and the Swiſs on the left hand, and their arms piled againſt the wall. They took off their hats, clapped their hands, and cried out "Bravo!" as the beſiegers entered. The firſt moments of this meeting paſſed in peace and reconciliation: but ſome ſoldiers on the platforms, ignorant of the ſurrender, unhappily fired upon the people; who, ſuſpecting a ſecond act of perfidy, fell upon the invalids, two of whom (the unfortunate Beguard, who had prevented the governor from blowing up the Baſtile, and another equally innocent) were dragged to the Place de Grève, and hanged.

M. de Launay, when ſeized, was not in an uniform, but in a plain grey frock: he had a cane in his hand, and would have killed himſelf with the ſword that it contained, but the grenadier Arné wreſted it out of his hand. He was eſcorted by Meſſrs. Hulin, Arné, Legris, Elie, and ſome others, and every effort was exerted by theſe patriots to ſave his life, but in vain:—they had ſcarcely arrived at the Hotel de Ville before his defenders were overpowered, and even wounded by the enraged populace, and he fell under a thouſand wounds. M. de Loſme Salbrai, his major, a gentleman diſtinguiſhed for his virtue and his humanity, was alſo the victim of the popular fury. The marquis de Pelleport, who had been five years in the Baſtile, and during that time had been treated by him with particular kindneſs, interpoſed to ſave him at the riſk of his life, but was ſtruck down by a hatchet, and M. de Loſme was inſtantly put to death. The heads of the governor and the major were ſtruck off, and carried on pikes through the ſtreets of the city.

The rage of the populace would not have ended here—the invalids who defended the fortreſs would all have been ſacrificed, had not the humanity of the French guards interpoſed, and inſiſted on their pardon. The keys of the Baſtile were carried to M. Briſſot de Warville, who had been a few years before an inhabitant of theſe caverns of deſpotiſm; and a guard of 3000 men was appointed over the fortreſs till the council at the Hotel de Ville ſhould decree its demolition. In the intoxication of ſucceſs, the priſoners were forgotten; and as the keys had been carried to Paris, the dungeons were forced open—ſeven priſoners only were found, three of whom had loſt their reaſon, having been detained there as ſtate priſoners from the reign of Louis XV.

M. de Launay's fate involved that of M. de Fleſſelles, the prévôt des marchands. He had been long ſuſpected of a deſign to betray the people; and all his manœuvres evidently tended to that point. In the pocket of M. de Launay a letter from him was diſcovered, which contained theſe remarkable words—"I will amuſe the Pariſians with cockades and promiſes. Keep your ſtation till the evening—you ſhall then have a reinforcement." At the ſight of this letter the unfortunate de Fleſſelles was ſtruck dumb—a voice was heard in the hall—"Be gone, M. de F. you are a traitor."—"I ſee," ſaid he, "gentlemen, that I am not agreeable to you—I ſhall retire."—He haſtened down the ſtairs; but as he croſſed the Grève, accompanied by a number of perſons to defend him, a young man, who had waited an opportunity, ſhot him with a piſtol. His head was cut off, placed on a pike, and carried through the ſtreets along with that of the governor.

There were found, in the priſon of the Baſtile, the moſt horrible engines for putting to the ſevereſt tortures thoſe unhappy perſons whom the cruelty or jealouſy of deſpotiſm had determined to deſtroy. An

iron

iron cage, about twelve tons in weight, was found with the ſkeleton of a man in it, who had probably lingered out a great part of his days in that horrid manſion. Among the priſoners releaſed by its deſtruction were major White a Scotſman, earl Mazarine an Iriſh nobleman, and the count de Lorges.—The former appeared to have his intellectual faculties almoſt totally deſtroyed by the long confinement he had endured; and by being unaccuſtomed to converſe with any human creature, he had forgotten the uſe of ſpeech. Earl Mazarine, on his arrival upon the Britiſh ſhore, eagerly jumped out of the boat, fell down on his knees, and, kiſſing the ground thrice, exclaimed, "God bleſs this land of liberty!" The count de Lorges, at a very advanced period of life, being alſo liberated, was exhibited to the public curioſity in the Palais Royal, or royal palace. His filthy appearance, his white beard which extended to his waiſt, and, above all, his extreme weakneſs, reſulting probably from ſuffering an impriſonment of thirty-two years, were objects highly calculated to operate upon the ſenſes and paſſions of every beholder. It is indeed impoſſible not to participate in the exultation which a capital and a country ſo highly illuminated, and ſo long oppreſſed, muſt have experienced, at the extinction of this deteſtable and juſtly dreaded priſon of ſtate.

This wonderful day was ſucceeded by a tumultuous night; and the ſongs of joy and triumph, which had celebrated the victory of the people, were converted into confuſed murmurs expreſſive only of anxiety and alarm. A report was ſpread that the troops were about to enter the city at the Barriere d'Enfer: thither the citizens crowded under the conduct of the French guards, and preceded by a train of artillery—the body of troops, however, that appeared in that quarter, were diſperſed by a ſingle volley. The alarm-bells were then ſounded; barricadoes were formed at the barriers; deep holes were dug in different parts, to prevent the approach of the cavalry; the tops of the houſes were manned; a general illumination was ordered; and the ſilence of the night was interrupted by the diſcharges of artillery, and by the warning voice of the patroles—"Citizens, do not go to bed; take care of your lights; on this night we muſt ſee clearly."

The court regarded the firſt news of the taking of the Baſtile as an impoſture of the popular party: it was, however, at length incontrovertibly confirmed. The firſt reſolves of the cabal are ſaid to have been deſperate, and orders were iſſued to the commanders to puſh their projected plot with all poſſible vigour. In the dead of the night, marſhal Broglio is ſaid to have arrived to inform them, that it was impoſſible to obey the mandate he had received of inveſting the hall of the national aſſembly with a train of artillery, as the ſoldiers would not comply with his orders.—"Preſs then the ſiege of Paris," was the anſwer. The general replied, for the execution of that project, he could not depend on the army.

The only perſon in the palace, who was kept totally ignorant of theſe tranſactions, was the king. The duke de Liancourt, a diſtinguiſhed patriot, who was then maſter of the wardrobe, ſaved the ſtate: he forced his way in the middle of the night into the king's apartment, informed him of every circumſtance, and announced to the count d'Artois that a price was ſet upon his head. The intelligence of the duke was ſupported by the authority of Monſieur, who accompanied him, and the king was immediately convinced that he had been deceived by evil councils. Early the next morning the monarch appeared in the aſſembly, but without the pomp and parade of deſpotiſm. His addreſs was affectionate and conſolatory. He "lamented the diſturbances at Paris; diſavowed all conſciouſneſs of any meditated attack on the perſons of the deputies; and added that he had iſſued orders for the immediate removal of the troops from the vicinity of the motropolis."

It is impoſſible to expreſs the feelings of the aſſembly on this affecting occaſion.—The tear of ſympathy ſtarted into almoſt every eye.—An expreſſive ſilence firſt pervaded the aſſembly, which preſently was ſucceeded by a burſt of applauſe and acclamation.

The city of Paris, which had, from the 12th of July, been an unhappy ſcene of commotion, of terror, and of bloodſhed, began on the 15th to aſſume ſome appearance of order and tranquillity. The livid and bloody heads were ſtill carried about the ſtreets as trophies of popular reſentment: but on the morning of that day, a ſenſible citizen perſuaded the multitude to liſten to the voice of humanity, and they were thrown into the Seine. The electors at the Hotel de Ville laboured inceſſantly in the organization of the civil eſtabliſhment, and in the regulation of the city militia. The odious name of Prévôt was aboliſhed; the more ancient and honourable appellation of Mayor was ſubſtituted in its place; and to this office M. Bailly, who had been preſident of the tiers état, was called by the unanimous voice of his fellow-citizens. We muſt not omit to notice, that the duc d'Orleans, having been elected preſident of the national aſſembly, had declined the honour, and that the venerable archbiſhop of Vienne had been choſen in his room. During the laborious ſeſſions which ſucceeded the diſgrace of M. Neckar, however, it was thought that his age and infirmities would ſcarcely allow him to exerciſe ſo difficult an office without the aſſiſtance of a younger perſon, and the marquis de la Fayette was unanimouſly nominated vice-preſident.

During the night, the troops which had aſſembled on the Champ de Mars had decamped, leaving their tents and the greater part of their baggage behind them: but a ſpectacle ſtill more intereſting to the citizens ſoon preſented itſelf:—this was a deputation of eighty-four of the moſt diſtinguiſhed members of the national aſſembly, accompanied by an immenſe crowd, who covered the road from Verſailles, to the capital, and loaded them with bleſſings, and the moſt unequivocal proofs of prodigal affection. The ſurpriſe and exultation of theſe patriots muſt have been extreme, when they beheld more than 100,000 citizens transformed into ſoldiers, all of them armed and already trained to military diſcipline. On their arrival at the Hôtel de Ville, the marquis de la Fayette, count Lally Tolendal, the marquis Clermont Tonnerre, the duc de Liancourt, and the archbiſhop of Paris, addreſſed the people.—From this place they adjourned to the church of Notre Dame, where *Te Deum* was ſung in celebration of the happy and chearful return of peace accompanied with liberty. As they returned from the church, the acclamations of the populace were occaſionally interrupted by the expreſſion of two further demands, the wiſh of ſeeing their beloved ſovereign in Paris, and the recall of the patriotic miniſtry. The deputies returned to Verſailles in the evening.

To circumſtances of ſuch importance as thoſe above related, it muſt be imputed that the public tranquility, when interrupted, was not eaſily reſtored. The miniſtry, which had ſhewn themſelves ſo inimical to the cauſe of the people, were not yet diſmiſſed, nor had the troops yet evacuated the environs of Paris: two freſh regiments had arrived at St. Denis; a ſtrange and unſucceſsful attack had even been made on the Baſtile, by a ſerjeant and two companies of guards; and a convoy of flour had been intercepted by the orders of a perſon well known. The night of the 15th, therefore, was ſpent with the ſame anxiety, and with the ſame warlike preparations, as the preceding; and in the morning a freſh deputation was ſent to the aſſembly, entreating them to intereſt themſelves in procuring the diſmiſſion of the miniſtry and the recall of M. Neckar.

The aſſembly were on the point of voting a ſpirited addreſs to the king, which had been propoſed by Mirabeau, when they were informed that the miniſters themſelves had anticipated the wiſh of the aſſembly, by giving in their reſignations. The ſame evening, a letter from his majeſty to M. Neckar, inviting him to return, was read by the preſident. It was received with the loudeſt acclamations, and was ſeconded by an addreſs from the aſſembly themſelves to that upright miniſter, couched in the ſtrongeſt terms of affection and reſpect. The king having at the ſame time intimated his intention of viſiting Paris the following day, the aſſembly immediately decreed a deputation to convey this exhilirating intelligence, and to calm the diſquietude that prevailed in the metropolis.

Thoſe who really loved him were apprehenſive for his ſafety; while others, who had been guilty of malverſion, were apprehenſive for themſelves. Rumours of projected aſſaſſinations were ſpread, and the leaſt conſequence that could enſue was ſuppoſed to be the detention of the ſovereign in Paris. The king, however, with a degree of courage and patriotiſm which does honour to his character, remained immovable in his determination.

On the morning of the 17th he left Verſailles, in a plain dreſs, and with no other equipage than two carriages with eight horſes each; in the firſt of which he rode himſelf—a part of the national aſſembly, in their robes, accompanied him on foot: and the militia of Verſailles compoſed his only guard till the proceſſion arrived at the Seve, where they were relieved by the Paris militia, with the marquis de la Fayette at their head: and from this place the ſuite of the monarch amounted to about 20,000 men. The horſe-guards led the proceſſion; and theſe were followed by the city cavalry; ſome battalions of the French guards and other ſoldiers, who had fought in defence of the nation, ſucceeded: then the different companies and corporations; and M. de la Fayette, with a large body of militia, brought up the rear.

A quarter of an hour before the arrival of the king, whether from accident, or from ſome plot concerted by the enemies of liberty, a woman was ſhot by a muſket-ball, from the oppoſite ſide of the river. The king looked pale and melancholy, and an expreſſion of anxiety was even apparent in the faces of the national aſſembly. The progreſs was remarkably ſlow; and no ſhout was heard but "Vive la nation.

At the Barriere des Conferences, the king was met by M. Bailly, who acted as mayor, with the other magiſtrates. On preſenting the keys of the city, M. Bailly addreſſed his majeſty in a ſhort but elegant ſpeech, the exordium of which was:—"Theſe, Sir, are the keys which were preſented to Henry IV. He came to reconquer his people; it is our happineſs to have reconquered our king." At the Pont Neuf the paſſage was lined by a numerous train of artillery; but in the true ſpirit of French gallantry, the mouths and touch-holes of the cannon were adorned with bouquets of flowers.

On their arrival at the Hôtel de Ville, the king ſolemnly confirmed the election of M. Bailly and the marquis de la Fayette; and on receiving the complimentary addreſſes of the mayor, the preſident of electors, count Lally Tolendal, &c. he exclaimed with an air of pathetic emotion, which ſcarcely allowed him utterance,—"My people may always rely upon my affection." He received from the hands of the mayor the national cockade; and when he ſhewed himſelf at the window with this badge of patriotiſm the joy of the people could be no longer reſtrained; the ſhout of *Vive le roi!* which had ſcarcely been heard in the former part of the day, filled the whole atmoſphere, and reſounded from one extremity of the city to the other. The return of the king to Verſailles was a real triumph. The citizens, almoſt intoxicated with joy, ſurrounded his carriage; his countenance, which in the morning bore the aſpect of melancholy, was now cheerful and ſmiling; and he appeared ſincerely to partake in the general ſatisfaction of the people.

An incident which occurred at Verſailles contributed to excite a moſt unhappy commotion. On the firſt of October an entertainment (the firſt that was ever given in public at Verſailles by that body) was given by the gardes-du-corps, or king's body guard, to the officers of the regiment of Flanders; and to augment the unpopularity of the circumſtance, it was given in the royal ſaloon. Several of the officers of the national guard, with others of the military, were invited. At the ſecond courſe, four toaſts were given: "The king, the queen, the dauphin, and the royal family." "The nation" was propoſed, but according to a number of witneſſes, expreſſly rejected by the gardes-du-corps. The king was juſt returned from hunting; and the queen, having been informed of the gaity of the ſcene, perſuaded his majeſty to accompany her with the heir apparent to the ſaloon, which was now filled with ſoldiers—the grenadiers of Flanders and the Swiſs chaſſeurs having been admitted to the deſert. The queen appeared with the dauphin in her arms, affectionate as ſhe was lovely, and carried the royal infant through the ſaloon, amidſt the acclamations and murmurs of the ſpectators. Fired with enthuſiaſm, the ſoldiers drank the health of the king, the queen, and the dauphin, with their ſwords drawn; and the royal gueſts bowed reſpectfully and retired.

It was not long before the entertainment, which had hitherto been conducted with ſome degree of order, became a ſcene of entire confuſion. Nothing was omitted to inflame the paſſions of the military. The muſic played the favourite air—"O Richard, O my king! the world abandons thee;" the ladies of the court diſtributed white cockades, the anti-patriot enſign; and even ſome of the national guard, it is ſaid, had the weakneſs to accept them.

The city of Paris, during theſe tranſactions, was afflicted with all the evils of famine. Either no bread was to be obtained, or bread of ſo bad a quality, that the populace, always miſtruſtful and ſuſpicious, were not without their alarms of a criminal deſign upon the lives, or at leaſt the health, of the inhabitants. Such was the ſtate of things when the news arrived of the fatal banquet at Verſailles. The circumſtances which we have related were ſtrangely magnified; and all the ſuſpicions which were entertained reſpecting the deſign of diſſolving the aſſembly, and carrying off the ſovereign, were added in exaggeration.

Early on the morning of the memorable fifth of October, a woman ſallied out from the quarter of St. Euſtacia, and entering the corps-de-garde, and ſeizing a drum, paraded the adjacent ſtreets beating an alarm, and exciting the people by clamours reſpecting the ſcarcity of bread. She was ſoon joined by a very numerous mob, chiefly of women, to the amount of 800, who proceeded to Verſailles, where the king, upon hearing their complaints, ſigned an order for bringing corn from Senlis, and de Lagni, and for removing every obſtacle which impeded the ſupply of Paris. This order being reported to the women, they retired with joy and gratitude.

No ſooner was this band of Amazons diſperſed, than it was ſucceeded by another. The national aſſembly continued ſitting; but the ſeſſion was tumultuous, and interrupted by the ſhouts and harangues of the Pariſian fiſh-women, who filled the galleries; their addreſs was mingled with affecting murmurs and complaints, the multitude crying out that they were actually ſtarving, and that the majority of them had eaten nothing for upwards of twenty-four hours. The preſident, therefore, humanely ordered that proviſions ſhould be ſought for in every part of the town, and the hall of the aſſembly was the ſcene of a miſerable, ſcanty, and tumultuous banquet. Indeed ſuch

was

was the dreadful famine, that the horſe of one of the gardes-du-corps, being killed in a tumult, he was immediately roaſted by the mob, and greedily devoured.

The wretched multitudes who had travelled from Paris were expoſed, almoſt famiſhed, to the inclemencies of the weather in the open ſtreets: within the caſtle all was trepidation; nothing was to be heard from without but imprecations, and the voice of enraged multitudes demanding the life of the queen and the gardes-du-corps. Towards midnight, however, all appeared tolerably ſtill and peaceable, when the beating of the drums, and the light of innumerable torches, announced the approach of the Pariſian army.

At about half paſt five, the day began to break; and at this period crowds of women and other deſperate perſons, breathing vengeance and thirſting for blood, advanced to the caſtle, which, in the fatal ſecurity which the arrival of the Pariſian militia inſpired, was left unguarded in ſeveral places. Some of the iron gates were ſhut, and ſome left open. An immenſe crowd found its way into the "cour des miniſtres," and immediately proceeded to the royal gate, which was ſhut, and a number of the invaders attempted to ſcale it. Another troop of ruffians proceeded to the chapel court, and another to that of the princes, and by both theſe avenues penetrated into the royal court. Some haſty diſpoſitions of defence were made by a M. Agueſſeau; the gardes-du-corps were ſoon under arms, and one man was wounded by them in the arm, and another ſhot dead. The croud immediately mounted the grand ſtair-caſe, where one of the gardes-du-corps, M. Miomandre, endeavoured to diſſuade them from their attempt; but he narrowly eſcaped with his life. M. Tardivet du Repaire haſted to the queen's apartment, in order to prevent the entrance of the banditti; but he was aſſailed by thouſands, and ſtretched upon the ground. A villain with a pike attempted to pierce him to the heart; but he had the good fortune to wreſt the weafrom his hand, with which he parried the attacks of his enemies, and at length effected his eſcape. M. Miomandre in the mean time made his way to the queen's apartment. He opened the door, and cried out to a lady, whom he ſaw in the inner chamber—"Save the queen, madam, her life is in danger—I am here alone againſt two thouſand tigers." He ſhut the door; and after a few minutes reſiſtance was deſperately wounded with a pike, and left for dead—though he afterwards recovered.

A quarter of an hour previous to this, the queen had been awaked by the clamours of the women who aſſembled upon the terrace; but her waiting woman had ſatisfied her by ſaying, "that they were only the women of Paris, who ſhe ſuppoſed, not being able to find a lodging, were walking about." But the tumult approaching, and becoming apparently more ſerious, ſhe roſe, dreſſed herſelf in haſte, and ran to the king's apartment by a private paſſage. In her way ſhe heard the noiſe of a piſtol and a muſket, which redoubled her terror. "My friends," ſaid ſhe to every perſon ſhe met, "ſave me and my children." In the king's chamber ſhe found the dauphin, who had been brought there by one of her women; but the king was gone. Awaked by the tumult, he had ſeen from a window the multitude preſſing towards the grand ſtair-caſe; and alarmed for the queen, he haſted to her apartment, and entered at one door in the moment ſhe had quitted it by the other. He returned without loſs of time; and having with the queen brought the princeſs royal into the chamber, they prepared to face the multitude. In the mean time the noiſe and tumult increaſed, and appeared at the very door of the chamber.

Nothing was now to be heard but the moſt dreadful exclamations, with violent and repeated blows againſt the outer door, a pannel of which was broken. Nothing but inſtant death was expected by the royal company. Suddenly, however, the tumult ſeemed to ceaſe—every thing was quiet; and a moment after a gentle rap was heard at the door. The door was opened, and in an inſtant the apartments were filled with the Pariſian guard. The officer who conducted them, ordered them to ground their arms. "We come," ſaid he, "to ſave the king;" and turning to ſuch of the gardes-du-corps as were in the apartments, "We will ſave you alſo, gentlemen; let us from this moment be united."

The national guard unfortunately arrived too late to prevent all the miſchief. Two of the gardes-du-corps were murdered by the mob before the troops could be rallied, and their heads fixed on ſpikes ſerved as the ſtandards of this deteſtable banditti. From the firſt moment of the alarm the marquis de la Fayette had even exceeded his uſual activity. He appeared in every quarter:—"Gentlemen," ſaid he to the Pariſian ſoldiers, "I have pledged my word and honour to the king, that nothing belonging to him ſhall receive injury. If I break my word, I ſhall be no longer worthy to be your commander." Captain Gondran, the officer who had driven the ruffians from the king's apartment, was not leſs conſpicuous for his activity. The Pariſians forced their way in every part through the almoſt impenetrable maſs—ſurrounded the gardes-du-corps, and placed them in ſafety under their own colours.

The banditti, whoſe great object was plunder, had already begun to ſtrip the palace, and to throw the furniture to each other out of the windows. M. Gondran purſued them from place to place, till the caſtle was at length completely cleared. Expelled from the palace, they repaired to the ſtables; but here a ſudden ſtop was put to their depredations by M. Doazon, a farmer-general, and captain of the Paris militia. The horſes were all recovered, and brought back in ſafety to their ſtalls. Diſappointed at length in every view, they departed in a body to Paris; and left Verſailles entirely free, and under the protection of the national guard. The moſt generous kindneſs and gratitude took place between the gardes-du-corps and the national guard. The former conſidered the others as their deliverers; while the latter evinced every inclination that they ſhould in future form one united corps.

At length the royal family now ventured to ſhew themſelves at a balcony, and received the moſt lively acclamations of reſpect from the ſoldiers and the people. But whether it had been planned by the popular party, or whether it was the immediate impulſe of the multitude—but the former is moſt probable—at the firſt a ſingle voice, or a few voices, exclaimed—"The king to Paris;" and this was inſtantly followed by an univerſal acclamation enforcing the ſame demand. After ſome conſultation with the marquis de la Fayette, the king addreſſed them: "You wiſh me to go to Paris—I will go, on the condition that I am to be accompanied by my wife and children." He was anſwered by reiterated acclamations of *Vive le roi!*

The national aſſembly was convened before the king's departure; and, on the motion of M. Mirabeau, paſſed a ſolemn decree, "that the aſſembly was inſeparable from the perſon of the king." A deputation of one hundred members was alſo appointed to accompany the king to Paris. During the preparations for the journey, the gardes-du-corps changed hats and ſwords with the grenadiers and national guards, and both they and the regiment of Flanders deſired leave to mix indiſcriminately in the ranks. It was two o'clock in the afternoon before the proceſſion ſet out. During the progreſs all was gaiety and joy among the ſoldiers and the ſpectators; and ſuch was the reſpect in which the French nation ſtill held the name and perſon of their king, that the multitude were ſuperſtitiouſly perſuaded that the royal preſence would actually put an end to the famine. On his arrival,

the king was congratulated by the municipality, and declared his approbation of the loyalty which the city of Paris manifeſted.

As the ſpirit of the nation was ſo entirely averſe to the principles of the high ariſtocratic party, numbers of them, particularly the king's two brothers, and ſome of the firſt rank and fortune, took refuge in foreign countries, where they applied themſelves indefatigably to the purpoſe of exciting war againſt France.

The preparations for the general confederation proceeded, in the mean time, with conſiderable rapidity. The Champ de Mars, ſo famous for having been the rendezvous of the troops which in the preceding year were intended to overawe the capital, was choſen for this ſolemnity. This piece of ground, which is about 400 toiſes, or 800 yards in diameter, is bounded on the right and left by lofty trees, and commands at the further extremity a view of the military academy. In the middle of this vaſt plain an altar was erected for the purpoſe of adminiſtering the civic oath; and round it an immenſe amphitheatre was thrown up, of a league in circumference, and capable of containing four hundred thouſand ſpectators. The entrance into the Champ de Confédération (as it was now called) was through triumphal arches. The king's throne was placed under an elegant pavilion in the middle, and on each ſide of it were ſeats for the members of the national aſſembly. Two thouſand workmen were employed upon this immenſe labour; but the citizens of Paris, fearing leſt the preparations ſhould not be completed at the appointed period, flocked from every quarter to aſſiſt in the patriotic undertaking. Not only the military, but the clergy, and even the ladies lent their cheerful aſſiſtance. With aſtoniſhment ſtrangers beheld the moſt delicate and elegant of the female ſex dragging the wheel-barrow, or handling with willing but ſometimes ineffective endeavours the weighty mallet or the ſpade. We further learn, that on the Friday before the 14th, his majeſty went to view the works at the Campus Martius, and, like the emperor of China, lent a hand, not indeed to the plough, but to the ſhovel; he filled a wheel-barrow, and would have wheeled away the load, had not one of his attendants taken the burden off his hands.—One of the ſpectators remarked, The king was digging his own grave—at leaſt, that of his late royal honours. The provincials, who came from the remoteſt parts of the kingdom to join in the confederation, emulated the citizens in the ardour and enthuſiaſm; and the work was completed, ſo as both with reſpect to time and manner to ſurprize every ſpectator.

At length the important 14th of July 1790 arrived. The national guards of the departments, diſtinguiſhed by their reſpective ſtandards, the battalions of infantry, and the different troops of cavalry, the marine of France, and the foreigners who ſerved under its banners, being all arranged in military order, the king and the national aſſembly took a ſolemn oath to maintain the conſtitution; the armed citizens repeated it amongſt the applauſes of innumerable ſpectators. They ſwore to live free, or die; and this oath was taken on the ſame day throughout the whole extent of the kingdom.

On the 20th of June 1791, France was menaced with the convulſions of anarchy, and the horrors of civil war, by the eſcape of the king and queen, with their infant children, and Monſieur and Madame. To favour their eſcape, the royal family had obtained a paſſport through the medium of the Ruſſian ambaſſador, in the name of a baroneſs de Kortz, with her ſuite, as travelling to Frankfort.

They travelled in the moſt private manner till they found themſelves at a conſiderable diſtance from the capital, when they were furniſhed by Bouillé with detachments of dragoons, under the pretence of guarding ſome treaſure for the pay of the ſoldiers. They proceeded without interruption for 156 miles, and were but a few leagues from the frontiers when they were arreſted. At St. Menehoud, the poſt-maſter, a M. Drouet, who had formerly been a dragoon in the regiment of Condé—He immediately recogniſed the queen, and was forcibly attracted by the reſemblance of the king to his portrait on the aſſignat of fifty livres. He was confirmed in his ſuſpicions, on ſeeing the detachment of dragoons relieved by a detachment of huſſars, and determined to ſtop them; but, being alone, was prudent enough not to expoſe himſelf to the oppoſition of the ſoldiers. He ſuffered the carriage to paſs, but mounted a ſwift horſe, and took a croſs-road to Varennes, which was their next ſtage. He communicated his ſuſpicions to the poſt-maſter there, who had alſo formerly been a dragoon; and they concluded that the only mode of effecting their purpoſe was, to barricade the ſtreet and bridge over which the carriages muſt neceſſarily paſs. Fortunately, on the bridge there ſtood at the moment a carriage loaded with furniture; they overſet it, and called together the mayor, the procureur de la commune, and the commandant of the national guard, and in a few minutes the number of the patriots was increaſed to eight men.

The commandant and the procureur approached the principal carriage, and aſked the names of the travellers. The queen petulantly anſwered, they were in haſte, and produced the paſſport, which was thought a ſufficient warrant by ſeveral perſons: but the poſt-maſters combated the opinion, on the ground of its not being counterſigned by the preſident of the national aſſembly; and aſked why a Ruſſian baroneſs ſhould be eſcorted by the military of France? It was determined therefore to ſtop the travellers; and as they entered the houſe of the procureurs, the king throwing off his diſguiſe reſumed his dignity.—"I am your king, it is true," ſaid he: "theſe are my wife and children. I charge you to treat us with that reſpect which the French nation have always manifeſted towards their ſovereign."

The national guard had now arrived in conſiderable numbers, and at the ſame moment the huſſars, who endeavoured ſword in hand to force the houſe where the king was; but were anſwered by the national guard, that they ſhould never carry him off alive. The commandant of the national guard had placed at each end of the ſtreet two field-pieces, which however were not charged; but they were ſufficient to intimidate the huſſars, who, upon the commandant ordering the artillery-men to their poſts with their matches in their hands, relinquiſhed their object, and quietly ſurrendered the king to the cuſtody of the national guard.

The aſſembly received the news of theſe tranſactions with inexpreſſible ſatisfaction. The perjured Bouillé was ſuſpended from his functions; and orders were given for arreſting him, and all who appeared to be concerned in the flight of the king; but Bouillé evaded for the preſent the axe of juſtice, by flying the kingdom. The aſſembly next appointed two commiſſioners to examine the inferior agents of the king's flight; and three commiſſioners, Meſſrs. Tronchet, d'André, and Duport, were appointed to receive the declaration of the king and queen.

A conſiderable body of the national guard eſcorted the royal family to Paris; and their numbers were increaſed as they approached the metropolis. Meſſrs. Barnave, Pethion, and Latour Maubourg had been diſpatched to Varennes for the purpoſe of accompanying them back to Paris; and public tranquility was ſo well preſerved, that they entered the Thuilleries on the 25th without any diſturbance, and with no apparent inconvenience but the fatigue of the journey. Monſieur and Madame, who had taken a different road, were more ſucceſsful in effecting their eſcape, and arrived ſafe at Bruſſels on the 23d.

The new conſtitution was preſented to the king on the 3d of September, 1791, who on the 13th ſignified his acceptance of it in writing, and the following day appeared in the aſſembly, introduced by a deputation of ſixty members, and ſolemnly conſecrated the aſſent which he had already given, and concluded with an oath, "To be faithful to the nation and to the law, and to employ the powers veſted in him for the maintenance of the conſtitution, and the due execution of the law." Soon after this, the ſecond national council aſſembled, with abilities far inferior to the firſt.

About this time, the dubious and undecided conduct of the emperor Joſeph, and the refuge and protection afforded in the German empire to the emigrant princes, excited France to vigorous reſolutions; and a celebrated manifeſto, addreſſed to all ſtates and nations, made its appearance. The forcible meaſures purſued had the effect of intimidating the German princes; and the emigrants were conſtrained to an ignominious diſperſion and retreat from the frontiers: but the protection of the emperor and the Pruſſian king provided them with an aſylum more remote and leſs obtruſive. Irreſolution ſeemed to preſide in the councils of the emperor, a monarch more diſtinguiſhed for the mild virtues of peace than for the ſtrenuous exertions of war. He had acknowledged the national flag; he had declared that he regarded the king of the French as abſolutely free, while the league of Pilnitz (which, as was avowed by the court of Vienna, was not only intended to ſecure Germany from ſuch a revolution as France had experienced, but even to extinguiſh the dreaded ſource) and the protection afforded to the emigrants, were infallible proofs that the emperor could not be regarded as a friend. His ſudden death, on the 1ſt of March, 1792, excited great conſternation among the ariſtocrats, and inſpired the ſupporters of the conſtitution with joy and exultation. Another event, no leſs unexpected, happened on the death of the Swediſh monarch, on the 29th of the ſame month. Freſh ſpirits were diffuſed through the nation; and the ſuperſtitious vulgar imagined, that, in the removal of the two chief foes of France in one month, they beheld the peculiar interpoſition of heaven.

In the ſubſequent negotiations between the national aſſembly and the court of Vienna, the young Hungarian king, excited by the influence of Pruſſia, began to exhibit more enmity and ſeverer terms. At length, on the 5th of April, M. de Noailles, in his diſpatches to the French miniſter for foreign affairs, explained the propoſitions of the imperial court—that ſatisfaction ſhould be given to the German princes, proprietors of Alſace—that Avignon, which had been appropriated by France, ſhould be reſtored to the pope—and that the internal government of France ſhould be inveſted with ſufficient efficiency, that the other powers may have no apprehenſions of being troubled by France. Thoſe terms produced a declaration of war againſt Francis I. king of Hungary and Bohemia, decreed by the aſſembly on the 4th of April, and ratified by the French king.

The beginning of the operations on the part of France was ſtained with defeat, and with the unpropitious murder of Theobald Dillon, who fell a prey to the ſuſpicions and ſavage ferocity of ſome of the ſoldiers, who fled from the enemy, but attacked their general. The court of Vienna had, in the beginning of July, publiſhed a declaration, explaining the cauſe of the war, and retorting on the French nation ſome of the heavy charges contained in its declaration of war againſt the king of Hungary and Bohemia, now emperor of Germany.

On the 26th day of the ſame month, the Pruſſian monarch iſſued a conciſe expoſition of the reaſons which determined him to take up arms againſt France. He pleads his alliance with the emperor; and that, as ſovereign of a German ſtate, he was bound to interfere to prevent the violation of the rights of the German princes of Alſace and Lorraine, and the invaſion of the territories of others: and he honeſtly concludes, by avowing that it is his intention to repreſs the too great liberty of France, which might afford a dangerous example to neighbouring countries.

At the ſame time the duke of Brunſwick, general of the combined armies of Auſtria and Pruſſia, publiſhed at Coblentz a declaration to the inhabitants of France, conceived in the moſt haughty and preſumptuous terms: he declared his intention of putting a ſtop to the anarchy which prevailed in France, and of reſtoring the king to his power; and yet he afterwards ſays his deſign was not to interfere in the internal government! It is not neceſſary to dwell on the other parts of this memorial, in which France is already regarded as a conquered country, and directions are given to the magiſtrates, national guards, and inhabitants at large: but the threat, that the city of Paris ſhould be given up to military execution, in caſe the leaſt outrage ſhould be offered to the king, queen, or royal family, is as vain as it is arrogant.

We relate with pain the exceſſes of the night between the 9th and 10th of Auguſt. The alarm-bell ſounded at midnight in every quarter of Paris; the generale was beat, and the citizens flew to arms.—The palace of the Thuilleries was attacked by the multitude; and the king, queen, and royal family, were forced to take refuge in the hall of the national aſſembly. At firſt the Swiſs guards (who were obnoxious to the people, and had been ineffectually proſcribed by repeated decrees of the aſſembly, the king not being allowed to have a foreign guard) repelled the populace; but theſe being reinforced by the Marſeillois and federates from Breſt, bodies which the Jacobins ſeemed to have brought to Paris to balance the Swiſs, and by national guards, the gates of the palace were burſt open. The artillery joined the aſſailants; and the conſequences were, that the Swiſs guards were exterminated, and the palace ranſacked, after a ſlaughter of about four hundred on each ſide.

Unhappily the month of September ſeemed pregnant with the total ruin of French freedom; but the three following months reverſed the ſcene, and exhibited a ſeries of ſucceſs, on the part of France, perhaps unexampled in modern hiſtory. We cannot without inexpreſſible concern direct the attention of our readers to the priſon ſcene, which occurred on the 2d and 3d of September. The horrid maſſacre of the defenceleſs priſoners, and other ariſtocrats, which took place at that period, ſtamps an eternal diſgrace on the Pariſian populace, who, in their fury, ſpared not even that gentle ſex which all civilized nations hold in the higheſt reſpect. The number of the ſlain has doubtleſs been exaggerated, as uſual; yet ſuppoſing that, by the moſt moderate account, only two thouſand periſhed, the enormity of the deed remains the ſame. Some extenuation might be offered for the affair of the 10th of Auguſt, in which a people, who ſuppoſed themſelves betrayed to ſlavery, and all its evils, ſo recently experienced and ſhaken off, aſſumed their revenge and their cauſe into their own hands; but no defence can be offered for this unneceſſary crime. Had the combined armies beſieged Paris, it is difficult to conceive what aid they could have found from two or three thouſand ariſtocrats, and many of theſe ſecured in chains, and confined in priſon.

In order to determine on the charges brought againſt the king, a national convention had been called. They met on the 24th of September; and on the firſt day of the meeting, the abolition of royalty in France was decreed by acclamation; and the following day it was ordered that all public acts ſhould be dated the firſt year, &c. of the French republic. But hardly was this convention conſtituted, when a

violent faction appeared, headed by Marat*, Robeſpierre, and others, who have repeatedly degraded their tranſactions by their violence and fanaticiſm; and, being ſupported by the Jacobins and Pariſian populace, have proved too powerful for the convention to puniſh as it wiſhed. Repeated inſtances have proved that the convention was not free, but compelled to vote as the mob of Paris dictated, the moderation of the members being often obliged to yield to the indecent applauſes and hiſſes of the gallery rabble.

The French arms were ſo rapid in their progreſs, and ſo great were the diſtreſſes in the combined armies, ariſing from a ſcarcity of proviſions, from a long rainy ſeaſon, and from a conſiderable mortality among the Pruſſians, eſtimated, by the French accounts, at one half, that the Pruſſians retreated from the dominions of France, and their example was ſoon followed by the Auſtrians.

The invaſion of Savoy was ordered, even at the very time that Paris was in the greateſt danger. On the 21ſt of September, general Monteſquieu entered the Savoyard territories, ſeized on the frontier poſts and caſtles without reſiſtance, and two days after took Montmelian. Chamberry and all Savoy ſoon followed; but the conqueſt, not being reſiſted, was productive of no military glory. The imprudence of the national convention, in permitting Savoy to incorporate itſelf with France, has created wonder.

After frequent declarations of the French, that they would enter into no war with any view to conqueſt, their conduct in this reſpect was abſurd and impolitic. It ſubjected them to the merited reproach, that, under the pretence of liberty, they maintained the deſtructive maxims of their ancient government; and that their wiſhes to increaſe their territory, perhaps to ſubjugate Europe, remained the ſame. Admiral Truguet, commanding a ſquadron in the Mediterranean, captured Nice, Villa Franca, and the fortreſs of Montalban, belonging to the king of Sardinia.

Moſt people regarded the conqueſt of Savoy as a trifle; but when Cuſtine began his acquiſitions in Germany, every eye was turned to the rapidity and importance of his progreſs, till diverted by the wonders of Dumourier. Spires yielded to the French arms on the 30th of September, and Worms ſoon after followed; ample ſupplies of proviſions and ammunition were found in theſe cities. Cuſtine, purſuing his courſe along the left ſhore of the Rhine, next captured Mentz, and afterwards Frankfort. He was eager to proceed to Coblentz, that noted ſeat of the counter-revolutioniſts; but the Pruſſians and Auſtrians at length indicating a renewal of hoſtilities by garriſoning that town, and encamping in the adjacent country, he relinquiſhed that deſign.

The next grand object was the conqueſt of the Auſtrian Netherlands. Dumourier had promiſed to paſs his Chriſtmas at Bruſſels; and what was regarded as an idle vaunt proved very modeſt; for that city was in his hands by the 14th of November. That able general, having entered the Netherlands on the 1ſt or 2d of that month, with an army of 40,000 men, ſince much increaſed, and with a moſt formidable train of artillery, the firſt five days were occupied with repeated engagements with the Auſtrian army commanded by the duke of Saxe-Teſchen, governor of the Auſtrian Netherlands, and by general Beaulieu, which however exceeded not 20,000. At length, on the 6th of November, a deciſive battle was fought at Jemappe, which decided the fate of the Netherlands. The conteſt was very general; all the points of the enemy's flanks and lines were attacked at once; all the bodies of the French were in action, and almoſt every individual fought perſonally. The cannonade began at ſeven in the morning; Dumourier ordered the village of Carignan to be attacked, becauſe he could not attempt the heights of Jemappe till he had taken that village: at noon the French infantry formed in columns, and rapidly advanced to decide the affair by the bayonet. At two o'clock the Auſtrians retired in the utmoſt diſorder, after an obſtinate defence. Dumourier immediately advanced, and took poſſeſſion of the neighbouring town of Mons, where the French were received as brethren.

The tidings arriving at Bruſſels, the court was ſtruck with an indeſcribable panic; and inſtantly fled to Ruremonde, whence it was again to be driven by the arms of Miranda. Tournay ſurrendered to a detachment on the 8th of November. Dumourier, having refreſhed his troops at Mons, advanced to Bruſſels, where, after an indeciſive engagement between his van and the Auſtrian rear, he was received with acclamations on the 14th of that month.—Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, Malines, or Mechlin, Louvain, Oſtend, Namur; in ſhort, all the Auſtrian Netherlands, except Luxembourg, ſucceſſively followed the example of the capital; and the conqueſts were not leſs rapid than thoſe of Louis XIV.

The national convention having baniſhed many of the prieſts, they came to England, and were received with great benevolence: this was followed by their decree againſt the emigrants, by which they are declared dead in law, their effects confiſcated, and themſelves adjudged to immediate death, if they return to France. Another decree of the 19th of November, attracted the attention of every nation in Europe; it is in the following terms: "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity and aſſiſtance to all thoſe people who wiſh to procure liberty; and they charge the executive power to ſend orders to the generals to give aſſiſtance to ſuch people, and to defend citizens who have ſuffered, or are now ſuffering, in the cauſe of liberty." By this decree, and others of a ſimilar tendency, a political cruſade againſt all the powers of Europe, ſeems to be inſtituted.

Antwerp had no ſooner yielded to the French arms, than, in order to conciliate the Belgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt, ſhut up the treaty of Munſter in 1648, was projected, and ordered; notwithſtanding this treaty, ſo far as it reſpects the ſhutting up of the navigation of that river, has been confirmed to the Dutch in ſucceeding treaties, guarranteed by the courts of Verſailles and London. The Dutch regarded this meaſure as injurious to their trade; for Antwerp might prove a dangerous rival to Amſterdam. The infraction of this treaty is one of the reaſons which has induced the parliament of Great-Britain to oppoſe the unwarrantable pretentions of the French republic, and to join its forces with thoſe of the allied powers, in defence of their common rights, and thoſe of Europe in general.

On the 11th of December 1792, the memorable trial of the king commenced. The iſſue is well known. The firmneſs of this unfortunate monarch during his trial, and at the place of execution, on the 21ſt of January 1793, increaſed the commiſeration of every indifferent ſpectator, and callous indeed muſt be the perſon who does not partake of the ſympathy which was felt through all Europe upon this tranſaction;

* This furious zealot fell by the hand of female vengeance. Marie-Anne-Charlotte Corday, ſtrongly impreſſed with the calamities which he had brought upon her country, took a journey to Paris, in July 1793, on purpoſe to put a period to his exiſtence.—Meeting Marat as he was coming from the Bath, and entering into converſation with him (more certainly to identify his perſon) ſhe plunged a dagger into his breaſt; upon which he fell, and ſoon expired. Glorying in having exterminated a monſter, ſhe delivered herſelf up to the officers of juſtice, and with the utmoſt firmneſs ſubmitted to her fate, in having her head ſevered by the guillotine, in the 25th year of her age.

action; and we muſt add, that the records of mankind exhibit no inſtance of crimes deliberately committed, attended with ſo many circumſtances of wanton, unrelenting cruelty, and ſo evidently pernicious to the cauſe of the unfeeling perpetrators.

An hour after Louis had been informed of the fatal doom, two municipal officers repaired to the queen's apartment, to ſignify what was to happen. The queen advanced towards the officers, with her hands uplifted, and cried, "O ye murderers! O ye murderers! for ten minutes—then in convulſive hyſteric fits dropped down on the floor: having recovered herſelf, ſhe looked with a ſtaring, ſignificant eye at the officers, who ſtood in a diſtant corner of the room, then turning round to the dauphin, ſhe ſhed a flood of tears, embraced him, and exclaimed, "My dear ſon, I do not know what I am doing—let us never confound the innocent with the guilty.

Soon after, the queen, madame Elizabeth, the king's ſiſter, and the dauphin, were conducted to the king's dining-room, where the unfortunate monarch embraced them with great ſerenity: the officers withdrew, and a ſcene enſued of tenderneſs and grief, which none but heaven and the parties preſent witneſſed.

Two hours after, the municipal officers were called in, and the king expreſſed a deſire of ſeeing his wretched daughter, who was in a ſeparate apartment. His demand was granted, and he and his family, under a proper eſcort, went to the ſpot. She was that day fourteen years and thirty-three days old. It is ſaid that ſhe expired ſoon after the king left her, but that is not true, ſhe being ſtill living; her devoted royal father embraced her; ſhe clung cloſe to him, he bedewed her with tears—ſhe was wreſted from him, and remained inſenſible for ſome time, when ſhe exclaimed, "O my father! O my tender father!" Paternal heroiſm made the king depart from his beloved daughter. Maternal feeling retained the queen and her ſiſter-in-law with the dauphin, who ſaid to Louis, "We will ſee you by-and-by—Adieu, huſband! Adieu, brother! Adieu, father!" The king wafted a kiſs to them with his right hand, but they ſaw him no more! Arrived in his room, the monarch proſtrated himſelf, and ſaid prayers with his confeſſor Edgeworth, an Iriſh prieſt, otherwiſe called De Fermond, for an hour and upwards, after which he had his beard ſhaved, and his hair turned up in a curl from behind, without powder.

In a previous decree made by the national convention, the place for putting their inhuman ſentence into execution, was to have been the Carouſel, fronting the palace of the Thuilleries. This was changed by the miniſters, to whom all the arrangements were confided, to the Place de la Revolution, heretofore the Place de Louis XV. The guillotine, or fatal inſtrument of execution, was placed upon a ſcaffold, between the Champ Elyſee and the pedeſtal, which was formerly ornamented with the magnificent equeſtrian ſtatue of Louis XV. his grandfather.

On Monday morning, the 21ſt of Jan. the king left the Temple, the mournful proceſſion ſet out a little after eight o'clock. The royal victim ſat in the mayor's carriage, with his confeſſor by his ſide, praying very fervently, and two captains of the national light-horſe on the front ſeat. The carriage was drawn by two black horſes, preceded by the mayor, general Santerre, and other municipal officers. One ſquadron of horſe, with trumpets and kettle-drums, led the van of the melancholy convoy: three heavy pieces of ordnance, with proper implements, and cannoneers, with lighted matches, went before the vehicle, which was eſcorted on both ſides by a treble line of troopers.

The train moved on with a ſlow pace from the Temple to the Boulevards, which were planted with cannon, and beſet with national guards, drums beating, trumpets ſounding and colours flying. The trotting and neighing of horſes, the ſhrill ſound of the trumpet, and the continual beating of drums, pierced the ears of every body, and heightened the terrors of the awful ſcene.

The ſcaffold was high and conſpicuous, and the houſes ſurrounding the place of execution were full of women, who looked through the windows; the very ſlates which covered the roofs, were raiſed up for the curious and intereſted to peep through.

At twenty minutes after ten, the king arrived before the ſcaffold in the Square of the Revolution, which was covered with cannon, and crowded with cavalry. His confeſſor, Mr. Edgeworth, wanted to go up the ſteps of the ſcaffold with him, but this was rudely refuſed by colonel Santerre. Louis pulled off his ſtock, coat, and waiſtcoat, and, with his neck and breaſt bare, aſcended the ſcaffold with intrepidity and undaunted fortitude; (it was only twenty minutes after ten o'clock) he wore a clean ſhirt and ſtock, white waiſtcoat, black florentine ſilk breeches, black ſilk ſtockings, and his ſhoes were tied with black ſilk ſtrings.

Having taken leave of his confeſſor, who ſhed a thouſand tears, he beckoned with his hand to be heard; the noiſe of the warlike inſtruments ceaſed for a moment; but ſoon after a thouſand voices vociferated, with deteſtable ferocity, "No harangues!—No harangues!"—The unfortunate monarch wrung his hands, lifted them up towards heaven, and with agony in his eye and geſture, exclaimed, diſtinctly enough to be heard by thoſe perſons who were next the ſcaffold, "To thee, O God, I commend my ſoul! I forgive all my enemies—I die innocent!" His head was immediately after ſevered from his body; whereupon the people waved their hats in the air, exclaiming, "God ſave the nation!" and the body was immediately removed in a black coffin.

The ſhort length of time in which he appeared on the ſcaffold, and the interval of the fatal blow, was no more than two minutes. Inſtantly the executioner lifted up his head, and amidſt the flouriſh of trumpets, exclaimed, "Thus dies a traitor!" Some of the guards puſhed forward to the ſcaffold, and dipped their pikes and their handkerchiefs in the blood, brandiſhed their ſwords, and vociferated, "God ſave the Republic!—God ſave the Nation!"

The body was conveyed to the Thuilleries; the executioner cut off the hair imbrued in blood, which was ſold for aſſignats, in ſmall locks;—The guards, the federates, and others, again dipped their handkerchiefs in the gore, hoiſted it on ſwords, pikes, and ſtaffs, and ſold it; and the banditti mob carried it triumphantly through the ſtreets till night, intoxicated, and hallooing—"Behold the blood of a tyrant."

The body was interred ſix hours after, in the churchyard De la Madelaine, adjacent to the place of execution, in a grave twelve feet deep, and filled with quck lime and mould, between the people who were ſtifled in the throng on the 19th of April 1770, when a brilliant illumination and fire-work were exhibited there in honour of his marriage, and the Swiſs and other victims ſlain at the Thuilleries on the 10th of Auguſt.

Thus periſhed Louis XVI. king of France and Navarre, in the 39th year of his age. Thus one of the beſt of kings fell a dreadful ſacrifice to the rage of the Briſſots, the Marats, the Paines, and other diſgraceful blots in the human creation! "The condemnation and execution of the king," ſaid a great ſtateſman in the Britiſh Houſe of Commons, "is an act as diſgraceful as any that hiſtory records; and I never can view, but with the greateſt deteſtation, the injuſtice and inhumanity that has been committed towards that unhappy monarch. Not only were the rules of criminal juſtice, rules that more than any other ought to be ſtrictly obſerved, overthrown; not only was he tried and condemned without any exiſting law to which he was perſonally anſwerable, and even contrary to laws that did actually exiſt; but the degrading circumſtances

of his impriſonment, the unneceſſary and inſulting aſperity with which he had been treated, the total want of republican magnanimity in the whole tranſaction, added every aggravation to the inhumanity and injuſtice."

Soon after, general Dumourier proceeded with a large body of troops to invade Holland, exhorting the Batavians, in a violent manifeſto, to reject the tyrannic ariſtocracy of the ſtadtholder and his party, and to become a free republic. The Dutch made preparations for defending themſelves; and the Engliſh cabinet ſeconded their efforts, by an immediate embarkation of troops, to the command of which the duke of York was appointed.

The ſubjugation of Holland was the firſt project of general Dumourier: and when the eaſe with which he had effected the conqueſt of the Netherlands, and the courage and ability diſplayed by him and his army at the famous battle of Jemappe, were conſidered, there ſeemed reaſon to apprehend that he would ſoon make an impreſſion on theſe provinces; and the eaſy ſurrender of Breda and Gertruydenberg encouraged him to boaſt that he would terminate the conteſt by a ſpeedy approach to Amſterdam. Certain events, however, enſued, which effectually prevented him from the performance of this promiſe.

General Miranda, who had beſieged the city of Maeſtricht, and ſummoned the governor to ſurrender, was attacked by prince Frederic of Brunſwick, and defeated with conſiderable loſs. The Auſtrians, after this, divided themſelves into three columns, two of which marched towards Maeſtricht, and the ſiege of that place was immediately raiſed. The third purſued the advanced guard of the republic; and the abſence of ſeveral commanding officers was ſuppoſed to have greatly facilitated the ſucceſs of the Pruſſians in theſe rencounters.

On the 14th of March, the Imperialiſts advanced from Tongres towards Tirlemont, by St. Tron, and were attacked by general Dumourier ſucceſſively on the 15th and following days. The firſt attempts were attended with ſucceſs. The Auſtrian advanced poſts were obliged to retire to St. Tron, through Tirlemont, which they had already paſſed. On the 18th, a general engagement took place, at Neerwinden, the French army being covered on the left by Dormael, and on the right by Landen. The action continued with great obſtinacy on both ſides, from ſeven in the morning till five in the afternoon, when the French were obliged to fall back, and the Auſtrian cavalry coming up, put them entirely to flight. The loſs in each army was great. The French diſplayed conſiderable courage and addreſs, but were overpowered by the ſuperior numbers, and perhaps by the more regular diſcipline, of their enemies.

Dumourier was now ſuſpected of treachery, and general Miranda intimated his ſuſpicions, in a confidential letter to Petion, dated the 21ſt of March.—Four commiſſioners were immediately ſent from Paris with powers to ſuſpend and arreſt all generals and military officers whom they ſhould ſuſpect, and bring them to the bar of the convention. Theſe commiſſioners, on the 1ſt of April, proceeded to St. Amand, the head-quarters of Dumourier, and being admitted to his preſence, explained to him the object of their miſſion. After a conference of ſome hours, the general, not finding that he could perſuade them to favour his intentions, gave the ſignal for a body of ſoldiers who were in waiting, and ordered the miniſter of war, Bournonville, who was ſent to ſuperſede him, and the commiſſioners Camus, Blancal, La Marque, and Quinette, immediately to be conveyed to general Clairfait's head-quarters at Tournay, as hoſtages for the ſafety of the royal family.

Dumourier, notwithſtanding his ſplendid talents, found himſelf groſsly miſtaken with reſpect to the diſpoſition of his army; they had reſented the affront ſo imprudently offered to their general; but when he came to explain to them his plan, and propoſe the reſtoration of royalty in the perſon of the prince, they all forſook him; and he was obliged to fly with a very few attendants, making his eſcape through a dreadful diſcharge of muſketry, which the whole column poured upon him and his aſſociates.

The latter end of June, and the beginning of July, were chiefly diſtinguiſhed, in the north, by ſome petty ſkirmiſhes between the two grand armies. In the latter part of July, the Auſtrians obtained ſome ſucceſſes of more importance. The garriſon of Condé, after ſuſtaining a blockade of three months, ſurrendered on the 10th, by capitulation, to the prince of Cobourg; and Valenciennes, on the 20th of the ſame month, to the duke of York, not without ſome ſuſpicions of treachery in both caſes.

Encouraged by theſe ſucceſſes, a large detachment from the combined army, under the command of the duke of York, proceeded, without loſs of time, to attack the port and town of Dunkirk. On the 22d of Auguſt, the duke of York marched from Furnes to attack the French camp at Ghivelde, which was abandoned at his approach, and he was almoſt immediately enabled to take the ground which it was his intention to occupy during the ſiege. On the 24th, he attacked the outpoſts of the French, who, with ſome loſs, were driven into the town. In this action, the famous Auſtrian general Dalton, and ſome other officers of note, were killed. The ſucceeding day, the ſiege might be ſaid regularly to commence. A conſiderable naval armament from Great-Britain was to have co-operated in the ſiege; but, by ſome neglect, admiral Macbride was not able to ſail ſo early as was expected. In the mean time, the hoſtile army was extremely haraſſed by the gun-boats of the French; a ſucceſsful ſortie was effected by the garriſon on the 6th of September; and the French collecting in ſuperior force, the duke of York, on the 7th, after ſeveral ſevere actions, in which the allied forces ſuffered very conſiderably, was compelled to raiſe the ſiege, and leave behind him his numerous train of artillery. General Houchard was afterwards impeached by the convention, and beheaded, for not having improved his ſucceſs to the beſt advantage, as it was aſſerted that he had it in his power to capture almoſt the whole of the duke of York's army.

The diſaffection of the ſouthern provinces of France was at this time productive of ſerious dangers to the new republic. It is well known that the deputies and people of theſe provinces were among the moſt active to promote the dethroning of the king on the 10th of Auguſt, 1792. It is, therefore, ſomewhat extraordinary, that the ſame men ſhould be among the firſt to rebel againſt the authority of the convention. The formidable union which took place, under the name of *federate republicaniſm*, between the cities of Marſeilles, Lyons, and Toulon, in the courſe of the months of June and July, ſeemed to threaten almoſt the diſſolution of the exiſting authorities. A conſiderable army was, however, diſpatched againſt Lyons, and the city cloſely beſieged. The Marſeillois, in the mean time, opened their gates on the approach of the republican army, and ſubmitted; but the people of Toulon entered into a negotiation with the Engliſh admiral, lord Hood, who was then cruiſing in the Mediterranean; and he took poſſeſſion both of the town and ſhipping, in the name of Louis XVII. and under the poſitive ſtipulation that he ſhould aſſiſt in reſtoring the conſtitution of 1789.

Among the victims of popular reſentment which fell about this period, was the celebrated general Cuſtine, whoſe former ſervices, whatever might have been his ſubſequent demerits, ought to have ſecured him more lenient treatment. He was recalled to Paris, from the command of the northern army, in the beginning of July, and on the 22d, committed, by a decree of the convention, a priſoner to the Abbey. He was tried by the revolutionary tribunal,

and accuſed of having maintained an improper correſpondence with the Pruſſians, while he commanded on the Rhine, and of having neglected various opportunities of throwing reinforcements into Valenciennes. It is needleſs to ſay that he was found guilty: to be ſuſpected was then to be condemned; and the populace of Paris, now accuſtomed to ſuch ſcenes, beheld the ſacrifice of their former defender, with calm indifference, or with blind exultation.

The trial and condemnation of the queen immediately followed that of general Cuſtine. She had been removed, on the night of the 1ſt of Auguſt, from the Temple to a ſmall and miſerable apartment in the priſon of the Conciergèrie, where ſhe remained till ſhe was brought before the revolutionary tribunal, on the 15th of October. The act of accuſation conſiſted of ſeveral charges, many of which were frivolous and incredible; and few of them appeared to be ſufficiently ſubſtantiated by evidence; but had the conduct of Marie Antoinette been more unexceptionable than there is reaſon to believe it was, it is not very probable but that ſhe would have eſcaped. After an hour's conſultation, therefore, the jury brought in their verdict—"Guilty of all the charges."

The queen heard the ſentence read with dignity and reſignation; ſhe did not ſhew the ſmalleſt alteration in her countenance, and left the hall without ſaying a ſingle word to the judges or to the people. It was then half paſt four o'clock in the morning, October 16. She was conducted to the condemned hole in the priſon of the Conciergerie.

At five o'clock the generale was beat. At ſeven, the whole armed force was on foot; cannon were planted upon the ſquares, and at the extremities of the bridges, from the palace to the ſquare de la Revolution. At ten, numerous patroles paſſed through the ſtreets. At half paſt eleven in the morning, Marie Antoinette was brought out of the priſon, dreſſed in a white deſhabille. Like other malefactors, ſhe was carried in a common cart to the place of execution. Her hair from behind was entirely cut off, and her hands were tied behind her back. Beſide her deſhabille, ſhe wore a very ſmall white cap. Her back was turned to the horſe's tail. During her trial, ſhe wore a dreſs of a black and white mixture. On her right was ſeated upon the cart the executioner; upon the left, a conſtitutional prieſt belonging to the Metropolitan church of Notre Dame, dreſſed in a grey coat, and wearing a bob-wig. The cart was eſcorted by numerous detachments of horſe and foot. Henriot, Ronſin, and Boulanger, generals of the revolutionary army, preceded by the reſt of their ſtaff-officers, rode before the cart.

An immenſe number of people crowded the ſtreets, and cried, "Long live the republic! The queen ſeldom caſt her eyes upon the populace, and beheld with indifference the great armed force of 30,000 men, which lined the ſtreets in double ranks. The ſufferings which ſhe ſuſtained during her captivity had much altered her appearance, and the hair on her forehead appeared as white as ſnow. She kept ſpeaking to the prieſt ſeated by her ſide. Her ſpirits were neither elevated nor depreſſed: ſhe ſeemed quite inſenſible to the ſhouts of "Vive la Republique!" When ſhe paſſed through the ſtreet called Rue St. Honorè, ſhe ſometimes attentively looked at the inſcriptions of the words *liberty* and *equality* affixed to the outſide of the houſes. She aſcended the ſcaffold with ſeeming haſte and impatience; and then turned her eyes with great emotion toward the garden of the Thuilleries, the former abode of her greatneſs.

At half paſt twelve, the guillotine ſevered her head from her body. The executioner lifted and ſhewed the head from the four different corners of the ſcaffold.—The ſpectators inſtantly cried, "Long live the Republic!" The corpſe was immediately after buried in a grave filled with quick-lime, in the church-yard de la Madelaine, where her unfortunate conſort was in like manner interred.

Soon after the convention entered upon the trial of Briſſot, and his ſuppoſed accomplices. Briſſot was charged with having ſaid and written, at the commencement of the revolution, that Fayette's retiring from the public ſervice was a national misfortune; that he diſtinguiſhed himſelf three times in the Jacobin club by ſpeeches, of which one provoked the ruin of the colonies, another the maſſacre of the patriots in the Champ de Mars, and the third the war againſt Auſtria.

Upon theſe and other vague accuſations, Briſſot, and twenty-one more of the convention, were brought to trial, before the revolutionary tribunal, on the 24th of October; a few days afterwards the jury declared all the accuſed members to be accomplices in a conſpiracy which had exiſted againſt the unity and indiviſibility of the French republic; and the tribunal immediately condemned them all to the puniſhment of death. Valazé, after he had heard his ſentence, ſtabbed himſelf; and the remaining twenty-one were executed on the 30th of October.

The wretched and intriguing Egalité (late duke of Orleans) was ſoon after brought to the block. He was accuſed of having aſpired to the ſovereignty from the commencement of the revolution; but how well founded the charge was, it is not eaſy to determine. He was conveyed in a cart, on the evening of the 6th of November, to the place of execution, and ſuffered with great firmneſs, amidſt the inſults and reproaches of the populace.

In the ſouth of France, neither the exertions of the allies, nor the ſurrender of the Touloneſe, were ſufficient to produce the expected conſequence of eſtabliſhing a monarchical government. On the 30th of November, the garriſon of Toulon made a vigorous ſortie, in order to deſtroy ſome batteries, which the French were erecting on certain heights within cannon-ſhot of the city. The detachment ſent for this purpoſe accompliſhed it, and the French troops were ſurpriſed, and fled. The allies, too much elated with their ſucceſs, purſued the fugitives till they unexpectedly encountered a conſiderable force, which had been ſent to cover their retreat. At this moment, general O'Hara, commander in chief at Toulon, came up, and, while he was exerting himſelf to bring off his troops with regularity, received a wound in his arm, and was made priſoner by the republicans. —Near a thouſand of the Britiſh and allied forces were killed, wounded, or taken priſoners, on this occaſion.

Soon after the capture of the Britiſh general O'Hara, the city of Toulon was evacuated by the allies. On the morning of 19th of December, the attack began before all the republican forces had time to come up. It was chiefly directed againſt an Engliſh redoubt (Fort Mulgrave) defended by more than three thouſand men, twenty pieces of cannon, and ſeveral mortars. This formidable poſt was attacked about five o'clock in the morning, and at ſix the republican flag was flying upon it.

The town was then bombarded from noon till ten o'clock the ſame evening, when the allies and part of the inhabitants, having firſt ſet fire to the town and ſhipping, precipitated their flight. Two chaloups, filled with the fugitives, were ſunk by the batteries. The precipitation with which the evacuation was effected, cauſed a great part of the ſhips and property to fall into the hands of the French, and was attended with the moſt melancholy conſequences to the wretched inhabitants, who, as ſoon as they obſerved the preparations for flight, crowded to the ſhores, and demanded the protection which had been promiſed them on the faith of the Britiſh crown. A ſcene of confuſion, riot, and plunder enſued, and though great efforts were made to convey as many as poſſible of the people into the ſhips, thouſands were left to all

the horrors of falling into the hands of their enraged countrymen. Many of them plunged into the ſea, and made a vain attempt to ſwim on board the ſhips; others were ſeen to ſhoot themſelves on the beach, that they might not endure the greater tortures they might expect from the republicans. During all this, the flames were ſpreading in every direction, and the ſhips that had been ſet on fire, were threatening every inſtant to explode, and blow all around them into the air. This is but a faint deſcription of the ſcene on ſhore, and it was ſcarcely leſs dreadful on board the ſhips. Loaded with the heterogeneous mixture of nations, with aged men and infants, as well as women; with the ſick from all the hoſpitals, and with the mangled ſoldiers from the poſt juſt deſerted, their wounds ſtill undreſt; nothing could equal the horrors of the fight, except the ſtill more appalling cries of diſtraction and agony, that filled the ear, for huſbands, fathers, and children, left on ſhore.

In the latter end of March, the party called the Hebertiſts, conſiſting of Hebert, Momoro, Vincent, and ſome others, were arreſted, brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal, and twenty of them executed. A few days after, the celebrated Danton, Fabre d'Eglantine, Bazire, Chabot, and others, were arreſted as conſpirators againſt the republic, tried in a very ſummary way, and ſentenced to death; which ſentence was executed on the 5th of April, 1794.

In conſequence of theſe executions, the government of France, however nominally republican, became almoſt entirely veſted in one man, the uſurper Robeſpierre; a name which will probably be tranſmitted with infamy to late poſterity. Under his ſanguinary adminiſtration, the priſons of Paris, at one time, contained between ſeven and eight thouſand perſons. Of the number of thoſe tried and executed, we have no preciſe account: but they in general appeared rather to be ſacrified in multitudes to a jealous and cowardly cruelty, than condemned with even the ſhadow of juſtice. In one of theſe barbarous ſlaughers, the princeſs Elizabeth, the ſiſter of the late unfortunate monarch, having been condemned on the moſt frivolous pretexts, was executed the laſt of twenty-ſix perſons, who were carried to the ſcaffold on the ſame day.

But, after the death of Danton, the fall of this tyrannical demagogue rapidly approached. A ſtrong party was ſecretly formed againſt him in the convention, headed by Tallien, Legendre, and ſome others. Finding themſelves ſufficiently ſtrong, Tallien moved the arreſt of Robeſpierre and his creatures; which decree was paſſed with applauſes from every quarter. The preſident then ordered one of the uſhers of the hall to take Robeſpierre into cuſtody; but ſuch was the awe which the preſence of this man was accuſtomed to inſpire, that the officer heſitated to perform his duty, till Robeſpierre himſelf made a ſign of obedience; and followed the uſher out of the hall. The priſoners were conducted by a few peace-officers to the priſon of the Luxembourg; but the adminiſtrator of the police on duty there, who was one of their creatures, refuſed to receive them; and they were then conducted, rather in triumph, than as priſoners, to the Hotel de Ville.

In the mean time, Henriot, another leader of the party, had alſo been arreſted, but found means to eſcape and raiſe his partiſans, who took poſt with him and Robeſpierre, in the Hotel de Ville, where they pretended to form themſelves into a new convention, and declared the other repreſentatives traitors to their country. The people, however, did not eſpouſe their cauſe; the national guard, who had at firſt obeyed their orders with reluctance, forſook them; and the deputies who had been diſpatched for that purpoſe, attacked them in the Hotel de Ville. Bourdon de l'Oiſe, after having read the proclamation of the convention, ruſhed into the hall of the commune, with a ſabre and piſtols; the inſurgents were completed deſerted, and now endeavoured to turn their arms againſt themſelves. Robeſpierre the elder diſcharged a piſtol in his mouth, which, however, failed of its effect, and only wounded him in the jaw, while he received another wound from a gendarme in the ſide. The younger Robeſpierre threw himſelf out of a window, and broke a leg and an arm; Le Bas ſhot himſelf upon the ſpot; Couthon ſtabbed himſelf twice with a knife; and Henriot was thrown out of a window.

The priſoners were immediately conveyed before the revolutionary tribunal, and their perſons being identified, they were condemned to ſuffer death, in the Place de la Révolution, where the two Robeſpierres and nineteen others were executed at ſeven in the evening of the 28th of July, 1794.

In the campaign of this year, the arms of the new republic were ſucceſsful on every ſide againſt the allies. In Flanders, general Jourdan gained the battle of Fleurus; and Charleroi, Ypres, Bruges, and Courtray, ſurrendered to the French; Oſtend was evacuated; general Clairfait defeated near Mons, which immediately ſurrendered; and the prince of Cobourg compelled to abandon the whole of the Netherlands, while the victors, without oppoſition, entered Bruſſels and Antwerp. Landrecy, Queſnoi, Valenciennes, and Condé, were ſucceſſively retaken; and the French armies, purſuing their ſucceſs, took Aix-la-Chapelle, defeated Clairfait near Juliers, and made themſelves maſters of Cologn and Bonn. Maeſtricht and Nimeguen were likewiſe taken.

The United Provinces began now to be ſeriouſly alarmed. The ſtates of Frieſland were the firſt to feel their danger; and, in the month of October, theſe ſtates determined to acknowledge the French republic, to break their alliance with England, and to enter into a treaty of peace and alliance with France. In ſome other provinces, reſolutions hoſtile to the ſtadtholder and his government were likewiſe paſſed; and ſuch appeared to be the temper of the people, even at Amſterdam, that, on the 17th of October, the government of Holland publiſhed a proclamation, prohibiting the preſenting of any petition or memorial, upon public or political ſubjects, and all popular meetings or aſſemblies of the people, upon any occaſion.

On the 7th of December, the French made a feeble attempt to croſs the Waal, but were repulſed with loſs; but on the 15th, the froſt ſet in with unuſual rigour, and opened a new road to the French armies. In the courſe of a week, the Maes and the Waal were both frozen over; and on the 27th, a ſtrong column of French croſſed the Maes, near the village of Driel. They attacked the allied army for an extent of above twelve leagues, and, according to the report of general Pichegru, "were, as uſual, victorious in every quarter." The army of the allies retreated before them, and in its retreat, endured incredible hardſhips from the ſeverity of the weather and the want of neceſſaries. On the 10th of January, 1795, general Pichegru, having completed his arrangements, made his grand movement. The French croſſed the Waal at different points, with a force, according to ſome accounts, of 70,000 men. A general attack was made upon Walmoden's poſition, between Nimeguen and Arnheim. The allies were defeated in every quarter; and, utterly unprepared either for reſiſtance or for flight, ſuffered equally from the elements and the enemy.

It was in vain that the ſtadtholder iſſued manifeſtoes, proclamations, and exhortations to the Dutch peaſantry, conjuring them to riſe in a maſs for the defence of the country. The French continued to advance, and the allies to fly before them, till Utrecht ſurrendered to them on the 16th of January, Rotterdam on the 18th, and Dort on the ſucceeding day. The utmoſt conſternation now prevailed among the partiſans of the ſtadtholder. The princeſs of Orange, with

with the younger and female part of the family, and with all the plate, jewels, and moveables that could be packed up, eſcaped on the 15th. The ſtadtholder and the hereditary prince did not leave Holland till the 19th. His ſerene highneſs embarked at Schevelling, in an open boat, with only three men to navigate her, and arrived ſafe at Harwich. In England, the palace of Hampton-court was aſſigned him for his reſidence, where he ſtill remains.

On the 20th of January, general Pichegru entered Amſterdam in triumph, at the head of 5,000 men, and was received by the inhabitants with the loudeſt acclamations. The whole of the United Provinces either ſubmitted to or was reduced by the French, in a few weeks. An aſſembly of the proviſional repreſentatives of the people met on the 27th of January, and the whole government was changed, and modelled nearly after the French plan.

In the mean time, the king of Pruſſia, finding he could derive no advantage from the war, began to relax in his efforts. The Pruſſian and Auſtrian forces, as well as their leaders, were on bad terms with each other; but it was not ſuſpected that any defection was about to take place, on the part of the Pruſſians, till they began to retreat towards the Rhine, which they ſoon after paſſed. A negotiation between Pruſſia and France followed, which ended in a treaty of peace, ſigned at Baſle, on the 5th of April, 1795, by which his Pruſſian majeſty entirely abandoned the coalition.

The Pruſſian negotiation was followed by the treaty made between the French republic and Spain, in which country, the arms of France had made a progreſs equally ſucceſsful and rapid. Fontarabia, which guards the entrance of Spain, and which had coſt the duke of Berwick 8,000 men, had been taken, almoſt immediately, by a detachment from the French army; Roſas was likewiſe taken; and the troops of the republic had made themſelves maſters of the greater part of the rich provinces of Biſcay and Catalonia, and were, in fact, in full march for the capital of the kingdom. Orders were therefore diſpatched to M. D'Yriarte, at Baſle, immediately to conlude a treaty; which was accordingly ſigned by the Spaniſh miniſter and M. Barthelemi, at Baſle, on the 22d of July.

About the middle of this year, died the infant ſon of the unfortunate Lewis XVI. An unjuſt and cloſe impriſonment, if it did not produce, at leaſt, it is probable, haſtened his fate. He had always been an unhealthy child, and ſubject to a ſcrofulous complaint, a diſorder in which confinement and inactivity are frequently fatal. For ſome time previous to his deceaſe, he had been afflicted with a ſwelling in his knee, and another in his wriſt. His appetite failed, and he was at length attacked with a fever. It does not appear that medical aid was denied him, or neglected. The diſeaſe, however, continued to increaſe; and on the morning of the 9th of June, he expired in the priſon of the Temple, where he had been confined from the fatal autumn of 1792.

Moved perhaps by this event, or influenced by the general ſympathy of the people of France, the committee of public ſafety, in the beginning of July, propoſed the exchange of the princeſs, ſiſter of the dauphin, who was likewiſe a priſoner in the Temple, for the deputies delivered up to Auſtria by the treachery of Dumouriez, and the two ambaſſadors, Semonville and Maret, who had been ſeized, contrary to the law of nations, on a neutral territory, by an Auſtrian corps. The emperor, after ſome heſitation, acceded to the propoſal; and before the concluſion of the year, the princeſs was delivered to the Auſtrian envoy, at Baſle in Switzerland, and the deputies were reſtored to their country.

In the courſe of this year, an expedition was planned by the Engliſh miniſtry, to invade the coaſt of France, in that part where the royaliſts, known by the name of Chouans, were in arms againſt the republicans. The force employed conſiſted chiefly of emigrants, under the command of M. Puiſaye, M. D'Hervilly, and the count de Sombreuil. They landed in the bay of Quiberon, and took the fort of the ſame name; but ſoon after experienced a ſad reverſe; the fort being ſurpriſed by the republican troops, under the command of general Hoche, who killed or made priſoners the greater part of the emigrants, chouans, and Engliſh, in the fort, amounting to nearly 10,000 men. The count de Sombreuil, the biſhop of Dol, with his clergy, who accompanied him, and moſt of the emigant officers, who were made priſoners, were tried by a military tribunal, and put to death. Before the month of April, in the enſuing year (1796,) the force of the inſurgents in this part of France was entirely broken, and their chiefs, Charette and Stoflet, taken priſoners, and put to death.

In Germany, the French army had croſſed the Rhine, near Manheim, and blocaded Mentz, to which they had already laid ſiege for ſeveral months. In this attempt, however, they were unſucceſsful; they ſuffered a defeat from the Auſtrians, and were compelled to re-paſs the river. A ſuſpenſion of arms, for three months, was ſoon after agreed to by the generals of the contending armies, which was ratified by the reſpective powers.

In the ſucceeding year (1796,) the campaign opened in the ſouth, on the 9th of April, when the rapid and ſignal victories of the republican troops, under the command of the then obſcure and little known, but now juſtly celebrated Buonaparte, ended in little more than a month, the war with Sardinia. The battles of Milleſſimo, Dego, Mondovi, Monte Lerino, and Monte Notte, compelled his Sardinian majeſty to accept ſuch terms as the conquerors thought proper to offer; and a treaty of peace, by which he ceded Savoy and Nice to France, was ſigned on the 17th of May.

Buonaparte purſued his ſucceſs, and again defeating Beaulieu, the Auſtrian general at the battle of the bridge of Lodi, forced the ſhattered remains of the Auſtrian army to retire towards Mantua, purſued by one part of the republican forces, while the remainder entered Milan, on the 18th of May, without further reſiſtance, and the French armies gained poſſeſſion of the whole of Lombardy.

The armiſtice which had been concluded on the Rhine, was afterwards prolonged, but at length declared to be at an end on the 31ſt of May; when the army of the Sambre and Meuſe, under general Jourdan, gaining conſiderable advantages over the Auſtrians, advanced into the heart of the empire; while another army, under general Moreau, paſſed the Rhine at Straſbourg, took the fort of Kehl, a poſt of great importance, on the oppoſite bank, and penetrating through Bavaria, nearly to Ratiſbon, endeavoured to form a junction with the army of Jourdan. This attempt, however, did not ſucceed; both armies experienced a reverſe of fortune, and were obliged to retreat till they recroſſed the Rhine. The ſituation of general Moreau was highly critical, and his retreat is acknowledged on all ſides, to have been conducted with great military ſkill. The archduke Charles, who commanded the Auſtrian army, followed Moreau in his retreat, and laid ſiege to the fort of Kehl, which he re-took, after a moſt obſtinate reſiſtance on the part of the French.

To reſtore the affairs of Italy, the emperor aſſembled a new army, compoſed of the flower of the German troops ſerving on the Rhine, and gave the command of it to general Wurmſer, one of the oldeſt and ableſt of the imperial generals. This force, on its firſt arrival, was ſucceſsful. The French were repulſed, defeated, and compelled to raiſe the ſiege of Mantua. Buonaparte, however, ſoon returned to the charge; and, after a ſeries of hotly-conteſted actions, the army of Wurmſer was ſo reduced and haraſſed, that

that he was obliged to ſhut himſelf up in Mantua, where he was cloſely beſieged by the victors; who at the ſame time, made incurſions into the Tyrol, and, by the battle of Roveredo, and the poſſeſſion of Trent, became maſters of the paſſes that led to Vienna. The Auſtrians, at the ſame time, made a great effort, under general Alvinzy, to reſcue the gallant Wurmſer and his beſieged army; but the battle of Arcole completely defeated their deſign; and Mantua was ſoon after obliged to ſurrender.

The victories of Buonaparte compelled the pope, the king of Naples, and the inferior princes of Italy, to conclude ſuch treaties as the French thought proper to dictate. The victors likewiſe founded a new republic in Italy, at firſt called the Ciſpadane, but now the Ciſalpine republic, to which they have annexed ſuch parts of the papal territory as they have judged convenient.

After the taking of Mantua, the victorious Buonaparte penetrated into the Tyrol, and directed his courſe towards the imperial capital. The archduke Charles was oppoſed to him, but was unable to check his progreſs. The republican armies had at length advanced ſo near to Vienna, that the utmoſt alarm and confuſion prevailed in that city. The bank ſuſpended its payments, and the emperor was preparing to forſake his capital, and remove to Olmutz. In this critical ſituation of his affairs, his imperial majeſty opened a negotiation with Buonaparte; a ſhort armiſtice was agreed to, and the preliminaries of peace between the emperor and king of Hungary, and the French republic, were ſigned at Leoben, in the month of April, 1797.

In the mean time, a tumult having taken place at Venice, in which a number of the French ſoldiers were murdered in the hoſpitals of that city, the French armies, on their return, aboliſhed the ancient government of Venice, planted the tree of liberty in St. Mark's Place, eſtabliſhed a municipality, and propoſed to annex the city and territory to the new Ciſalpine republic. But the concluſion of the definitive treaty of peace with the emperor being protracted on account of the French refuſing to reſtore Mantua, as it is alleged it was ſtipulated they ſhould, in the preliminaries, they at length agreed to cede to him the city and a part of the territory of Venice in compenſation for Mantua.

The definitive treaty of peace between France and the emperor was ſigned at Campo Formio, on the 17th of October, 1797. By this treaty the emperor was to cede to France the whole of the Netherlands, and all his former territory in Italy. He was to receive in return the city of Venice, Iſtria, and Dalmatia, and the Venetian iſlands in the Adriatic: the French were to poſſeſs the other Venetian iſlands.

A congreſs was aſſembled at Ratſtadt, for the purpoſe of negociation; propoſals and demands were alternately made and alternately rejected by the parties, but with all due deference to the reſpective powers from whom the deputies derived their authority, till the conduct of the republican general Bernadotte, as well as thoſe attached to his ſuite, had been marked by an uncommon degree of inſolence ever ſince they arrived at Vienna. Their general language reſpecting the emperor and the Auſtrian government was indecent and undiſguiſed. Soon after Bernadott's arrival at Vienna, he imitated the conduct of Buonaparte at Rome, by demanding that the quarter of the city wherein he reſided ſhould be free, and that all Frenchmen living in Vienna ſhould be amenable to him only for their conduct. But the Auſtrian government, leſs acquieſcing than the weak and pliant government of the pope, repeatedly refuſed this application; upon which Bernadotte quitted Vienna, denouncing vengeance againſt the Auſtrians.

On the 19th of May, 1798, general Buonaparte embarked at Toulon, on board admiral Bruey's ſhip l'Orient (formerly the Sans Culottes) a three decker. The fleet ſet ſail with a favourable wind. The tranſports, with the infantry and cavalry, got under weigh at day-break with eight frigates. The fleet conſiſted of fifteen ſhips of the line and eighteen frigates. The tranſports, to the number of four hundred, were off Herries.

An immenſe number of infantry, with artillery, vaſt quantities of mortars, howitzers, furnaces, bombs, grape and canniſter ſhot, and other ammunition, were put on board. Men of letters, aſtronomers, geometricians, and artiſts of every ſort, alſo embarked. The convoy from Genoa conſiſted of thirty-eight ſail with 10,000 men on board. Kleber, Berthier, and other generals had alſo embarked.

The general in chief, Buonaparte, harangued the officers and ſoldiery, previous to their embarkation, in a very ſpirited manner. He informed them, that he was going to lead them into a country, where by their future exploits they would ſurpaſs even thoſe which then aſtoniſhed the world, and that would render to their country the ſervices ſhe had a right to expect from an army of invincibles, as he termed them. He promiſed to each ſoldier, that upon his return from this expedition, he ſhould have given him ſufficient to purchaſe ſix acres of land, and concluded with reminding them that they were going to brave freſh dangers, and would partake them with their brethren the ſailors.

The fleet arrived at Malta on the 9th of June, when a requeſt was made by the French general for water, which was refuſed by the grand maſter, who declared ironically, that he could not admit but two ſhips into the port. On the 10th the French were on ſhore early in the morning, and Malta was inveſted, and the town cannonaded on all ſides. The beſieged made a ſally, in which general Marmont, at the head of the 19th brigade, took the ſtandard of the order. On the 11th the knight ſurrendered the town and port, and renounced their property in the iſland to the French republic.

Buonaparte diſembarked at Alexandria, about the 8th of July, from fifteen to twenty thouſand men. His fleet, ſhips of war and tranſports, were ſtated to be near three hundred ſail.

The Engliſh after receiving intelligence of the conqueſt of Malta, and the departure of the French fleet from that iſland, diſpatched a ſquadron in queſt of them under the command of Sir Horatio Nelſon, who after ſome time fell in with them, when an action commenced, in which the French loſt ſeven ſhips of 74 guns, which was taken by the Engliſh, one of 80, and one of 74 were burnt; beſides a frigate of 36 guns, and another of the ſame force that was ſunk. The French on the onſet fought with great galantry: their admiral and commander in chief, Bruyes, was killed by a cannon ball; many officers of rank fell, and the general ſlaughter muſt have been immenſe, from the ſhattered ſtate of all the ſhips that were engaged.

In conſequence of this engagement, the army of Egypt was deprived of receiving the leaſt ſuccour from France; which, with the change of climate, and the deſerts they had to march through, rendered the army in a very perilous condition: however, after various ſucceſſes, Buonaparte at length privately returned to France, where he effected a Revolution, and was appointed the firſt Conſul of the Republic.

AN
ACCURATE MAP
OF
ASIA.

A NEW

HISTORICAL AND COMMERCIAL

SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY.

ASIA.

INTRODUCTION.

THOUGH this quarter claims a ſuperiority over the reſt; it muſt nevertheleſs be owned, that a conſiderable part of Aſia, particularly that called Turkey, has loſt much of its ancient ſplendor and fertility, and from the moſt populous and beſt cultivated ſpot in the whole territory, is now become a wild and uncultivated deſert. The other parts, however, are ſtill in a flouriſhing condition, which is rather to be attributed to the richneſs of the ſoil, than to the induſtry of the inhabitants, who are remarkable for their indolence, luxury, and effeminacy. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in ſome meaſure heightened by cuſtom and education; and the ſymptoms of it are more or leſs viſible, as the ſeveral nations are ſeated nearer or further from the north. Hence the people of Tartary, and the Aſiatic parts of Ruſſia, are as brave, hardy, ſtrong, and vigorous, as thoſe who inhabit the ſame latitudes in Europe. What is wanting in the robuſt frame of their bodies among the Chineſe, Mogul Indians, and all the inhabitants of the more ſouthern regions, is in a great meaſure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and the ingenuity they poſſeſs in various kinds of workmanſhip, which our moſt ſkilful mechanics have long endeavoured to imitate, but without ſucceſs.

Aſia claims the firſt planting of cities, inſtitution of laws and government, civilization of manners, origin of arts and ſciences, and cultivation of human literature in general. To theſe diſtinguiſhed bleſſings of a ſpiritual or mental kind, may be added the bounties of Providence, which are here diſpenſed in vaſt variety, as well as ſuperabundance. In fine, if we advert to the ſerenity of its air, the fertility of its ſoil, the deliciouſneſs of its fruits, the ſalubrity of its drugs, the fragrance and balſamic qualities of its plants, gums, and ſpices; the quantity, beauty, and value of its gems, the fineneſs of its ſilks and cottons, and many other natural endowments, we cannot but admit of its decided ſuperiority, nor can we wonder at its ancient ſplendor, power, and opulence.

Aſia is ſituated between 25 and 180 deg. of eaſt long. and between the equator and 80 deg. of north lat. It is about 4740 Engliſh miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the weſt, to the eaſtern ſhore of Tartary, and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the moſt ſouthern part of Malacca, to the moſt northern cape of Nova-Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the weſt, it is ſeparated from Africa by the Red Sea; and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the Sea of Marmora, the Boſphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean; on the eaſt, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, which ſeparates it from America; and on the ſouth, by the Indian Ocean; ſo that it is almoſt ſurrounded by the ſea.

In ancient times, great part of this vaſt country was ſucceſſively governed by the Aſſyrians, Medes, Perſians, and Greeks; but the immenſe regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or to any of the conquerors of the ancient world. Secluded by an almoſt impenetrable range of mountains and deſerts, they were free from the ſwords of European warriors, and enjoyed their delicious climates unenvied and unmoleſted. Upon the decline of the above-mentioned empires, great part of Aſia ſubmitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, or, as they are uſually called, Saracens, founded in Aſia, Africa, and Europe, a more extenſive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Romans, when in its height of power. The Saracen greatneſs ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, on every ſide victorious, ſoon after poſſeſſed themſelves of the middle regions of Aſia, which they ſtill enjoy. Beſides the countries under the dominion of the Turks and Ruſſians, Aſia contains at preſent three large empires: the Chineſe, the Mogul, and the Perſian, upon which the leſſer kingdoms and ſovereignties generally depend.

The prevailing form of government in this diviſion of the globe, is abſolute monarchy; and here the people are the moſt abject ſlaves. If any of them can be ſaid to enjoy ſome ſhare of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. The latter alone poſſeſs liberty, on account of the ſterility of their ſoil; independent themſelves of revolution and change, they ſee, with unconcern, empires falling and riſing around them. They remain unconquered by arms, by luxury, by corruption; their language is permament; they adhere to their cuſtoms and manners, and retain their dreſs. Their whole property conſiſts of flocks and herds, tents and arms. They annually make a ſmall and voluntary preſent to the chief of their race. They revolt from oppreſſion, and are free from neceſſity, which they miſtake for choice. When men are obliged to wander for ſubſiſtence, deſpotiſm knows not where to find its ſlaves.

The Tartar, though a wanderer like the Arab, was never equally free. A violent ariſtocracy always pre-

vailed in the country of the former, except in a few ſhort periods, where the fortune of one eſtabliſhed a tranſient deſpotiſm over the whole. There man is armed againſt man, chief againſt chief, and tribe againſt tribe. War is no longer a particular profeſſion, but the conſtant occupation of all. Men are more afraid of men, in the ſolitudes of Tartary, than of beaſts of prey. The traveller moves with great circumſpection, and fears an enemy in every blaſt.—When he perceives a track in the ſand, he croſſes it, and begins to draw his ſword. The aſſaſſin is dignified with the name of conqueror, and robbery acquires the more honourable name of conqueſt.

Among the inhabitants of the mountains which ſeparate Perſia from India, the nature and face of the country have formed a different ſpecies of ſociety.—Every valley contains a community ſubject to a prince, whoſe deſpotiſm is tempered by an idea eſtabliſhed among his people, that he is the chief of their blood, as well as their ſovereign. They obey him without reluctance, as they derive credit to their family from his greatneſs. They attend him in his wars, with the attachment which children have for a parent; and his government, though ſevere, partakes more of the rigid diſcipline of the general, than of the caprice of an arbitrary ſovereign.

With regard to the great empires of Turkey, Perſia, Hindoſtan, and China, they are deſpotic in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the word; and many of the Aſiatic nations, when the Dutch firſt came among them, could not conceive how there ſhould exiſt any other form of government than that of a deſpotic monarchy.

Turkey, Arabia, Perſia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profeſs Mahometaniſm. The Perſian and Indian Mahometans are of the ſect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their law-giver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Aſiatic iſlands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Chriſtianity, though planted here with amazing rapidity by the apoſtles and primitive fathers, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe by the conqueſts of the Saracens, and afterwards by the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and ſufferings of popiſh miſſionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the moſt diſtant regions, and among the groſſeſt idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of ſucceſs, owing in a great meaſure to their own avarice, and the rapacity and profligate diſpoſition of the Europeans, who reſort thither chiefly in ſearch of wealth and dominion. Jews are to be found every where in Aſia.

This fine and extenſive country being inhabited by a great variety of people, it is no wonder that the languages are alſo different. It would be a taſk at once both difficult and uſeleſs to enumerate them all: it will be ſufficient to obſerve, that the principal ſpoken in Aſia, are the modern Greek, the Turkiſh, the Ruſſian, the Tartarian, the Perſian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chineſe, and the Japaneſe. On the coaſts of India and China, moſt of the European languages are ſpoken.

A GENERAL TABLE OF THE CONTINENT OF ASIA.

Aſia is conſidered under Six Grand Diviſions, viz.	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Principal Cities.	Diſtance and Bearings from London.	
	China	1440	1260	Pekin	4320	S. E.
	Mogul Empire	2042	1400	Delhi	3720	S. E.
	India	2000	1000	Siam	5040	S. E.
	Perſia	1300	1100	Iſpahan	2460	S. E.
Turkey in Aſia.	Arabia	1300	1200	Mecca	2640	S. E.
	Syria	400	200	Aleppo	1860	S. E.
	Holy Land	200	180	Jeruſalem	1920	S. E.
	Natolia	600	320	Smyrna	1440	S. E.
	Meſopotamia	600	300	Bagdat	2160	S. E.
	Turcomania	300	200	Erzerum	1860	S. E.
	Georgia	210	140	Teflis	1920	E.
Tartary.	Ruſſian	Limits impoſſible to aſcertain, as they are frequently changing by continual appeals to the ſword.		Tobolſki	2160	N. E.
	Chineſe			Chynian	4480	N. E.
	Mogulean			Tibet	3780	E.
	Independent			Samarcand	2800	E.

CHAP. I.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

Turkey in general. Its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Mountains, Rivers, Animals, &c.

THE eaſtern provinces of Turkey are, 1. Eyraca Arabic, or Chaldea, whoſe chief towns are Baſſora and Bagdad. 2. Diarbec, or Meſopotamia; chief towns, Diarbec, Orfa, and Mouſul. 3. Curdiſtan, or Aſſyria; chief towns, Nineveh and Betlis. 4. Turcomania, or Armenia; chief towns, Erzerum and Van. 5. Georgia, including Mingrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circaſſia; chief towns, Teflis, Amarchia, and Gonie.

Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia, on the weſt, contains, 1. Natolia Proper, whoſe chief towns are Burſa, Nice, Smyrna, and Epheſus. 2. Amaſia; chief towns, Amaſia, Trapeſond, and Tocat. 3. Aladulia; chief towns, Ajazzo and Marat. 4. Caramania; chief towns, Satalia and Teraſſo.

Eaſt of the Levant, are Syria, with Paleſtine, or the Holy Land; the chief towns in which are Aleppo, Antioch, Damaſcus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jeruſalem.

The mountains, which are many, have been the moſt celebrated, in ſacred and profane hiſtory, of any in the univerſe. The principal, which are ſituated in Leſſer Aſia, are Olympus, Ida, Tauris, Anti-Tauris, and the Carmanian Mountains. Beſides theſe, are Mount Caucaſus, or the Daghiſtan Mountains; Ararat, where the ark reſted, and the other Armenian Mountains; Curdiſtan and Paleſtine, Hermon and Lebanon.

Aſia is perhaps the beſt ſituated for navigation of any country in the univerſe; but the natives do not know how to make uſe of the uncommon natural advantages with which Providence has bleſſed them. The ſeas which border on it are the Euxine, or Black Sea; the Boſphorus, or Sea of Conſtantinople; the Propontis, or Sea of Marmora; the Helleſpont, and Ægean Sea, or Archipelago, which divide Aſia from Europe; the Levant, or White Sea, and the Perſian Gulf. The Red Sea likewiſe divides it from Africa, which occaſions the Grand Seignior, among his other titles, to ſtyle himſelf "Lord of the Black, white, and Red Seas."

The moſt remarkable rivers are the Euphrates, Tigris, Meander, Orontes, Sarabat, Jordan, Haly, and Kara; which will be particularly deſcribed as they occur.

With reſpect to the air and climate, both are moſt delightful, and naturally ſalubrious to the human conſtitution: yet ſuch is the equality with which the Author of nature has diſpenſed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Aſia, is often viſited by the plague, a dreadful ſcourge of mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly deſtructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their ſuperſtitious belief in that kind of predeſtination which prevents them from uſing the proper precautions to defend themſelves againſt this calamity, and its fatal effects.

We need ſcarcely inform the reader, that this country, which contains the moſt fertile provinces of Aſia, produces all the luxuries of life in the utmoſt abundance, notwithſtanding the indolence of its owners. Raw ſilk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every ſpecies, coffee, myrrh, frankincenſe, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives found here almoſt without culture, which is practiſed chiefly by Greek and Armenian Chriſtians. Nature has here brought all her productions to the higheſt perfection. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates produced in theſe provinces, are highly delicious, and in ſuch plenty, that they coſt the inhabitants very little, and it is ſaid, in ſome places, nothing. Their aſparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed in ſize thoſe of other countries.

Their animal productions by ſea and land, are equally excellent and plentiful. The breed of Turkiſh and Arabian horſes (the latter eſpecially) are beyond any in the world, and have conſiderably improved that of the Engliſh. Camels are generally made uſe of for travelling and carrying burdens; that animal, beſides the advantage of ſtrength, being formed by nature to travel a conſiderable time without either provender or water. Their manufacture, known by the name of camblets, was originally made by a mixture of camels-hair with ſilk, though it is now often made with wool and ſilk. Oxen are generally uſed in tillage. Buffaloes are found in ſeveral parts of Turkey, the fleſh of which may be purchaſed at an eaſy rate; but it is very bad, nor is the beef much better. Vaſt flocks of ſheep, however, are fed all over the country, but particularly in the province of Lycaonia, where they are moſtly of the Syrian kind. The fleſh of theſe ſheep have an exquiſite taſte, and their tails are exceedingly long and thick, ſome of them having been known to weigh thirty pounds. Innumerable herds of goats are likewiſe kept here, eſpecially in Pamphylia, the hair of this animal being alſo of infinite uſe in the manufacture of their fine camblets, and great quantities of it are exported to Europe. Their kids are eſteemed delicate eating, and ſaid to ſurpaſs, in flavour and taſte, thoſe of Europe.

In Turkey, ſome of the birds are of an extraordinary ſize, particularly the oſtrich, but theſe are not very common. There is great plenty of wild-fowl, and the iſland of Cyprus produces a bird, about the ſize of a lark; many thouſands of them, when pickled down in barrels, are ſent annually to Venice, where they fetch a very good price. Great numbers of them are caught in the months of September and October.

Great quantities of fiſh are found in moſt of the rivers, particularly ſalmon and carp of an amazing ſize; but the fiſh on their ſea-coaſts are eſteemed far more delicate in their kind, viz. turbots, rets, ſoles, roaches, pilchers, tunnies, oyſters, herrings, &c.

This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richeſt kingdoms and provinces of Europe; and its medicinal ſprings and baths exceed thoſe of any in the known world. Some of theſe are remarkable for their ſalubrity, and others for their coſtly decorations. Near the gulf of Nicomedia is a fountain much eſteemed by the Turks and Greeks for its medicinal virtues; as are ſeveral ſprings and rivulets in the neighbourhood of Coos. Therma, in Bithynia, is famous for its hot-baths. Near Burſa, is a large bath, the waters of which flow through mines of vitriol: near it is a warm bath; and at about a league diſtance is another, where the water is hot enough to boil an egg.

CHAP. II.

TURKEY.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Cuſtoms, Diverſions, Dreſs, Marriages, Funerals, Religion, Eccleſiaſtical Inſtitutions of Chriſtians, Learning and Learned Men, Antiquities, Curioſities, &c.

THE limits of this great country not being accurately fixed, geographers have not been able to aſcertain its population, which is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility. It certainly is not ſo great

great as it was before the Chriſtian æra, or even under the Roman emperors, owing to various cauſes; and above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which appears to be an enemy to population, if we may conclude from the ſtate of the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practiſed, as they are more prolific than the Turks, notwithſtanding the rigid ſubjection in which they are kept by the latter; but the plague is the greateſt cauſe of depopulation. The Turkiſh monarch, however, has more ſubjects than any two princes of Europe.

With reſpect to the inhabitants, the men, in general, are well made and robuſt: when young, their complexions are fair, and their faces handſome: their hair and eyes are black, or dark brown. The women, when young, have delicate complexions, and regular features, but they generally look old at thirty. They are ſaid to be exceeding amorous, lively, and witty. The Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, ſedate, and paſſive; yet, when agitated by paſſion, become furious, raging, ungovernable; ſometimes are big with diſſimulation, jealous, ſuſpicious, and vindictive beyond conception. In matters of religion, they are tenacious, ſuperſtitious, and moroſe. Though the greater part of them ſeem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity, with regard to Jews, Chriſtians, or any who differ from them in point of opinion; yet they are far from being devoid of ſocial affections for thoſe of their own religion. But intereſt is their ſupreme good; and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, conſanguinity, or friendſhip, are with the generality ſpeedily diſſolved.

The morals of the Aſiatic Turks are, however, in many reſpects, preferable to thoſe of the Europeans: they are hoſpitable to ſtrangers, and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among the great: they are likewiſe ſaid to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their benevolence and public ſpirit is moſt conſpicuous in their building caravanſeras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are deſtitute of accommodations, for the refreſhment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the ſame laudable view, they ſearch out the beſt ſprings, and dig wells, which in thoſe countries are a luxury to weary travellers.

The Turks ſit croſs-legged upon mats, not only at their meals, but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from others, are ſimple and confined, ſeldom reaching without the walls of their own houſes: where they ſit converſing with their women, drinking coffee, ſmoking tobacco, or chewing opium.

They have little curioſity to be informed of the ſtate of their own, or any other country. If a vizier, baſhaw, or other officer, is turned out, or ſtrangled, they ſay no more on the occaſion, than that there will be a new vizier or governor, ſeldom inquiring into the reaſon of the diſgrace of the former miniſter. They are perfect ſtrangers to wit and agreeable converſation. They have few printed books; and the Koran, with the comments upon it, form the chief part of their ſtudy. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without preſents; and even juſtice may be purchaſed by a well-timed bribe.

About eleven o'clock in the forenoon, they dine; but ſupper is their principal meal, which they eat at five in the winter, and ſix in the ſummer. Among the great people, their diſhes are ſerved up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and are not permitted by their religion to uſe gold or ſilver ſpoons. Their victuals are always high-ſeaſoned. Rice is the common food of the lower ſort, and ſometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief diſh is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the ſoup is high-ſeaſoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, ſherbet, and coffee; and the greateſt indulgence they are addicted to, is the chewing vaſt quantities of opium, which gives them ſenſations reſembling thoſe of intoxication. Gueſts of higher rank ſometimes have their beards perfumed by a female ſlave of the family. They are temperate, and ſober, from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the uſe of wine; though many of them, notwithſtanding this injunction, indulge themſelves in ſtrong liquors to exceſs. Their common ſalutation is by bowing the head a little, and laying the right-hand on the breaſt; but to perſons of rank, they ſtoop ſo low as to kiſs the border of their veſt. They ſleep in linen waiſtcoats and drawers, upon mattreſſes, and cover themſelves with a quilt. Few or none of the conſiderable inhabitants of this vaſt empire have any notion of walking, or riding, either for health or diverſion: the moſt religious among them find, however, ſufficient exerciſe, when they conform themſelves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites preſcribed them by Mahomet.

They are falſely accuſed of cruelty toward their ſlaves or ſervants; for they frequently behave with more lenity to them than the Chriſtians; eſpecially if they are acquainted with any art or trade that may be uſeful to the community.

Their uſual amuſements within doors are the cheſs, or draught board; and if they play at chance-games, they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran. Their active diverſions conſiſt in ſhooting at a mark, or tilting with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purpoſes, that they may know the ſtrength of their dependents.

As to their dreſs, the men ſhave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long, except the military, and thoſe in the ſeraglio, who wear only whiſkers: they cover their heads with a turban, which they never put off but when they ſleep: they ſuffer no Chriſtians, or other people, to wear white turbans. Their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtband, and over them they throw a long veſt, which they tie with a ſaſh, and over the veſt they wear a looſe gown ſomewhat ſhorter. Their breeches or drawers are of a piece with their ſtockings; and, inſtead of ſhoes, they wear ſlippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or houſe. The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear ſtiffened caps upon their heads, with horns reſembling a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, which is but ſeldom, they are ſo muffled up as not to be known to their neareſt relations. Such of the women as are virtuous, make no uſe of paint to heighten their beauty, or to diſguiſe their complexions; but they often tinge their hands and feet with kenna, which gives them a deep yellow. The men, in colouring their beards, make uſe of the ſame expedient.

In Turkey, marriages are chiefly negotiated by the ladies; and when the preliminaries are adjuſted, and terms agreed upon, the bridegroom elect pays down a ſum of money, which is generally employed in furniſhing the houſe of the young couple; a licence is obtained from the cadi, or proper magiſtrate, and the parties are married. The wedding is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain; in conſequence of this permiſſion, the wealthy Turks, beſides their wives, keep a kind of ſeraglio of women; but all theſe indulgences are ſometimes not ſufficient to gratify their unnatural deſires. The women are kept under a rigorous confinement. Divorces are allowed; but no man is allowed to take back again the woman he has once repudiated, till ſhe has been married to another, and divorced by him alſo; which is ſometimes done as a mere form, where the parties agree to live together again.

Their funerals are exceedingly decent. The corpſe

is

is attended by the relations, chanting paſſages from the Koran; and after being depoſited in a moſque (as they call their temples) they are buried in a field by the iman or prieſt, who pronounces a funeral oration at the time of the interment. The male relations expreſs their ſorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves. A widow leaves off all finery for twelve-months, and in mourning for her huſband, wears a particular head-dreſs.

The eſtabliſhed religion of the Turks is the Mahometan, ſo called from Mahomet, the author of it; ſome account of which the reader will find in the following hiſtory of Arabia, the native country of that impoſtor. The Mahometans are divided into two great ſects, thoſe of Ali and Omar: the Perſians being of the former, and the Turks of the latter; but theſe are again ſubdivided into many others. There is no ordination among their clergy; any perſon may be a prieſt that pleaſes to take the habit, and perform the functions of his order: he may alſo lay down his office when he thinks proper. That the Mahometans believe women poſſeſs no ſouls, is a vulgar error, ſince many paſſages in the Koran prove the contrary opinion.

With reſpect to the eccleſiaſtical inſtitutions of Chriſtians, the Turkiſh government has formed theſe into part of its finances, and tolerated them where they are moſt profitable; but the hardſhips impoſed upon the Greek church are ſuch, as muſt always diſpoſe that people to favour any revolution of government. Conſtantinople, Jeruſalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an eccleſiaſtical authority over their votaries. The ſame may be ſaid of the Neſtorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege, has its archbiſhop or biſhop. All male Chriſtians, according to their ſtations, pay alſo a capitation-tax, from ſeventeen years old to ſixty.

In this empire, the radical languages are the Sclavonian, which ſeems to have been the mother tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernized, but ſtill bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic, and the Syriac, a dialect of which is ſtill ſpoken. Their pater-noſter is expreſſed in the following ſpecimen:

" Pater hemas, opios iſo ees tos ouranous; hagia
" ſthito to onoma ſou; na erti he baſilia ſou: to the-
" lema ſou na genetez itzon en te ge, os is ton oura-
" non: to ptſomi hemas doze hemas ſemoren: hæ
" ſi choraſe hemos ta crimata hemon itzone, kæ he-
" mas ſichoraſomen, ekinous opou: mas adikounkæ
" menternes hemais is to piraſmo, alla ſoſon hemas
" apo to kaxo. Amen."

Till of late, the Turks profeſſed a ſovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and ſciences, produces at preſent, beſides Turks, numerous bands of Chriſtian biſhops, prieſts, and monks, who, in general, are as ignorant as the Turks themſelves, and are divided into various abſurd ſects of what they call Chriſtianity. The education of the Turks ſeldom extends further than reading the Turkiſh language, and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some of them underſtand aſtronomy, ſo far as to calculate the time of an eclipſe; but the number of theſe being very ſmall, they are looked npon as extraordinary perſons. There are, however, ſome ſchools, colleges, and accademies to be met with in Turkey, but they are on a very different footing from thoſe among us; and ſome years ago, a printing-houſe was opened at Conſtantinople, where books of all kinds, except on matters of religion, were allowed to be printed.

Their natural and artificial antiquities and curioſities are ſo various, that they have furniſhed matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. Theſe countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture and ſculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have ſuffered from the Europeans, ſeem to have diminiſhed their number. They are more or leſs perfect, according to the air, ſoil, or climate in which they ſtand; and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the fineſt temples are converted into Turkiſh moſques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than thoſe which remain in ruins. Amidſt ſuch a group of curioſities, all that can be done here, is, to ſelect ſome of the moſt ſtriking; and as Palmyra and Balbec form the pride of all antiquity, we ſhall therefore begin with them:

" Palmyra, in the deſerts of Arabia, or, as by the ſcripture ſtyled, Tadmor in the wilderneſs, is ſituated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, about 33 deg. north lat. and 200 miles to the ſouth of Aleppo. Its preſent appearance affords a moſt awful ſpectacle. As you approach, the firſt object which preſents itſelf is a ruinated caſtle, on the north ſide of the city. From it you deſcry Tadmor, encloſed on three ſides by long ridges of mountains; ſouthward of it is a vaſt plain, extending far beyond the ſight. The city muſt have been of large extent, from the ſpace now taken up by its ruins; among which live about thirty or forty miſerable families, in huts of dirt, within a ſpacious court, which once encloſed a magnificent temple. This court hath a ſtately high wall, of large ſquare ſtone, adorned by pilaſters both within and without; there are about ſixty on each ſide. The beautiful cornices have been beaten down by the Turks. Towards the centre, are the remains of a caſtle, ſhrouding the fragments of a temple of exquiſite beauty, as appears by what is ſtill ſtanding of its entrance, viz. two ſtones thirty-five feet long, carved with vines, and cluſters of grapes. In the great court are the remains of two rows of very noble marble pillars, thirty-ſeven feet high, with capitals finely carved, and the cornices muſt have been of equal elegance; fifty-eight of theſe pillars are entire: there muſt have been many more, as it appears they went quite round the court, ſupporting a moſt ſpacious double piazza. The walks on the weſt ſide of this piazza, which face the front of the temple, ſeem to have been grand and ſpacious; and at each end are two niches for ſtatues at length, with pedeſtals, borders, ſupporters, canopies, &c. carved with inimitable art. The ſpace within this once beautiful encloſure, is (or rather was) encompaſſed by another row of pillars of a different order, fifty feet high; ſixteen of which are yet ſtanding. The temple was about ninety feet long, and forty broad: its grand entrance on the weſt appears, by what remains of it, to have been the moſt magnificent in the world. Over a door-way in the remaining walls, you trace a ſpread-eagle, as at Balbec; and here are the fragments of cupids, as well as of eagles, moſt finely imitating nature, on large ſtones mouldering on the earth. Nothing of the temple ſtands but the walls, the window-places of which are narrow at top, but richly adorned with ſculpture. In the middle is a cupola, all one ſolid piece. Leaving this court and temple, your eyes are ſaluted with a great number of pillars of marble, ſcattered for near a mile. To the north, you have a ſtately obeliſk before you, conſiſting of ſeven large ſtones, beſides its capital, grandly ſculptured: it is more than fifty feet high, and is twelve feet and a half in circumference juſt above the pedeſtal; and it is imagined a ſtatue once ſtood upon it. Eaſt and weſt of this, at the diſtance of about a quarter of a mile, is another obeliſk, that ſeems to have correſponded with the firſt-mentioned; and, according to the fragment of a third, it ſhould ſeem that there was a continued range of them. On one of them, which is about forty feet high, there is a Gothic inſcription, commemorating two patriots; and about an hundred paces from it, is a large and

lofty entrance, leading to a grand piazza, adorned with marble pillars, on moſt of which there are inſcriptions. A little further onward, to the left, are the remains of a ſtately pile of remarkably fine marble, twenty-two feet long. On the weſt ſide of the piazza, are ſeveral openings for gates; two of them appear to have been the moſt ſuperb that ever captivated the human eye, both in point of grandeur of work in general, and the beautiful porphyry pillars with which they were adorned. Eaſtward of the piazza, are a great number of ſcattered marble, pillars, moſt of which have been deprived of their elegant capitals. A little ruined temple lies mouldering at a ſhort diſtance, which appears to have been a very curious ſtructure. But of all the venerable remains, none more attract the admiration, than the magnificent ſepulchres towards the north of the city, extending a mile and more, and which, at a diſtance, have the appearance of tops of decayed churches, or baſtions of ruined fortifications."

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that ſo ſuperb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exiſt in the midſt of what now are tracts of barren, uninhabitable ſand. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eaſtern world; and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the weſtern nations, for the merchandiſes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its preſent altered ſtate, therefore, can be only accounted for by natural cauſes, which have turned the more fertile tracts into barren deſerts. The Aſiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive ſome countenance from ſacred hiſtory. In profane hiſtory, it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Antony; and its moſt ſuperb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the laſt king of Palmyra, was highly careſſed by that emperor, and even declared Auguſtus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for ſome time; and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her ſecretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, ſhe declared war againſt the emperor Aurelian, who took her priſoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and put to death her principal nobility, and among others, the excellent Longinus. He afterwards deſtroyed her city, and maſſacred its inhabitants, but expended large ſums out of Zenobia's treaſures, in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majeſtic ruins of which are hereunder mentioned. Travellers give but an imperfect account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inſcriptions reach above the Chriſtian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itſelf is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Juſtinian made ſome efforts to reſtore it to its ancient ſplendor, but without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its preſent wretched ſtate. It has been very juſtly obſerved, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal to thoſe of Balbec; which we ſhall now give an account of.

The venerable ruins of Balbec (called by the Greeks Helipolis, or The City of the Sun) evince, that it was one of the moſt magnificent cities in the univerſe; at preſent it is not above a mile and a half in circumference, and the poor inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in mean houſes, built out of the ancient ruins. The Hon. Van Egmont ſays,

"Balbec, now called Baalbec, is probably the ancient Heliopolis, or City of the the Sun; and its new name ſeems to correſpond with the ancient Baal, in the Phœnician language, ſignifying an idol, particularly that of the ſun. And what ſeems to confirm me in my opinion, that Balbec is the ancient Heliopolis, or City of the Sun, was a medal of Philippus Cæſar, which I found here. He is on one ſide repreſented as a youth without beard, or crown; and on the reverſe are two eagles, with the ends of their beaks joined; and between them is inſcribed, COL. HEL. whence it is plain, that this city was at that time a Roman colony." It is ſituated in one of the moſt delightful plains in the world, at the foot of Mount Antilibanus towards the weſtward: it is about 30 miles north of Damaſcus, and the ſame eaſt from the ſea-coaſt, in 33 deg. north lat. and 37 deg. 30 min. eaſt. long. This place was by the Arabians called the Wonder of Syria; and the magnificent ruins are certainly the admiration of all travellers who behold them. A ſuperb palace, a noble temple, and ſome other ruins, ſtand at the ſouth-weſt of the town; and having been patched and pieced in later times, are converted into a caſtle, as it is called. In approaching theſe venerable edifices, a rotunda or round pile attracts the view, encircled with pillars of the Corinthian order, which ſupport a cornice that runs all around the ſtructure. The whole, though greatly decayed, exhibit marks of aſtoniſhing elegance and grandeur, being built of marble, circular without, and octangular within. The Greeks, by whom it hath been converted into a church, have taken infinite pains to ſpoil its beauty, by daubing it with plaſter. There is a ſuperb lofty building contiguous to the rotunda, which leads to a noble arched portico, of 150 paces in length, that conducts you to a temple of aſtoniſhing magnificence, which to a miracle hath withſtood the injuries of time. It is an oblong ſquare, of 192 feet in length on the outſide, and 120 within. The breadth on the outſide is ninety-ſix feet, and within ſixty. The whole is ſurrounded by a noble portico, ſupported by pillars of the Corinthian order, each of which conſiſts only of three ſtones, though the height is fifty-four feet, and the diameter ſix feet three inches; they are nine feet diſtant from each other, and from the wall of the temple: their number on each ſide of the temple is fourteen, and at each end eight; the architrave and cornice are exquiſitely carved and embelliſhed. Round the temple, between the wall and pillars, is an arcade of large ſtones, hollowed out archwiſe, in the centre of each of which is a god, goddeſs, or hero, executed with ſuch animation as is ſcarce conceivable. Round the foot of the temple wall is a double border of marble, whoſe lower parts are filled with baſſo relievo miniatures, expreſſive of heathen ceremonials and myſteries. The entrance to the temple is the moſt auguſt imaginable, the aſcent being by thirty ſteps, bounded by a wall on each ſide that leads to a pedeſtal, on which a ſtatue formerly ſtood. The front is compoſed of eight Corinthian pillars, fluted like thoſe that go round the temple, and a nobly-proportioned triangular pediment; in the midſt of theſe pillars, at ſix feet diſtance, are four others, reſembling the former, and two more, with three faces each: all theſe form a portico ſixty feet broad, and twenty-four deep, before the door of the temple. Under the vault of the portico, the entrance of the temple appears through theſe pillars in admirable proportion. The portal is ſquare, and of marble, forty feet high, and twenty-eight wide, the aperture being about twenty; from this portal the bottom of the lintel is ſeen, embelliſhed by a piece of ſculpture not to be paralleled in the univerſe; it repreſents a prodigious large eagle in baſſo relievo, his wings are expanded, and he carries a caduceus in his pounces; on either ſide a cupid appears, holding the one end of a feſtoon by a ribbon, as the eagle himſelf holds the other in his beak, in a manner inimitably fine.

The temple is divided into three ailes, two narrow on the ſides, and one broad in the middle, by three rows of fluted Corinthian pillars, of near four feet in diameter, and about thirty-ſix feet in height, including the pedeſtal: the pillars are 12 in number, ſix of a ſide, at 18 feet diſtance from each other, and 12 from the walls. The walls themſelves are decorated by two

rows

rows of pilaſters, one above the other, and between each two of the lowermoſt is a niche 15 feet high; the bottoms of the niches are upon a level with the baſes of the pillars, and the wall to that height is wrought in the proportion of a Corinthian pedeſtal: the niches themſelves are Corinthian, and executed with inimitable delicacy. Over the round niches are a row of ſquare ones between the pilaſters of the upper order: the ornaments are marble, and the pediment triangular. At the weſt end of the middle aile, you aſcend to a choir by 13 ſteps: the choir is diſtinguiſhed from the reſt of the fabric by two large ſquare columns adorned with pilaſters, which form a ſuperb entrance. The profuſion of admirable ſculpture here is aſtoniſhing; but the architecture is the ſame as in the body of the temple, except that the niches ſtand upon the pavement, and the pillars are without pedeſtals. The principal deity formerly worſhipped here ſtood in a vaſt niche at the bottom of the choir. The choir is open towards the middle. The whole pile ſtands upon vaults of ſuch excellent architecture, and ſo bold in their conſtruction, that it is imagined they were deſigned for ſomething more than merely to ſupport the ſuperincumbent building. This temple anciently was accompanied by ſome other magnificent buildings, as is evident from four aſcents to it, one upon each angle, with marble ſteps long enough for ten people to go up abreaſt.

The palace, which is in what the Turks call the Caſtle, muſt have been one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures that imagination can conceive, but it is much more decayed than the temple. It ought to be obſerved, that the old wall which encloſes both theſe ſtructures is compoſed of ſuch prodigious blocks of ſtone as almoſt tranſcends belief; three in particular that lie cloſe to each other in a line extend 183 feet, one being 63 feet in length, and the other two 60 feet each. A dark arched vault, containing many buſts, leads to an hexagonal building which forms a ſpacious theatre; the end opens to a terrace which is aſcended by marble ſteps; you then enter a ſquare court ſurrounded by magnificent buildings: on each hand are double rows of pillars, which form galleries of 66 fathoms in length and eight in breadth. The bottom of this court is occupied by a building amazingly ſumptuous, which appears to have been the body of the palace; the columns are as large as thoſe of the Hippodrome at Conſtantinople, nine of them are ſtanding, and a good piece of the entablature. But it is ſurpriſing that each of theſe large columns is made of one entire block only. All the buildings in this caſtle front the eaſt, and the Corinthian order prevails throughout the whole; there is no place where ſuch precious remains of architecture and ſculpture are to be found; as the fine taſte of Greece, and the magnificence of Rome, ſeem to be blended; the ornaments are at once innumerable and exquiſite. Beneath the whole are vaults, in which vaſt flights of marble ſtairs, of 200 ſteps in a flight, are frequently found. The turn and elevation of theſe vaults are bold and ſurpriſing; they contain many noble halls and ſuperb apartments, admirably decorated. Some of theſe vaults are dark, others receive light from large windows which ſtand on the level of the ground above: but the moſt ſingular circumſtance is, that all theſe aſtoniſhing edifices are built with ſuch enormous ſtones as thoſe before-mentioned, without any viſible ſigns of mortar, or any kind of cement whatever. The preſent city is ſurrounded with a wall of ſquare ſtones, and ſome towers in good condition; the gardens in the environs are pleaſant, fruitful, and well watered. Many houſes which contain various apartments, are cut out of the ſolid rocks. Conjectures of a very different nature have been formed concerning the founders of theſe immenſe buildings. The inhabitants of Aſia aſcribe them to Solomon, but ſome make them ſo modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his ſucceſſors may have rebuilt ſome part of them, yet the boldneſs of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the ſtupendous execution of the whole, ſeem to fix their foundation to a period before the chriſtian æra, but without going back to the ancient times of the Jews or Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek ſtyle in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at preſent a little city, encompaſſed with a wall. A free-ſtone quarry in the neighbourhood furniſhed the ſtones for the body of the temple; and one of the ſtones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, which, reduced to our meaſure, is 1135 tons. The ornamental parts were furniſhed from a coarſe white marble quarry, at a greater diſtance.

The cities of Mecca and Medina are curioſities only through the ſuperſtition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houſes or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a ſorry appearance, though erected upon the ſpot where the great prophet is ſaid to have been born. The ſame may be ſaid of the moſque at Medina, where that impoſtor was buried; ſo that the vaſt ſums ſpent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in viſiting thoſe places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uſes. The different ruins, ſome of them inexpreſſibly magnificent, that are to be found in thoſe immenſe regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; ſo great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for theſe thouſand years paſt. It is indeed eaſy to pronounce whether the ſtyle of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen; but their inſcriptions will give the beſt information concerning theſe particulars.

The ſeat of Old Troy cannot be diſtinguiſhed by the ſmalleſt veſtige, and is known only by its being oppoſite to the iſle of Tenedos, and the name of a rock, which the poets magnified into a river. A temple of marble built in honour of Auguſtus Cæſar, at Miliſſo in Caria, and a few ſtructures of the ſame kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are ſtill entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latichea, have ſuffered very little from time or barbariſm; and ſome travellers think that the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Epheſus, may be diſcerned.

CHAP. III.

The Provinces and chief Towns of Turkey.

THE province of Eyraca-Arabic, Yerack, or Irack-Arabi, hath been anciently termed Shinaar, Babylonia, and Chaldea. It lies between 30 and 40 deg. north latitude; and is bounded on the north by Diarbec; on the weſt, by the deſerts of Sham; on the ſouth, partly by the ſame deſerts, as thoſe of Arabia; and by the Median and Aſſyrian mountains, on the eaſt.

The air of this country is in general very ſerene and temperate, but at certain times is ſo extremely dangerous, and the heats ſo exceſſive, that formerly many of the inhabitants uſed to ſleep in ciſterns of water; and this pernicious practice is at preſent not entirely diſcontinued. The inhabitants are ſometimes viſited by a peſtilential wind, which has greatly excited the attention of travellers and philoſophers. As they have no rains for eight months in the year, and ſometimes much longer, the land is watered from the Euphrates, and other rivers, by means of a great number of engines admirably conſtructed for that purpoſe.

The

The country, in general, yields grain two hundred fold, and frequently three hundred; and its fertility is ſuch, that it would aſtoniſh a traveller who had ſeen all the reſt of the known world. The palms, particularly thoſe of the date kind, afford the inhabitants meat, wine, and honey. The millet and ſeſame ſhoot up to the ſize of trees, and the barley and wheat have leaves of four fingers in breadth. They have neither olives nor grapes; but the ſeſame is an excellent ſubſtitute to furniſh oil where olives are wanting, and, in lieu of grapes, the palm ſupplies them with wine.

The Tigris and Euphrates uſed formerly to overflow in the months of June, July, and Auguſt, and cover the whole country with water; and the inundations were generally increaſed by torrents of melted ſnow, which poured down from the Armenian mountains: but thoſe floods proving very detrimental in various caſes, the inhabitants guarded againſt them by cutting a great number of artificial canals, rivers, and rivulets, which they effected with infinite aſſiduity and labour. Thus the waters were properly diſtributed, an eaſy communication made betwixt every part of the country, and the people univerſally benefited. The paſture being exceedingly rich, great numbers of cattle are fed, which not only plentifully ſupply the inhabitants with meat, but with milk, butter, and other uſeful neceſſaries.

This country is famous for the great plain of Shinaar, or Senaar, where the whole race of mankind were collected together after the flood, and from thence diſperſed over the face of the whole earth; which was the place where the tower of Babel was built, and the renowned city of Babylon, of which the veſtiges, or what are ſhewn for ſuch, are very inconſiderable.

Bagdad, the capital of the ancient Chaldea, was the metropolis of the caliphate under the Saracens in the 12th century. This city is built upon the Tigris, not far, it is ſuppoſed, from the ſite of the ancient Babylon; few marks of its ancient grandeur are now remaining. It is in the form of an irregular ſquare, and rudely fortified; but the conveniency of its ſituation renders it one of the ſeats of the Turkiſh government, and it has ſtill a conſiderable trade, being annually viſited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and weſtern caravans. The houſes of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the free circulation of the air: many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glaſs, and the ceiling ornamented with chequered work. Moſt of the houſes have alſo a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a ſmall plantation of orange-trees. The number of houſes is computed at 80,000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the baſhaw, which is calculated to produce 300,000l. ſterling. Their bazars, in which the tradeſmen have their ſhops, are tolerably handſome, large, and extenſive, filled with ſhops of all kinds of merchandize, to the number of 12,000. Theſe were erected by the Perſians, when they were in poſſeſſion of the place, as were alſo their bagnios, and almoſt every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. In this city are five moſques, two of which are well built, and have handſome domes, covered with varniſhed tiles of different colours. Two chapels are permitted for thoſe of the Romiſh and Greek perſuaſions. On the north-weſt corner of the city ſtands the caſtle, which is of white ſtone, and commands the river, conſiſting of curtains and baſtions, on which ſome large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each baſtion; but in the year 1779 they were ſo honey-combed and bad, as to be ſuppoſed not able to ſupport firing. Below the caſtle, by the water-ſide, is the palace of the Turkiſh governor; and there are ſeveral ſummer-houſes on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians, who inhabited this city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect. The pilgrims, who viſit Mecca by land, paſs through Bagdad, and pay four piaſtres by way of tribute, which brings a conſiderable revenue to the grand ſeignior.

Baſſora, or Baſrah, on the frontiers of Duſia, lies in 30 deg. 17 min. north lat. and 9 deg. 10 min. eaſt longitude, being about 250 miles ſouth-eaſt from Bagdad, and 240 ſouth-weſt from Iſpahan: it was built A. D. 636, by Ormar the ſecond caliph, in order to cut off the communication between Perſia and India. This city is 12 miles in circumference, opulent and populous, but the buildings have nothing extraordinary in them, the houſes being only two ſtories high, built with bricks dried in the ſun, and flat on the tops. The circumjacent country is exceedingly fertile and delightful. It is ſubject to an Arabian prince, who is tributary to the grand ſeignior.

The Province of Diarbec, or Meſopotamia.

This country extends about 600 miles along the banks of the Euphrates and Tigris, from Mount Tauris, on the north, to the Perſian gulph on the ſouth. The breadth is in ſome places 300, and in others 150 miles. The air is exceedingly temperate and ſerene. The country produces ſilk; and is fertile with very little cultivation, being rich in grain, fruits, and paſturage. Numerous flocks and abundance of cattle feed on the latter; yet there are conſiderable uninhabited deſerts in ſome parts. The celebrated rivers Euphrates and Tigris flow through this country, and not only ſupply it with with excellent fiſh, but contribute exceedingly to its beauty and fertility.

The Tigris riſes in the Armenian mountains; and acquired its name from its rapidity, the word, in the Median language, ſignifying a dart or arrow. It paſſes through the lake Arethuſa, and afterwards ſinking into the earth, riſes on the other ſide of Mount Tauris. It proceeds from thence to the lake Theſpites, but, in the way, hides itſelf for the ſpace of 25 miles, and afterwards proceeds with great rapidity. Between Aſſyria and Meſopotamia, it receives ſeveral rivers; and below Bagdad branches into two channels, both which diſembogue themſelves into the Euphrates, and form an iſland by that means.

But the moſt conſiderable river in Aſia is the Euphrates, which takes its ſource in Mount Tauris; proceeding weſterly, it croſſes Turcomania, then turning ſouthward, it divides Syria from Diarbec. Afterwards running along the weſtern limits of Arabia Deſerta, it waters a great number of towns, and then flows ſmoothly to the city of Aſia, where the reflux, or tides of the Perſian gulph, diſturb its ſtream, and diſcolour its waters, though ninety miles diſtance from it. At about 60 miles from the Perſian gulph it unites with the Tigris. In general it flows gently, and waters a great number of fertile and delightful plains; its banks are embelliſhed with perpetual verdure, and adorned by many trees, particularly palms; it is neither deep nor wide, except when the melting of the ſnows on the Armenian mountains occaſions it to ſwell; but the waters are deemed very ſalubrious.

Diarbec is the chief city of this province; it is ſituated in 37 deg. 35 min. north lat. and 40 deg. 50 min. eaſt longitude, and encompaſſed by two walls, the outermoſt of which is defended by 72 towers; there are but three gates, over that towards the weſt ſome Latin and Greek inſcriptions are ſeen, though many of the letters are almoſt obliterated. The name, however, of Conſtantine is ſtill viſible, and frequently repeated, which gives occaſion to ſurmiſe that it was either originally built, or greatly repaired and improved by that emperor. The Tigris forms a half moon about it, and from its wall to the water ſide there is a ſteep precipice. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants, and upon the whole is one of the moſt commercial, ſtrong, opulent, and populous cities of all

all Aſiatic Turkey. It is ſupplied with water from the Tigris by means of an artificial canal, and embelliſhed with many noble piazzas or market places, and other elegant buildings, particularly a ſpacious grand moſque, which was once a chriſtian church. On the ſides of the river are ſeveral caravanſeras or inns; and near the town is a chapel, in which the Turks affirm that Job lies buried; about a league from the city the Tigris is fordable, nevertheleſs there is a ſtone bridge over this very part, on account of the floods, which are occaſioned by the exceſſive rains and melted ſnows, and which often render the ford impaſſable. The neighbouring country is pleaſant and fertile. The pigeons are larger and more delicate than any in Europe. The meat, bread, and wine, are admirable, and the fruits excellent.

The men are more affable here, and the women are treated with much more politeneſs, and have greater indulgence granted them, than in any other part of the Turkiſh empire. The chief manufactories carried on here are dyeing, dreſſing, and tanning, particularly goats ſkin, which is commonly known by name of Turkey leather, of which immenſe quantities are vended in all parts of Aſia and Europe: they likewiſe dye linen and cotton to great perfection. The waters of the Tigris are ſaid to be admirably adapted to dyeing, and give the leather a finer grain, and leather, linen, and cotton, a livelier colour than any other waters.

The governor of this city, who is a baſſa, is exceedingly powerful, and uſually has a body of 20,000 cavalry under his command, that he may be the better enabled to repel the incurſions of the Curdes and Tartars, who in great companies of horſe attack and rob the caravans.

Orſa, or Orpha, lies in 37 deg. 16 min. north latitude, and 39 deg. 15 min. eaſt longitude; and is ſituated at the head of the river Scirtas, on the eaſt ſide of the Euphrates, and about 60 miles from it. The inhabitants affirm, that it was the place where the city of Edeſſe ſtood, and where Abraham dwelt. The city is ſurrounded by a good ſtone wall, and is about two leagues in compaſs, but the houſes in general are deſerted, and in a ruinous condition, and thoſe that are inhabited are but low and ill built; upon the whole the place reſembles more a wilderneſs than a metropolis, though Tavernier is inclined to deem it the capital of Meſopotamia; the inhabitants carry on a great trade in ſome excellent tapeſtries and yellow leather.

The neighbouring country is exceedingly rich in corn, wine, fruits, &c. the city is governed by a beglerberg, who has 150 janiſſaries, and 600 ſpahis under his command, to awe the Arabian free-booters. Several pleaſant gardens ſurround the walls of the city, and are watered by ſmall artificial canals, which flow through cuts from one that is pretty large; in the time of our Saviour, this city and territory had a prince of its own, named Agbarus.

Moſul, or Mouſſul, ſtands on the banks of the Tigris, and is ſituated in 36 deg. 59 min. north latitude, and 43 deg. eaſt longitude, oppoſite to the ruins of the ancient city of Nineveh. It is ſurrounded by handſome ſtone walls, and is very ſpacious, being about a league in circumference, but the number of inhabitants are not proportionable to the extent. The people have great commercial connections with the inhabitants of Bagdad, and the merchants of Curdiſtan. Caravans likewiſe paſs through it to and from Perſia. The baſſa, whoſe reſidence is in the caſtle, has always 3000 men under his command. It is ſingular, that the ſoil on the city ſide of the river is exceedingly barren, but on the oppoſite it is very fertile. The heat is ſo exceſſive in ſummer, that none go out of doors from two hours after ſun riſe till an hour after ſun ſet. There is likewiſe a malignant and dangerous wind called Samiel, which reigns from hence to Surat, and is ſuppoſed to be the ſame eaſt wind mentioned by Job. It is impregnated with little ſtreaks of fire as ſmall as hairs, which immediately kill thoſe who breathe or inhale them, and turn them as black as a coal. When the people perceive them coming, they fall flat on their faces, and ſometimes eſcape. This wind is felt chiefly on the banks of the river, but not on the water, and is deemed to proceed from ſulphurous vapours, which are kindled by agitation. Independent of this wind the hot air is often dangerous, and injures the lungs, inflames the blood, and parches the ſkin, or raiſes it into bliſters, and occaſions it to peel off. On this account travellers wear a kind of maſk made of a ſoft black crape to preſerve their eyes. But if after all their precaution they become inflamed, the afflicted perſon anoints them with a mixture of ſugar and long pepper ſifted very fine, and made into a ſalve.

In Diarbec are a few other leſs conſiderable cities and towns; namely,

Bir, or Beer, in 37 deg. 15 min. north latitude, and 38 deg. 15 min. eaſt longitude. It is ſituated on the ſide of a hill to the eaſt of the Euphrates, and defended by two large old caſtles, the one on the land ſide, and the other on the banks of the river. The garriſon conſiſts of about 200 janiſſaries, and 400 ſpahis, commanded by a ſangiac. The neighbouring territory is pleaſant, fertile, and well cultivated, except to the eaſtward, where it is rough, hilly, and rather ſterile.

Gezira, in 37 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 39 deg. 10 min. eaſt long. It is ſituated in an iſland in the Tigris; and is a ſmall, but rich commercial city, governed by a bey.

Amadia, or Amad, is about 72 miles eaſt from Gezira, and the ſame weſt from Moſul.

Zibin, in the midway between Orfa and Maſul, is a tolerable town, ſituated on an aſcent. It is ſurrounded with good walls and ditches, well ſupplied with ſprings and fountains, and is furniſhed with proviſions in great plenty.

Niſbin, or Naſbin, about 35 miles from the Tigris, is divided into two wards, each on an eminence, with a large tract of ploughed land between. Several arches, gates, and the remains of a noble church are ſtill viſible.

The Province of Curdeſtan, or Aſſyria.

This diviſion lies on the eaſt ſide of the Tigris, towards Perſia, which bounds it on the eaſt; it hath the Tigris on the weſt, Eyraca-Arabic on the ſouth, and Turcomania on the north. It is not above 90 miles broad towards the ſouth, but to the northward it extends near 200 miles from eaſt to weſt. From north to ſouth it reaches from 53 deg. 30 min. to 27 deg. 20 min. north latitude.

The country of Aſſyria derives its name from Aſſur, or Aſhur, the ſon of Shem, and grandſon of Noah. The firſt great monarchy in the univerſe was founded here; and here ſtood the once magnificent city of Nineveh. It was built upon the Tigris, oppoſite to where Moſul at preſent ſtands. The walls were 60 miles in circumference, and ſufficiently thick to admit three chariots to go a-breaſt upon them: they were flanked with 1150 turrets, each of which roſe 200 feet above the walls. At a ſmall diſtance from the ruins there is a Turkiſh moſque upon the hill, on the ſpot where it is ſaid the prophet Jonas was buried. His tomb is always covered with a rich carpet, and ſome tapers and lamps are kept continually burning over it. Here two Turkiſh prieſts are continually employed to read the alcoran, which draws a great number of Turks, Perſians, &c. to the place.

In the territory between Nineveh and Bagdad are ſeveral hills of ſulphur, to which ſome travellers impute the pernicious qualities of the hot winds, or ſamiel, with which the country about Old Bagdad is particularly infected. There are likewiſe ſome ſul-

phurous hot baths at a village called Alchamam, which is about a day's journey from Moſul; and at Attendachi there is a hill, from which the Arabs dig gold.

In the ſame territory tamariſks, liquorice and ſumach are produced in great plenty: the latter, together with ſalt, being infuſed in water, gives it a red tinge, and renders it cool, ſweet and ſalubrious: if taken in broth it is a remedy for the bloody flux.

This part of the country is greatly infeſted with wild beaſts, particularly lions, jackalls, and ceracoulacks, or wild cats, which are remarkable for having large black ears of half a foot in length. Thoſe who navigate the rivers in boats always go well armed on account of the lions, who will plunge into the water, and attack the paſſengers with great fury.

The weſtern ſkirts of this province are waſhed by the Tigris. Three other rivers, viz. the Lycus, Caprus, and Gorgus, flow through it at almoſt equal diſtances: the firſt derives its name from a wolf; the ſecond from a goat; and the third is the Zerben of Pliny.

The Curdes are ſuppoſed to be the lineal deſcendants of the ancient Chaldeans: they inhabit this country and ſome parts of Perſia, and ſubſiſt principally upon rapine and plunder. They are continually upon the watch for caravans, and when they meet with one, if they are ſtrong enough, they uſually rob and murder the whole company. While the weather permits they dwell in tents upon the plains, and do not retire to the villages till the ſnows compel them. They range from Moſul to the Euphrates, and acknowledge no ſubjection either to Turks or Perſians. In fine weather they drive their herds and flocks about in ſearch of paſture, and while the men look out for plunder, the women manage the cattle, and make butter and cheeſe. Their drink is either milk or water. The men ride upon very fine ſwift horſes, their only weapon being a lance: their tents are large, and made of coarſe brown cloth, that ſerves likewiſe as a covering to their portable houſes, which are ſquare, and made of cane hurdles. The floor is covered with mats, and ſerves both for the purpoſes of bed and table. When they remove, they load their oxen with their wives, children, and houſes, the latter of which are taken to pieces for that purpoſe. They are very diſagreeable to look at, having ſmall eyes, dark complexions, wide mouths, black hair, and ferocious aſpects: nevertheleſs they are very ſtout and nimble, and, while children, uſually go naked, which renders them very hardy.

Chereſoul, the capital of Curdeſtan, is ſituated in 36 deg. north latitude, and 45 deg. eaſt longitude, and is about 150 miles north of Bagdad. The houſes are all hewn out of a rock on the ſide of a hill, which extends a mile in length, and there is an aſcent to them of about twenty ſteps. The baſhaw, or governor of the province, reſides here, and hath ſeveral ſangiacs under him.

Abela is celebrated in hiſtory for the famous battle fought in a plain near it, between Alexander the Great and Darius: it is in 35 deg. north latitude, and 77 deg. 20 min. eaſt longitude, and ſituated between the Cyprus and Lycus, or the two Zabs, as ſome writers term thoſe rivers. The natives ſhew a mountain in the neighbourhood, where the ruins of a caſtle are yet to be ſeen, in which tradition ſays, Darius ſtood to ſee the ſucceſs of the battle. The mountain itſelf was named Nicatorius by Alexander, in commemoration of the above victory.

Betlis is ſituated in 37 deg. 55 min. north latitude, and 43 deg. 30 min. eaſt longitude, and is the reſidence of a prince of the Curdes, who is indpendent both of the Turks and Perſians, and ſo powerful, that he can raiſe a body of 25,000 horſe, beſides a conſiderable number of foot, among the ſhepherds of the mountains, who are trained to arms: ſo that though his dominions are ſurrounded by Turks and Perſians, they are both obliged to keep fair with him from motives of policy; becauſe it is at all times in his power to ſtop and plunder the caravans that go between Aleppo and Taurus, the road from the former being within a day's journey from the town, cut in ſeveral places out of the rocks between two mountains, and only broad enough for one camel to paſs. Both the town and caſtle are ſo ſtrongly ſituated, that the only paſs may be defended by ten men againſt a thouſand: ſo that this prince is really formidable, and cannot be robbed of his independency. The city is built between two high mountains, diſtant from each other about a cannon-ſhot. The caſtle is ſituated upon a hill that reſembles a ſugar-loaf; and there is no coming at it but by a winding path cut in a rock, which is exceedingly ſteep, rugged, and difficult to aſcend. Before the caſtle can be entered, three draw-bridges muſt be paſſed, and afterwards three courts, previous to the approach to the palace. The city extends on each ſide of the other two mountains, from the top to the bottom, containing many houſes, and two caravanſeras.

Harpel is ſituated on the river Caprus, and is ſurrounded by a mud wall. The houſes are miſerably built. It is, however, a large town, and the reſidence of a ſangiac.

Holwan, in 35 deg. north latitude, and 47 deg. 10 min. eaſt longitude, is ſituated between the mountains that divide the Perſian, Irack, Curdeſtan, and Chaldæa. The Mahometans, who believe that Elijah is ſtill alive, affirm that he lives in one of the mountains near this town.

Turcomania, or Armenia.

This province is bounded on the north by Georgia; on the ſouth, by Meſopotamia; on the eaſt, by Perſia; on the weſt, by Cappadocia and the Leſſer Armenia, from which it is ſeparated by the Euphrates. It extends from 38 deg. 20 min. to 42 deg. north latitude, and from 39 to almoſt 42 deg. eaſt longitude. It is about 300 miles in length, and 200 in breadth.

The country, which, in general is exceedingly mountainous, produces nothing without the moſt indefatigable induſtry; every kind of grain is but indifferent: the wine is likewiſe bad. The cold being very intenſe, occaſions the fruit to be extremely backward. There are, however, ſome fine dales and pleaſant vallies interſperſed among the hills.

Ararat, the Paryadræ, Maruſius, Antitaurus, Abus, Niphates, Moſchick, and Gordyæan, are the principal mountains. The rivers which water this country are the Cyrus, Lycus, Phaſis, Araxes, Tigris, and Euphrates.

The capital city of Turcomania is called Arzerum, or Erzeron. It is ſituated on the northern extremity of the province, about ten days journey from the frontiers of Perſia, and five from the Black Sea. It is the reſidence of a Turkiſh baſhaw, is defended by a good caſtle, and has a ſtrong garriſon of janiſſaries, commanded by an aga. It contains about 18,000 Turks, who, in general, purchaſe of the baſhaw the name and privileges of janiſſaries, or a diſpenſation for committing all kinds of diſorders with impunity. The pay of a janiſſary from the government is from about two-pence halfpenny to ten-pence per day. In this city about 8000 Armenians, and 500 Greeks, reſide. The Armenians have two churches, ſeveral monaſteries, and a biſhop.

Arzerum is a place of great trade, which principally conſiſts of copper and braſs wares, the ore of which is found in the neighbouring mountains; printed callicos, red and yellow leather, ſilk, madder, caviare, gall nuts, and beautiful furs, particularly ſables. It is likewiſe a repoſitory for vaſt quantities of merchandize, which come from the Eaſt Indies, and

and a great thoroughfare. All who go from hence to Perſia, except Turks, pay a capitation tax of five crowns, and five per cent. for all ſpecie which they carry with them. Every ſtranger who enters the town is obliged to pay five crowns, and all merchandize is taxed at nine per cent. ſix of which goes to the Grand Seignior, and three to the beglerberg.

Fuel is very ſcarce, which is a great inconvenience in a place where the winters are ſo ſevere. In lieu of wood, they are under the neceſſity of ſubſtituting cow-dung to burn. The ſummers are ſhort and hot; and the country near Arzerum is tolerably fertile, but produces no good wine. The wheat is ripe in about two months after it is ſown, and the barley in about four weeks. In the neighbourhood of this city a vaſt quantity of poppies grow, out of which the Turks extract their opium. The caviare is made of the ſpawn of ſturgeons brought from the Caſpian Sea, where theſe fiſh are remarkably fine; yet it is inferior to that made near the Baltic.

The piles of cow-dung, which is made into turfs, and the perpetual burning of that excrement, occaſion a ſcent throughout the city which is very offenſive to ſtrangers. Every thing you eat or drink, even the very cream is tainted with this vapour; yet travellers aſſert that there are coals in the neighbouring hills, but the inhabitants neither underſtand their nature, or how to dig for them. The water is excellent, rivulets of which run through moſt of the ſtreets, but the wine and brandy are difficult to be got at, though they are abominably bad when procured, for the ſale of them is ſtrictly prohibited.—The Greeks are obliged to inhabit the ſuburbs, becauſe, being tinkers, they make ſuch a perpetual clattering with the hammer, that it would diſturb the tranquility of the Turks, who are ſo very delicate and indolent, that they cannot bear the thoughts of a noiſy trade.

The city of Van, or Wan, is ſituated on a lake of the ſame name, one of the largeſt in Aſia, in 38 deg. 12 min. north latitude, and 44 deg. 55 min. eaſt longitude. It is large, and ſtands at the foot of a high craggy mountain, in which there is a fortreſs deemed impregnable, that commands the town and country, and has a ſtrong Turkiſh garriſon. The lake is 150 miles in circumference, receives many rivers into its boſom, and contains ſeveral iſlands; two of theſe, viz. Limdaſi and Adaſeton, are conſiderable, each having little villages and a monaſtery of Armenian monks on it. Here are a great variety of fine fiſh, particularly one of the pilchard kind, large quantities of which are exported to many diſtant places, as well as conſumed at home, being uſed in ſauces, and eaten in the ſame manner as anchovies.

Cars, or Kars, called by the Turks Azem, is in 40 deg. north latitude, and 43 deg. 20 min. eaſt longitude, about 150 miles north of Arzerum. The city is defended by a ſtrong caſtle built upon a ſteep rock: the houſes are mean, and in a ruinous condition.—The country about it, though naturally fertile, is but very little cultivated. The baſhaw of Cars is ſubject to the governor of Arzerum.

Irvan, Erivan, or Chirvan, is ſituated in 40 deg. 10 min. north lat. and 45 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. It is about 180 miles eaſt of Arzerum, and has been alternately poſſeſſed by the Turks and Perſians. It is a ſpacious place, but ill built, and very dirty. The town is watered by two rivers, and the neighbouring country is extremely fertile in corn, wine, rice, cotton, &c. Here proviſions are exceedingly cheap, particularly game, and the fruits and wine are admirable. The public ſquare, or piazza, is handſome; and the bazar, or market, capacious. The baths and caravanſeras, as well as the governor's palace, are elegant and roomy buildings. The river Zangeric iſſues from the lake of Erivan, which is about 25 miles in circumference, and contains an iſland with an Armenian monaſtery, the monks of which lead a life uncommonly auſtere, never ſpeaking to each other but four times a year.

Nackſivan ſtands about 63 miles ſouth of Erivan, and about ſeven leagues from the Araxes, in 39 deg. north lat. and 75 deg. eaſt long. It contains many bazars, caravanſeras, public baths, coffee-houſes, handſome ſtreets, &c. The celebrated battle between Lucullus and Mithridates was fought near it.

Zulpha (or Old Zulpha, to diſtinguiſh it from New Zulpha, near Iſpahan, in Perſia) ſtands on the Araxes, which begins to be navigable about ſix miles below the town. Near it are ſeveral Armenian monaſteries, the monks of which are Roman Catholics of the Dominican order. The diſtrict contains about 6000 ſouls, who are all Roman Catholics, whoſe mode of worſhip is the ſame with thoſe of Europe, except that maſs is celebrated in the Armenian inſtead of the Latin tongue. Their archbiſhop is choſen by themſelves; but he is obliged to go to Rome to be confirmed by the pope before he can officiate. At the foot of a high mountain near Zulpha are ſome medicinal ſprings, particularly celebrated (among their other virtues) for curing perſons bit by any venomous animal.

Georgia, including Mingrelia and Imaretta.

Georgia, or Gurgiſtan, (for the termination of Tan is a Celtic word, and ſignifies country,) is bounded on the north by Circaſſia, on the ſouth by Armenia, on the eaſt by Dagheſtan, and on the weſt by the Euxine or Black Sea. It includes Colchis, Iberia, and Albania.

Georgia, which is partly ſubject to the Turks, and partly to the Perſians, abounds with mountains and woods, which are interſperſed with a variety of beautiful vales, and fertile plains.

Georgia has a dry air, cold in winter, and hot in ſummer. It produces all kinds of fruits, which are excellent, and the bread is hardly to be paralleled. There is plenty of fine cattle. The pork is admirable; The wild and tame fowl incomparable; and the fiſh, both ſea and river, equal to any in the univerſe. The country likewiſe produces great quantities of excellent ſilk.

A late traveller ſays, that the Georgians are robuſt, valiant, and of a ſociable temper; great lovers of wine, and very truſty and faithful; endowed with good natural parts, but, for want of education, vicious; that the women are in general ſo fair and comely, that the wives and concubines of the king of Perſia, and his court, are for the moſt part Georgian women.

Georgia formerly contained many large cities, as hiſtory informs us, and their ruins evince: but at preſent there are but few cities and towns, in proportion to the uncommon fertility, and great extent of the country, and thoſe few are but thinly inhabited, which is, perhaps, owing to the barbarous cuſtom of ſelling the juvenile inhabitants for ſlaves: for the lords ſell their tenants and vaſſals, parents their children, and maſters their ſervants, as they think proper. The principal factors in this unnatural buſineſs are Jews, who purchaſe the boys and girls when very young, give them a ſuitable education, and, when they arrive at a proper age, diſpoſe of them to the Turks and Perſians, by whom they are employed in their armies and ſeraglios, as concubines, ſlaves, mutes, eunuchs, and ſoldiers, and many have been raiſed to the rank of ſtateſmen.

In defence of the above-mentioned cuſtom, the Georgians plead, that it is for the benefit of their children; for if they ſtay in their native country, they are ſure of being hard-working ſlaves: but when they are ſold, they are more careſſed, live better, do leſs, and have a greater chance of advancement than they could have at home. Many of both ſexes, indeed, who have obtained the favour of the great, both

both in the Ottoman and Perſian courts, have had intereſt ſufficient to ſend for their parents and relations, and get them promoted to places of great truſt and importance.

The Georgians are, in general, implacable in their hatred, and unforgiving to thoſe who have offended them. They do not deem drunkenneſs, luxury, or libertiniſm, crimes, or even follies. The women hurt their beauty with paint, and their minds by the moſt licentious behaviour. They are uſerers, and affect a grave deportment. All religions are tolerated in Georgia, every one being at liberty to think, pray, and ſpeak, as he pleaſes. Many individuals of the ſurrounding nations reſide here; and the Armenians in particular, are more numerous than the Georgians themſelves. They are likewiſe richer, and occupy the principal places of truſt and power.

All the public edifices, and the houſes of the great, are built after the model of the Perſian houſes. They likewiſe imitate them in eating, ſitting, and lying.—They have buttons and loops to their veſts, and wear them open at their breaſts. The habits of the women are entirely Perſian. The men's covering for the legs and feet is in the Perſian faſhion; but their bonnets or hats reſemble thoſe of the Polanders.

The Georgian nobles are all tyrants, and exerciſe the moſt deſpotic cruelty over their vaſſals, and dependents.

The ſovereignty of the Turks and Perſians over Georgia is rather nominal than real; for as they are a hardy, warlike people, and can eaſily retire to and defend the paſſes of their mountains, it is rather dangerous to quarrel with them, as no army can ſubdue them; and, from the nature of their country, they might become exceeding troubleſome, by making incurſions into the neighbouring Turkiſh and Perſian provinces.

Though the prince of Georgia is a Mahometan, the generality of the people are Chriſtians, or at leaſt pretend to be ſo; for they are ſo extremely ignorant, that they ſcarce underſtand the meaning of what they profeſs. A late traveller mentions an abſurd cuſtom which prevails in this country, the reaſon of which he could never find out; that is, the building their churches upon high and almoſt inacceſſible places, where they are abandoned to the injuries of the weather, and ſuffered to be the habitations of birds.—From their ſituation, the Georgians can ſee them at a great diſtance, when they never fail to ſalute them with great reſpect, but take care ſeldom to enter them. In ſome of the towns, however, the churches are kept pretty decent. Beſides the patriarch, there are ſeveral biſhops, and a great number of inferior clergy.

Some Georgians, who have more decency and conſcience than their neighbours, follow the Armenian cuſtom of marrying their daughters when infants, to prevent their being ſold for ſlaves, or taken away by the great lords as concubines.

The only conſiderable and fortified towns in Georgia are five in number, viz. Teflis, Gory-Caket, Zagan, Suram, and Aly: and the principal rivers are, the Kur, or Cyrus, and the Aragus. The firſt riſes in the Moſchian mountains, and diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian Sea; the latter ſprings from the mountains which ſeparate Iberia from Colchis, and falls into the Cyrus.

Teflis, the capital of Georgia, is one of the beſt cities in the oriental regions. It is watered by the river Kur. The walls are ſtrong and handſome.—It contains fourteen churches; ſix belong to the Georgians, and eight to the Armenians. The cathedral, called Sion, is a ſtone church, built near the river. A large dome, ſupported by four maſſy pillars, riſes in the middle; and adjoining to it is the biſhop's palace.

On the declivity of the mountain there is a large fortreſs, containing an arſenal, a market, and a public ſquare.

The Georgians uſe bells in their churches, ſell pork in the markets, and vend wine in the ſtreets. The bezars, caravanſeras, and ſome other of the houſes, are built of ſtone, but the generality are only erected of mud and bricks, and are low and dark. The ſtreets are very badly paved, and conſequently diſagreeable either in wet or dry weather. The palace of the prince is a ſuperb building. It is adorned with extenſive and beautiful gardens, aviaries, falconries, &c. and before it there is a large ſquare ſurrounded with ſhops.

Teflis is ſituated in 42 deg. 47 min. north latitude; and 47 deg. 5. min. eaſt longitude. It is very populous. The ſtaple commodity is furs; but great quantities of raw ſilk are ſent to various places, as the Georgians know nothing of weaving. The inhabitants of the city are thought to amount to about 20,000. Many tolerable houſes, and fine gardens, render the environs very pleaſant for ſeveral miles round.

The principal amuſements of the inhabitants of Teflis is bathing. The baths are agreeable places, and contain fine ſprings, ſome hot, others cold, and others lukewarm. The Grand Vizir's houſe is the fineſt in the city, and the Capuchins' monaſtery is pleaſant. Theſe Itatian fathers receive from Rome annually but 25 Roman crowns each to maintain them: but they are permitted to practiſe phyſic, of which they know very little. If the patient dies they receive no pay; if he recovers, ſlaves, wine, cows, ſheep, &c. are ſent to the convent by way of gratuity. The Georgians make but little uſe of money, rather chuſing to deal by way of barter. Travellers have, therefore, an opportunity of procuring the moſt excellent proviſions in great quantities, in exchange for trifles, ſuch as neck-laces, rings, bracelets, knives, pins, needles, &c. They uſe neither weights or meaſures; and are ſuch bad arithmeticians that they cannot count an hundred.

In Georgia a merchant is leſs reſpected than a mechanic, and a mechanic leſs than a huſbandman. The principal merchants and traders are Armenians, whom the Georgians naturally hate, and look upon in the ſame deſpicable light as Jews are conſidered in Europe. One of the moſt reſpectable employments in Georgia is that of a public executioner. The profeſſion is deemed reſpectable and honourable, and the profeſſors are all rich. If a man can trace a hangman amongſt his anceſtors, he is extremely proud of it, and never fails to mention it frequently with exultation; at the ſame time obſerving, that nothing is ſo noble as executing juſtice, and that the ſafety of the ſtate depends on the extermination of criminals.

With reſpect to Turkey and Perſia, Georgia is in much the ſame predicament as Flanders is in Europe; for when a war happens between thoſe empires, this country is uſually the ſeat of it.

The Prince of Georgia, beſides what is uſually allowed him by the Emperor, has the cuſtoms of Teflis, the duties upon brandy and melons, and one ſheep for every fire-hearth in the whole country, which amounts to 40,000 ſheep. The crown eſtates ſupply him with wine, butter, wax, grain of all kinds, vegetables, fruits, &c. A great deal of gunpowder is made in Georgia, particularly at Teflis, the mountains near that city producing large quantities of nitre. The people eat and burn a great deal of linſeed oil, which they have in great plenty, but they value only the ſeed, as they have no idea of beating the ſtalk for ſpinning.

When a Georgian dies, a biſhop ſays maſs over the corpſe, for which he receives an hundred crowns. If the defunct has not left money ſufficient to diſcharge this exorbitant demand, ſome of his quondam friends

very

very obligingly ſell his wife and children for ſlaves, to raiſe the money; for the clergy muſt not go unpaid. The biſhop then ſays maſs, and afterwards lays a letter upon the breaſt of the corpſe, which is only a complimentary card to St. Peter, to inform him that the funeral expences have been honeſtly paid, and to entreat him, therefore, to be ſo obliging as to open the gates of paradiſe to the deceaſed. The body is then wrapt up in linen and buried. The Mahometans here have the ſame abſurd cuſtom of ſending a note by the dead to Mahomet.

The Georgian men are uſually more ignorant than the women; for the girls are, in general, brought up in monaſteries, where they learn to read and write. If any of the girls chuſe to become profeſſed nuns, they are authoriſed to baptize, and apply holy oil.

The language of the Georgians is remarkable for its beautiful ſimplicity.

Mingrelia, known to the ancients by the appellation of Colchis, is bounded on the eaſt by Georgia, properly ſo called; on the weſt by the Euxine Sea; on the north by mount Caucaſus; and on the ſouth by Armenia, and part of Pontus.

Mingrelia is watered by many rivers, viz. the Corax, Hippus-Cyaneus, Chariſtus, Abſarus, Ciſſa, Ophis, and Phaſis, where the Argonauts landed. All the above rivers empty themſelves into the Euxine Sea; but none of them are conſiderable except the Phaſis, which riſes in mount Caucaſus. The inhabitants of this celebrated mountain are ſaid, by the moſt authentic writers, to have little, beſides ſpeech, which can entitle them to humanity. They are tall and well made; but their looks are fierce, and indicate the ſavage diſpoſition of their minds. They are, in fact, the moſt daring, ferocious, and determined robbers in the world.

The country is, in general, extremely woody, very uneven, full of hills, and but little cultivated. The ſoil is bad and ſterile; and the fruits are all ill taſted and unwholeſome, except the grapes, which might be converted into ſome of the beſt wine in the univerſe, if the natives did but know how to make it. Rains almoſt continually fall, which occaſion ſuch a quantity of humid vapours to mingle with the hot exhalations natural to the climate, that peſtilence, and a variety of other diſeaſes, afflict the natives almoſt continually. The earth is ſo moiſt, that the few who turn their thoughts to agriculture ſow their wheat and barley without ploughing: and, for their other ſeeds, they turn up the land with little wooden ploughs, which are ſufficiently ſtrong to make furrows in ſo ſoft a ſoil. Colchis was ſaid, by the ancients, to be exceedingly pleaſant and fertile, and even to abound in mines of gold, which gave riſe to the celebrated fable of the golden fleece, and the Argonautic expedition; for the inhabitants uſed to catch the gold duſt, which was brought down by the torrents from mount Caucaſus, by ſetting fleeces of wool acroſs ſome of the narrow paſſages of thoſe torrents.

The country abounds in beeves, hogs, wild boars, ſtags, partridges, pheaſants, quails, &c. On mount Caucaſus, falcons, eagles, pelicans, tygers, lions, leopards wolves, and jackals breed.

Their bread is made of a ſmall grain, called *goomi:* it is agreeable to the taſte, ſalubrious, cooling, and laxative. The people of quality, however, eat wheaten bread; not that they like it better, but becauſe it is more ſcarce. Their principal food is beef and pork, the latter being excellent. The nobility ſpend a great deal of their time in catching and killing game, ſuch as pheaſants, water fowl, &c. But their favourite diverſion is flying the falcon at the heron, which is no ſooner taken, than they cut the beautiful tuft of feathers from its head, and let it go again. They have a great number of excellent horſes, which are never ſhod or fed with corn.

The country is every where interſperſed with houſes. The caſtles there are about ten in number; in the principal of which, named Rues, the prince keeps his court, and depoſits his treaſures; though the garriſon conſiſts only of about ſixty perſons. Near the caſtle are ſeveral magazines for proviſions, which ſerve for places of retreat upon emergencies. They have many huts made of the branches of trees, canes, and reeds; and are ſo ſecure in theſe retreats, that none can come at them, but by one winding narrow paſſage, which is always ſtopt up when they apprehend an attack.

As the Mingrelians have great plenty of timber, they build their houſes of wood, but never raiſe them above two ſtories. They have neither windows nor chimnies, but are furniſhed with beds and couches. At night, not only the whole family, but the cattle, all lie in one room.

The men are well proportioned, and the women pretty; but they paint their faces and eye-brows. They wear their hair in curled ringlets; are witty and polite; but vain, luxurious, treacherous, and ferocious; dextrous thieves, and glory in theft. They think it prudent, as well as lawful, to have many wives, becauſe they bring them many children, whom they can ſell for money, or barter for neceſſaries. When children, however, come too quick, they do not heſitate to murder them. They likewiſe murder the ſick and aged, and pretend they do it with the benevolent deſign of putting them out of their miſery. Adultery is thought but a trifle: for when a man catches another in familiarity with his wife, he obliges him to pay a hog, which is immediately dreſſed, and all three ſit down very lovingly to feaſt upon it.

The lords are the umpires in all diſputes between their vaſſals: but when there is a quarrel between any of the great lords, they have recourſe to arms.

The eccleſiaſtics have long beards; but the laity ſuffer very little of their beards to grow. They ſhave the head, leaving only a little hair upon the forehead and round the ears. Their bonnet is made of felt, and in winter is lined with fur, but is not of much uſe to them, for when it rains they put it in their pockets, and go bareheaded to ſave it. They are ſo poor that the common people go almoſt naked, and have only a covering of a triangular form, which they turn againſt wind or rain. They wear a ſhirt, but have ſeldom more than one at a time, and that they only waſh three times in a year. The ſhirt is tucked into a pair of breeches; and on the feet they wear ſandals made of the untanned hide of a buffalo, which are faſtened with thongs of the ſame. In winter they wear ſnow ſhoes.

The whole of every family of both ſexes eat together. On holidays they eat veniſon, beef, and pork; but at other times the maſters have fiſh and pulſe, and the inferiors nothing but *gomms*. If the weather will permit, they dine in the open court. Both ſexes uſually get drunk at their entertainments, when the men boaſt of their thefts, and the women of their debaucheries.

The continual ſale of the Mingrelians to the Turks and Perſians, and their perpetual ſquabbles among themſelves, have greatly depopulated the country. The revenues of the prince are eſtimated at about 20,000 crowns per annum, which are raiſed by fines, impoſitions, the ſale of ſlaves, and duties on all imports and exports. Of this money he ſpends very little; for his crown lands are more than ſufficient to maintain him, and the people are obliged to work for him for nothing. His forces are principally cavalry, and do not amount to above 4000 effective men. Every lord leads his own people to battle, but they are ſo badly diſciplined, that they march, charge, and retreat without order. All commerce is carried on by barter; though they have money which bears the Perſian ſtamp, but is coined in Georgia, the value of which is always fluctuating.

The Mingrelians profeſs themſelves Chriſtians, but are exceedingly ignorant in all religious matters. Few of the clergy can either read or write, but they greatly impoſe upon the laity, by pretending to divination. Moſt eccleſiaſtical writers ſay, that a Chriſtian converted theſe people in the reign of Conſtantine the Great: but the Mingrelians themſelves attribute that work to St. Andrew, who, they affirm, came and preached among them, at a place called Piguitas, where there is at preſent a church. The head of their religion is called Catholicos, who is obliged to go once in his life to the above-mentioned church, to make holy oil.

When a Mingrelian is ſick, a prieſt is ſent for, not to pray by him, but to predict whether he will live or die. Having opened a book he looks gravely in it; then ſhutting the book ſuddenly, he declares that the patient will inevitably die, unleſs a very handſome preſent is made to himſelf. The ſick perſon being greatly terrified, entreats the prieſt to take what he pleaſes.

The cathedral is a tolerable building, and the images within are finely adorned with gold and jewels. The ſuperior clergy wear long beards, black bonnets, and robes of ſcarlet and velvet; but thoſe of the inferior claſs make but a deſpicable appearance, and are obliged to work for their great lords as hard as the laity. The generality of their other churches are very naſty, and their images filthy, though their worſhip of them is exceeding idolatrous. Having no bells, when they call the people to church, which is but ſeldom, they ſtrike againſt the board with a great ſtick. They pay the greateſt reſpect, and make the largeſt preſents to thoſe ſaints who have the character of being the moſt cruel and ſavage. St. Giobas is the greateſt favourite, becauſe they think he would kill all who came near him; they therefore only peep at him at a diſtance, and lay down their preſents. Their maſs is after the Greek manner, with this difference, the Greek prieſts repeat the whole perfectly, but the Mingrelians only mumble the ceremony. For their chalice they have a wooden bowl, and a wooden diſh for their paten. They conſecrate both leavened and unleavened bread, and drink the wine without its being mixed with water.

They baptize by immerſion; and as ſoon as the child is chriſtened, the prieſt, parents, godfathers and gueſts, indulge themſelves to the greateſt exceſs. When a man want's a wife he muſt buy her: a tolerable good price is given for a virgin, leſs for a widow, and leaſt of all for a woman who has been divorced. When the nuptial contract is made, the couple may cohabit together previous to the payment of the money. They may alſo divorce their wives, either for barrenneſs or ill-nature.

They keep their dead forty days above ground, during which time they mourn. At firſt they make a terrible howling and ſcreaming, tearing their cloaths all into tatters, beating their breaſts, ſcratching their faces, and tearing off their hair; but their lamentations gradually diminiſh till the fortieth day, when the body is buried; an entertainment is made, the moſt extravagant mirth is encouraged, and the mourners get drunk in order to forget the deceaſed. Whenever any of the laity die, a biſhop always performs the funeral ſervice, and then lays claim to all that belonged to the deceaſed; but when a biſhop dies, the prince himſelf ſays maſs, in order to have the privilege of plundering his houſe. Thus a burial is generally the ruin of a whole family.

The Mingrelians, when they eat pork, or drink wine, make the ſign of the croſs, for which none of them can give the leaſt reaſon. All their prayers are addreſſed to their ſaints, to whom they ſacrifice; and their greateſt feſtivals are when theſe images are carried about in proceſſion, in order to get money from the people. At Chriſtmas and Eaſter they do not work, but labour all the reſt of the year. They keep four great lents, viz. 48 days before Eaſter, 40 days before Chriſtmas, St. Peter's faſt, which holds a month, and the faſt of the Virgin Mary, which laſts 15 days.

In Mingrelia are ſome monks of the order, of St. Baſil. They obſerve the faſts with great punctuality, but are very little ſolicitous about any other point of religion. They ſuffer their hair to grow, eat no fleſh, and wear black bonnets. There are nuns of the ſame order, who are neither confined to any particular place of reſidence, nor reſtricted by any vows, but become ſeculars when they pleaſe, and reſemble nuns in nothing but wearing black veils.

In ancient times there were ſome cities of note in this country, particularly Pityus, Dioſcurias, and Aea on the Phaſis, ſo named from the river in which it ſtood. Cyta, at the mouth of the river Cyaneus, the birth place of the famous Medea, called from thence by the poets, Cytæis, Saracæ, Zadnis, Surinum, Media, and Zaliffa.

Immaretta is about 120 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. It contains many hills and woods, but the plains produce corn, cattle, pulſe, &c. It is, upon the whole, more fertile and plentiful than Mingrelia. They have ſome excellent iron mines, carry on a great deal of commerce, and coin money. The principal towns are Cotatis and Akalziki.

Cotatis was the reſidence of the prince or king of Immaretta, but is now only the reſidence of a Turkiſh baſhaw. It is ſituated at the foot of a mountain, on the top of which there is a ſtrong caſtle to command and defend it. It is watered by the Phaſis. The town has no walls, and contains only about 200 houſes. It lies open on all ſides, exeept where the rivers and mountains ſurround it. On the oppoſite ſide of the river there is a citadel on an eminence, which has a double wall, and is flanked with high towers, It lies in 42 deg. 23 min. north latitude; and 43 deg. 54 min. eaſt longitude.

Alkalziki is likewiſe the reſidence of a Turkiſh baſhaw. It is ſituated in a hole, ſurrounded by about twenty hills, in 41 deg. 55 min. north latitude; and 44 deg. 55 min. eaſt longitude. The river Kur flows very near it. The town contains about 400 houſes. The inhabitants are a mixture of Georgians, Armenians, Jews, Turks, Greeks, &c. who have ſeveral churches, and a ſynagogue. The houſes are built of wood, and the walls and fortifications are old and ruinous.

Abaſcia is the northenmoſt of theſe countries, having the Euxine Sea to the ſouth, Circaſſia, on the weſt, and mount Caucaſus on the north and eaſt. The principal traffick is in ſlaves. The inhabitants, however, deal in the ſkins of tygers, deer, &c. boxwood, honey, wax, and thread, which they exchange with the merchants who come upon the coaſt, for many things which they have occaſion for. They were once Chriſtians, but at preſent are exceedingly ignorant, and little better than ſavages. They go almoſt naked, and live in little, mean, low huts.

Moſt geographers include Comania in Georgia; which is bounded by the Caſpian Sea to the eaſt: by a ridge of mountains, which part it from Circaſſia, to the weſt; by Aſiatic Muſcovy to the north; and by Georgia on the ſouth. The country is thinly inhabited, and badly cultivated; but the ſoil is flat, low, and fertile. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, which deſcend from the mountains about Caucaſus. The climate is rather cold, and pretty much ſubject to rains. The inhabitants, who are called Comani, or Kamouche, live principally by plunder. They wear Perſian linens and ſilks, but dreſs like the natives of Little Tartary. The men wear ſhort jackets and drawers, and the women long looſe gowns, which reſemble ſhifts. They have no place that can be called a town, but their little hamlets conſiſt of about ſixty huts.

*

huts. Their food is milk, game, the fleſh of their cattle, honey, ſuch fruits as their country ſpontaneouſly produces, and rice, which they have from Perſia.

CHAP. V.

NATOLIA, OR THE LESSER ASIA, IN THE WEST.

Chief Towns, Inhabitants, Buildings, Rivers, &c.

NATOLIA, or Anatolia Proper, is the neareſt to Europe, and the largeſt of the four provinces into which Aſia Minor is divided. It extends almoſt from 26 to 35 deg. of eaſt longitude, and from 37 to 41 deg. of north latitude; being bounded on the weſt by the Archipelago and Propontis; on the north, by the Euxine ſea; on the ſouth, by Caramania; and, on the eaſt, by Amaſia and Aladulia; and contains the provinces of Bithynia, Myſia, the Leſſer Phrygia, Æolis, Ionia, Caria, Doris, Lydia, Phrygia, Paphlagonia, and Galatia.

The chief towns in Natolia, which merit our notice, are, Burſa, Nice, Smyrna, and Epheſus.

Burſa is the capital of Bithynia, and was the metropolis of the whole Ottoman empire before the Turks poſſeſſed themſelves of Conſtantinople. It lies in 40 deg. 16 min. north lat. and 29 deg. 35 min. eaſt long. and is ſituated at the foot of Mount Olympus, twenty miles from the ſea of Marmora, and fifty-eight ſouth of Conſtantinople: it is exceeding well built, and deemed one of the beſt paved cities in all the Turkiſh empire; the ſtreets are ſpacious, the caravanſeras noble and convenient, and the moſques magnificent. This city ſtill preſerves a ſhare of its ancient grandeur, beauty, and opulence: it is likewiſe a place of conſiderable traffick. In the Bezeſtine all kinds of commodities of home manufactory, and others from the Levant, are expoſed to ſale. The workmen here manufacture the beſt ſilks, hangings, carpets, tapeſtries, &c. in Turkey.

The city is about three miles in circumference, but the walls are falling to decay. It is computed to contain 40,000 Turks. The ſuburbs, which are more ſpacious and handſome than the city itſelf, are inhabited by 4000 Jews, 500 Armenians, and 300 Greek families, independent of many foreigners who are ſettled here. The fine orchards, gardens, plantations of mulberry, plantain, and other trees, &c. afford ſome of the moſt delightful, pleaſant, and ſhady walks that imagination can conceive. All the neceſſaries, and even luxuries of life, are excellent in their kinds, very plentiful, and quite reaſonable: the wine in particular is exquiſite, and the fiſh of an excellent taſte and flavour.

There is a caſtle in the middle of the city: it was once the palace, but is now running to decay. The ſeraglio, built by Mahomet IV. is a noble edifice. —There are ſome excellent hot baths in the city; and in the ſuburbs the Greeks have three handſome churches, the Armenians one, and the Jews four ſynagogues.

Nice, called by the Turks Nickor, ſtands about thirty miles from Conſtantinople, in 40 deg. 32 min. north lat. and 29 deg. 40 min. eaſt long. being ſituated near a gulph of the ſea of Marmora, called Aſcanio or Aſcu; though its ancient ſplendour is much diminiſhed, it is ſtill a conſiderable place, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants, Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, whoſe commerce is very great in corn, fruit, tapeſtries, fine cloths, and other merchandize brought from the Levant. The ſtreets are large and well built: there is a ſeraglio in the higheſt part of the town.

Smyrna, which the Turks call Iſmir, lies in 38 deg. 15 min. north lat. and 27 deg. 10 min. eaſt long. It is the beſt ſea-port town in the Levant, and the moſt populous and opulent city of Aſia Minor; being about eight days journey by land from Conſtantinople, and about 133 leagues by water. In the time of the Romans, it was looked upon as the moſt beautiful of the Tenian cities, and was called, The Ornament of Aſia.

The commodious harbour and advantageous ſituation of Smyrna have rendered it one of the moſt opulent cities in Turkey. The haven is defended by a ſtrong caſtle, and ſheltered from all winds except the weſterly, by high mountains. There is an aſtoniſhing conflux of people in Smyrna, of ſeveral nations, who differ in manners, dreſs, language, religion, &c. The Turks occupy the greateſt part of the town; the Proteſtants and Roman Catholics have their chapels, and the Jews a ſnagogue or two. The Armenians have a large handſome church, with a contiguous burying-ground.

The principal buildings are the moſques, baths, market, and khans, and ſome of theſe are very noble; the ſtreets in general are narrow, inconvenient, and intricate; but the moſt diſagreeable circumſtance to thoſe who live here is the great heats, which commence in June, and continue till September: this city is likewiſe annually viſited by the plague.

Proviſions are extremely plenty in Smyrna: the tails of ſome of the ſheep weigh ten pounds, and are deemed a great dainty. The fiſh taken in the bay are excellent; wild hogs, hares, and all other kinds of game, fowls, &c. may be had in abundance; the wine, olives, fruits, &c. are all admirable. The muſquetoes, as well as a much ſmaller fly, of which the name is unknown, are extremely troubleſome, but more ſo to ſtrangers than natives; lemon juice is the beſt remedy for the fiery tumours which enſue.

In the harbour are always ſhips of almoſt all nations, and all burdens. The European merchants bring hither a great variety of goods from Europe, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, &c. export fine and coarſe wool, ſilk, cotton, mohair, wax, rhubarb, gall-nuts, opium, aloes, ſcammony, tutty, galbanum, tacamahac, gum-tragacanth, ammoniac, and arabic, myrrh, frankincenſe, zedoar, &c. The town is ſuppoſed to contain about 15,000 Turks, 10,000 Greeks, and 2000 Jews, beſides Armenians, Franks, &c. The whole country is exceedingly rich and fertile. In the neighbourhood a kind of earth is found, which being boiled with oil makes excellent ſoap.

Epheſus is in 18 deg. 16 min. north latitude, and 27 deg. 3 min. eaſt longitude. It lies about fifty miles ſouth of Smyrna, twenty-three of Miletus, and ſixty-three from Laodicea, and was anciently the metropolis of all Aſia; Epheſus and Smyrna having been termed the eyes of Aſia Minor: but of this once ſplendid, opulent, and magnificent city, nothing remains but about thirty houſes, inhabited by Greek families, who are miſerably poor, and ſo exceedingly ignorant, that none of them are able to read the admirable epiſtle with which St. Paul honoured them. Its firſt biſhop was Timothy, whom St. Paul appointed to that miniſtration. St. John the Evangeliſt was buried here. The Greeks call this city Efeſo, and the Turks have given it the name of Ajeſalouch. There are many noble ruins, particularly of an aqueduct, a theatre, and a circus. The celebrated painter Parrhaſius, and the weeping philoſopher Heraclitus, were natives of this place. The principal ornament of Epheſus was the celebrated temple of Diana, one of the wonders of the world. It was built at the foot of a mountain, and the head of a marſh; which ſituation was choſen, as Pliny informs us, becauſe leſs ſubject to earthquakes. Four hundred years were ſpent in building this wonderful temple. It was 405 feet in length, and 200 in breadth,

breadth, ſupported by 117 pillars, 70 feet in height, of which 27 were moſt curiouſly carved, and the reſt admirably poliſhed. The temple of Diana was burnt by Eroſtratus, through no other motive, as he himſelf confeſſed upon the rack, than to eternize his name. This remarkable tranſaction happened the very day on which Alexander the Great was born, in the year of the world 3648, and 356 before the birth of Chriſt. There is yet ſtanding a church dedicated to St. John, which was erected by the primitive Chriſtians, but is at preſent converted into a Turkiſh moſque.

Lydia, or Mæonia, is bounded on the eaſt by Phrygia, on the weſt by the Archipelago, on the north by Myſia, and on the ſouth by Caria. It was anciently called Mæonia, and was once the kingdom of the celebrated Crœſus. It is a fine fertile country, being watered by the Caicus, Heymen, Cayſter, Meander, and the Pactolus, ſo celebrated by the ancient poets for its ſand of gold. Tmolus, famed for its wine and ſaffron, is the principal mountain in this country. At preſent the indolent Turks ſuffer this fine country to be over-run with brambles, and lie entirely uncultivated. The chief places are,

Sardis, formerly the metropolis of Lydia, and the ſeat of the rich king Crœſus, is now a very inconſiderable village, ſeated on the banks of the Pactolus, at the foot of mount Tmolus. It is about forty-eight miles eaſt of Smyrna, and only inhabited by ſhepherds. It, however, contains a large caravanſera for the accommodation of travellers and caravans, who paſs through it from Smyrna and Aleppo in their way to Perſia. The magnificent ruins that are ſtill viſible give, however, an idea of its ancient ſplendour to the beholder. It had one of the ſeven Aſiatic churches.

Philadelphia had another of the ſeven churches, was formerly a very populous city, and is ſtill a tolerable town, containing about 7000 inhabitants, who are principally Greeks. It is filled with the ruins of many ſuperb edifices. Here are four churches; and as the neighbouring country is very fertile, proviſions are pretty plenty. The Turks call it Alla-Scheur, or the City of God.

Thyatira, or, as the Turks call it, Akiſhar, had another of the ſeven churches. It ſtands upon the banks of the Hermus, on the confines of Myſia, about twenty-ſix miles north from Sardis, and fifty-ſix north eaſt of Smyrna. The houſes are low and mean, being built with mud and turf. It contains about 500 inhabitants, who are chiefly Turks. The only manufacture is that of cotton. The neighbouring plains are full of cotton trees and tamariſks.

Ancyri, or, as the Turks call it, Angouri, or Angora, is in 40 deg. north lat. and 32 deg. 58 min. eaſt long. 250 miles eaſt of Smyrna. It is a very populous and trading place. The inhabitants are eſtimated at 40,000 Turks, 5000 Armenians, and 1000 Greeks. The chief manufacture was camblets; the evidences of its primitive grandeur are innumerable; the ſtreets, piazzas, &c. being full of ſtately remains, columns, &c. of the fineſt marble, porphyry, red jaſper, and other beautiful ſtones, elegantly wrought; the modern buildings, however, are mean, low, and formed only of mud and turf. The ſheep bred here are ſome of the fineſt, and the goats the moſt beatiful in the univerſe; the hair of the latter is of a dazzling whiteneſs, as fine as ſilk.

Natolia is excellently well watered; the principal rivers are the Zanthus, Cydnus, Meander, Granicus, Scamander, Cayſter, Hermus, Pactolus, and Caicus, which diſcharge themſelves into the Mediterranean and Euxine ſeas, the Archipelago, and the Euphrates. The principal lake is Gool-Bug-Shaw, 50 miles long, and 20 broad.

*

Amaſia.

This province is bounded on the north by the Euxine ſea; on the ſouth, by Caramania and Aladulia; on the eaſt, by Armenia; and on the weſt, by Natolia Proper.

The capital city, called alſo Amaſia, and by the Turks Amnaſan, is about 60 miles from the Euxine ſea, and 40 eaſt of Tocat, ſituated on the river Iris, or Caſalmach, as it is now called. Though the place is large, the commerce is inconſiderable; the river, however, is navigable for ſhips of great burthen up to the town itſelf. On a mountain to the eaſt there is a ſtrong caſtle, and a wooden bridge over the river.—There are only two caravanſeras at preſent in the city. This was formerly a place of great beauty and importance.

Trapezonde, or Trebizonde, called by the Turks Tarabozan, is ſituated in the ancient Pontus Cappadocia, on the eaſtern parts of Amaſia, at the foot of a hill. It is a kind of peninſula, running into the Euxine ſea. It lies in 41 deg. 5 min. north lat. and 39 deg. 22 min. eaſt long. at about eighteen miles diſtance from Tocat. The walls of this city are high and ſtrong, defended by towers, battlements, &c.—The environs, though little cultivated, are very fertile; the neighbouring mountains are covered with ſtately woods of various trees, ſuch as oaks, elms, beech, &c. which are of an aſtoniſhing height, and the whole face of the country forms an agreeable landſcape. In the city, the gardens and groves are as numerous as the houſes; but the ſuburbs, which are inhabited by Greeks and Armenians, are more extenſive and populous than the city itſelf. A great deal of rock-honey is found in the adjacent parts, which is ſo exceedingly luſcious as to render the eating much of it dangerous.

Tocat, or New Cæſarea, lies in 38 deg. 48 min. north lat. and 30 deg. 58 min. eaſt long. and is a conſiderable thoroughfare for the caravans to Smyrna. It ſtands partly at the foot, and partly on the ſides of two very high hills, on the river Toſanlu. The environs are extremely fertile, ſome excellent plants are produced, and curious foſſils found, particulatly many ſubterraneous vegetations of admirable beauty. The garriſon conſiſts of about 1000 janiſſaries and ſpahis. Here are twelve moſques with minarets, and many without; ſeven Armenian churches, and one Greek chapel. The city and ſuburbs are ſuppoſed to contain 20,000 Turkiſh, 4000 Armenian, and about 500 Greek families.

Aladulia, or Anadulia.

This country, which is the third diviſion of Aſia Minor, is called, by the Turks, Dulgadir. It is unfit for the purpoſes of agriculture, being rough and hilly; but abounds in excellent paſture, and produces abundance of excellent fruit, wines, and cattle, particularly horſes and camels, beſides vaſt herds of goats and ſheep; veniſon, all kinds of game, &c. There is ſilver, copper, iron, alum, &c. in the mountains.

Ajazzo, or Lajazzo (placed by ſome geographers in Caramania) was formerly called Iſſus, and is ſituated in a gulph of the Mediterranean, to which it gives its name. It is a neat, ſtrong, opulent, ſea-port town, and was antiently a place of very great importance.

Marat, Mars, or Maraph, is a large well-built city, in the ſouth-eaſt boundaries of the province. It is ſituated on a ſmall river, which falls into the Euphrates about 180 miles to the ſouthward of Trebizonde: it is a place of ſome commerce, and a baſhaw reſides here.

Caiſa, the ancient Cœſærea, is a large town on the banks of the Milas, near mount Argæus, and about 70 miles weſt of Seiſas. The walls are ſtrong, and flanked

flanked with towers. The caſtle is in the centre of the city. The baza is handſome, and well furniſhed with all ſorts of merchandize, the houſes in its neighbourhood are built either in the form of a tower with a cupola, or they reſemble a ſugar-loaf. Their principal trade is in cotton. The city is well ſupplied with water from the river.

Caramania.

The province of Caramania extends itſelf along the Mediterranean coaſt from north to ſouth, compriſing the ancient Pamphylia, Piſidia, Lycaonia, and Cilicia, with part of Iſauria, Phrygia, Pacatiana, Cappadocia, &c. It reaches from the neighbourhood of Alexandretta to the gulph of Macri, at the mouth of which lies the iſland of Rhodes. The Turks call this country Caraman-Ili: it is divided into the Greater and Leſſer; the latter lying along the ſea-coaſt, and the former to the north of Mount Tauris. The principal town is

Satalia, anciently called Attalia, and by the Turks Sataliah. It was formerly an important city in Pamphylia, at the bottom of the gulph of its name, in 36 deg. 45 min. north lat. and 31 deg. 20 min. eaſt long. It is the ſtrongeſt place the Turks have upon this coaſt. The harbour would be commodious, if the entrance was not difficult and dangerous. This is one of the moſt ſingular places in the univerſe, being divided into three diſtinct towns, each of which is divided from the others by its own ſtrong walls, and the gates are ſhut up preciſely at noon every Friday till one o'clock, from a pretended prophecy, that on ſuch an hour the Chriſtians are to ſurpriſe it. The whole is about ſix miles in circumference; the buildings are good, the place populous, and the trade conſiderable. The caſtle, which commands the town, is a very good one. The neighbouring country is very fertile and delightful, being covered with citron and orange-trees, which afford an exquiſite fragrancy. The ſummers are ſo hot, that they who can afford it retire towards the mountains, where there is more air and ſhade.

Teraſſo, Tarſon, or Horn, the ancient Tarſus, is ſituated upon the Cydnus, about ſix miles from its mouth. If we may venture to judge by the ruins of the old wall, it appears to have been near 12 miles in circumference. At the mouth of the river there is a commodious harbour. The lake Rhegium is about a mile below the town, through which the Cydnus runs; but, this place is at preſent quite decayed.

The Xanthus, Lamus, Ceſtrus, Eurymedon, Cydnus, Sarus or Smarus, Pyramus, Simyras, Latamao, &c. are the principal rivers. Caramania contains alſo many celebrated mountains, viz. Olympus (of which name there are many in Aſia) Cragus, and Antigragus, all in Lycia; Amanus in Cilicia; the great chain called Mount Tauris; and the celebrated Lycian volcano mountain, called by the ancients Chimæra.

Syria, with Paleſtine, or the Holy Land, Eaſt of the Levant Sea.

This diviſion of Turkiſh Aſia, called by the Turks Sourie and Souriſtan, was originally ſo named from its capital Tzor or Tzur, which the Greeks ſoftened into Sur and Tyre. This country includes Syria, properly ſo called, Phœnicia or Phenice, and Judea or Paleſtine. It extends from north to ſouth about 400 miles, and about 200 from eaſt to weſt, being bounded on the north by Mount Amanus and a branch of Mount Tauris, which ſeparates it from Armenia Minor and Cilicia; on the weſt, by Arabia the Deſert; and on the eaſt by the Euphrates, which divides it from Meſopotamia or Diarbec.

Libanus, Anti-Libanus, Gilead, Tabor, Carmel, Caſſius, Amanus, and Alſadaurus, with ſome ſmaller in Judea, viz. Sion, Hermon, Ebal, Olivet, Calvary, Gerizim, and Moriah, are the principal mountains.

The chief rivers are the Euphrates, Jordan, Caſſimeor, Licomes, Chryſorrhoas, Orontes, Odonis, Cherſeus, and Coik.

The air of Syria is the moſt ſerene, temperate, and healthful imaginable; during the hot months of June, July, and Auguſt, it is agreeably refreſhed by cooling breezes from the mediterranean. The face of the country is delightful and level, the ſoil rich and fertile. It abounds not only with all the neceſſaries of life, but with all the delicacies that can gratify the moſt luxurious appetite; and is ſuperior, in point of climate and produce, to all other countries that even lie under the ſame parallel of latitude. In ſhort, though Syria contains ſome rocky mountains, it would be the fineſt and moſt deſirable country in the univerſe, were it not under ſuch a deſpotic government as that of the Turks.

In this part of Turkey, we meet with the following principal cities and towns:

Aleppo, the fineſt and moſt opulent city in all Syria, lies in 36 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 37 deg. 50 min. eaſt long. It ſtands on four hills, about 60 miles to the eaſtward of Scanderoon, is about three (including the ſuburbs, ſeven) miles in circuit, has twelve gates, and the walls, which are tolerably ſtrong, are flanked with towers. Moſt of the ſtreets are well paved, and the houſes in general better built than they commonly are in other towns in Turkey. On a hill, in the centre of the city, ſtands a large caſtle well mounted with cannon, and has a large garriſon. Here are about 120 moſques, ſome of them very magnificent, ſeveral Turkiſh monaſteries, colleges, khans or inns, bazars, divans, and other public edifices, which, in general, make a better figure within than without. The town is well ſupplied with proviſions of all ſorts; and water is brought to it by aqueducts, from a river near two days journey from the city. The whole number of the inhabitants, Jews, Turks, and Chriſtians, in the city and ſuburbs, is about 250,000. In the ſerene months of May and September, the people lie all night on the tops of their houſes, without danger.

A baſhaw governs this city, and commands the whole country from Scanderoon to the Euphrates; under him are three agas or governors of the city and caſtle, together with the ſub-baſhaw, whoſe office is to go the rounds every night, as captain of the watch, and to execute the ſentence of the baſhaw on criminals and dilinquents. The cadi is the ſole judge in all civil matters, he makes and diſſolves all marriage contracts, confirms acts of ſale and purchaſe, and, in order to prevent frauds and abuſes, creates maſters of every trade.

Here is a very conſiderable traffic carried on, for hither are brought all the commodities of Europe and Aſia; and from hence they are again exported, the former into Aſia, and the latter to Europe. In Aleppo are ſeveral manufactures, particularly thoſe of fine Turkey leather, ſilk, camblet, and ſoap. The principal commodities brought from hence to Europe are raw ſilk, cotton, grogram, galls, and a great variety of drugs. The Engliſh, French, Dutch, Italians, Arabians, Perſians, Indians, &c, have their reſpective conſuls reſiding here.

What remains of the ancient city of Antioch, is ſituate about 22 miles from Scanderoon, in a fine plain of 18 miles in extent, on the river Haſi or Orante: the Turks call it Antackia. It has a caſtle which commands the town and river, and ſome conſiderable remains of ancient temples, walls, churches, &c. together with an extenſive canal. The vaſt number of plantains, poplars, ſycamores, fruit-trees, &c. in the gardens of the town, make it at a diſtance look like a foreſt.

Damaſkus, now called Sham, is ſituated on the river Barada, and was formerly a very celebrated city,

ty, having eight gates, with ſtrong walls. It is of an oblong figure, about two miles in length, and was long the reſidence of the Syrian kings, and afterwards of the caliphs of the Saracens. Moſt of the private houſes here are low, and make a very mean appearance, being built with nothing but ſun-burnt bricks, or mud; but the public buildings, in general, are very handſome. In the centre of the city is a caſtle, of an oval form, the walls of which are fourteen feet thick, flanked with ſquare towers, mounted with cannon, and well furniſhed with arms and water: in this place is kept a conſtant garriſon of fifteen thouſand janiſſaries. In the neighbourhood of the city is an hoſpital for pilgrims and ſtrangers of all religions, who are maintained at the grand ſeignior's expence. The great moſque, formerly a chriſtian church, is a very magnificent edifice, into which it is death for any but Muſſulmen to enter. The bagnios here are generally noble buildings, and moſt of the ſtreets are arched, to keep off the ſun and rain.

The chief trade of this city conſiſts in ſcymitars, ſword-blades, knives, bridle-bits, and all kinds of iron and ſteel wares, in which it is ſuppoſed above twenty thouſand of the inhabitants are employed. They likewiſe manufacture thoſe beautiful ſilks, which from this city obtained the appellation of damaſks; and carry on a conſiderable traffick in raw and worked ſilk, otta of roſes, which is one of the moſt fragant ſcents in nature, fruits and wine. The merchandizes of Turkey, Arabia, and India, are brought hither by caravans, which are continually going and coming from Egypt, Aleppo, Bagdad, Mecca, &c. The country round this place is very pleaſant and fertile; it is remarkable for fine grapes, ſome of the bunches weighing between thirty and forty pounds. There is a ſpecies of alabaſter found near the city, and a red earth, both in great eſteem; the latter is ſaid to be good againſt the bite of venomous creatures. Some of the ſheep here are ſurpriſingly large. The inhabitants of this place do not threſh their corn, as in moſt other countries, but cut the ſtraw off with iron pincers, faſtened to wooden rollers, drawn over the corn by a horſe. All ſorts of Chriſtians in this city are allowed their churches and particular worſhip, and the Jews have ſome noble ſynagogues.

Tyre and Sidon, formerly ſo diſtinguiſhed by their grandeur and opulence, are almoſt entirely decayed: the latter, indeed, has a good harbour, and ſtill carries on a trifling trade. The houſes are built chiefly of ſtone, and are two ſtories high. The inhabitants are about 16,000, chiefly Greeks: it has two public baths, and two moſques.

But Tyre, which is now called Sur, is only inhabited by a few miſerable fiſhermen, who live in the ruins of its primitive ſtate. On the land ſide there are ſtrong walls of ſtone eighteen feet high, and ſeven broad. The circumference is about a mile and a half: here are 500 Chriſtians and Mahometans. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are ſtill to be ſeen.

Tripoli ſtands in the Levant ſea, in 34 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 36 deg. 15 min. eaſt long. at the foot of Mount Libanus. It is extenſive, ſtrong, populous, and opulent, adorned with fine gardens and orchards, plantations of mulberry trees, &c. The walls are ſtrong, and fortified with ſeven towers. The caſtle is the reſidence of the beglerberg, and garriſoned by 200 janiſſaries. It is a ſtrong fortreſs, ſituated on an eminence, and well ſtored with cannon. This city is commodious, and watered by a little river: on account of its importance, they deem it the capital of Phœnicia. The harbour is very open, but it is in ſome meaſure defended by two ſmall iſlands at about two leagues from it. There are ſix ſquare towers or caſtles along the ſhore, well fortified with artillery. The town contains about 8000 houſes, and 60,000 inhabitants, who conſiſt of Jews, Turks, or Chriſtians. There is a large handſome moſque, which was once a chriſtian church. The Jeſuits have a handſome college, and the Chriſtians in general ſome monaſteries and chapels.

The air is clear and healthy, the country rich and fertile, and the town plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of proviſions. The gardens have all caſcades and fountains, and even the chambers have water conveyed to them. In the gardens the people ſpend moſt of their ſummer, being buried in their ſilk-worm manufactory.

Acca, or, as the Franks call it, Acra, or Acre, was anciently called Ace, or Accho, then Ptolemais, and afterwards St. John D'Acre, while it was in the poſſeſſion of the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem. It is about 28 miles from Tyre, in 32 deg. 55 min. north lat. and 35 deg. 47 min. eaſt. long. and on the Levant Sea; but is at this time a very inconſiderable place. It was for ſome time a ſubject of contention between the infidels and Chriſtans, during the cruſades, or holy wars. In the year 1191 Richard I. king of England, conquered it, and gave it to the before-mentioned knights, who held it 100 years with great bravery. The Turks, however, inveſted it with an army of 150,000 men, and took it May 19, 1291. Many of the inhabitants had previouſly retired to the iſland of Cyprus; thoſe who remained behind were maſſacred by the infidels, who razed the fortifications, deſtroyed its noble edifices, and reduced it to the moſt deplorable ſtate.

Scanderoon (anciently called Alexandretta, or Little Alexandria, to diſtinguiſh it from Alexandria in Egypt) lies in 36 deg. 34 min. north lat. and 36 deg. 40 min. eaſt long. about 60 miles from Aleppo, to which it is the port town: it ſtands near the ſea on the gulph of Ajazzo; but its marſhy ſituation renders the town ſo unhealthy, that it only contains at preſent a confuſed and ſtraggling heap of mean wretched houſes built of wood, or huts formed of the boughs of trees interwoven and covered with mud, inhabited principally by Greeks. It is defended only by an old decayed caſtle, and a few ſoldiers, under the command of the governor. The adjacent country is in general rich, level, and fruitful.

PALESTINE, or Judea, is ſituated between 31 deg. 30 min. and 32 deg. 20 min north lat. and from 34 deg. 50 min. to 37 deg. 15 min. eaſt long. being bounded by the Mediterranean ſea on the weſt, Syria and Phœnicia on the north, Arabia Deſerta on the eaſt, and Arabia Petræa on the ſouth. It is therefore near 200 miles in length, and about 80 in breadth towards the middle, but increaſes or diminiſhes 12 or 15 miles in other places; the longeſt day is about 14 hours 15 minutes.

The air of Judea is the moſt ſalubrious and pleaſant imaginable; neither heat nor cold are felt in the extreme, but an agreeable ſerenity diffuſes itſelf throughout the year, which puts the ſtranger in mind of the golden age.

The city of Jeruſalem is at preſent about three miles in circumference, and lies in 31 deg. 50 min. north lat. and 36 deg. eaſt long. being ſituated on a rocky mountain. Dr. Shaw, ſays, "The hills which ſtand about Jeruſalem make it appear to be ſituated, as it were, in an amphitheatre, whoſe area inclineth to the eaſtward. We have no where, as I know of, any diſtinct view of it: that from the Mount of Olives, which is the leaſt, and perhaps the furtheſt, is notwithſtanding at ſo ſmall a diſtance, that when our Saviour was there, he might be ſaid, almoſt in a literal ſenſe, "to have wept over it." There are very few remains of the city, either as it was in our Saviour's time, or as it was afterwards rebuilt by Hadrian, ſcarce one ſtone being left upon another; even the very ſituation is altered; for Mount Sion, the moſt eminent part of the Old Jeruſalem, is now excluded, and its ditches filled up; whilſt the places adjoining to Mount Calvary, where Chriſt is ſaid to have ſuffered without

without the gate, are now almoſt in the centre of the city."

With reſpect to its preſent ſtate, the Turks call it Cudſembaric: it is thinly inhabited; the walls are weak, and without baſtions; the ditch inconſiderable; the gates are ſix in number, viz. Damaſcus, St. Stephen's, Herod's, Sterquilina, Bethlehem, and Mount Sion Gate; beſide the Golden gate, which is ſhut up, on account of a prophecy which the Turks have among them, that by that gate the Chriſtians are to take Jeruſalem. The ſtreets are narrow, and the houſes mean. Pilgrims and travellers, who flock from all parts, either through devotion or out of curioſity, are the principal ſupport of the city. A Turkiſh baſſa reſides here, to keep good order, collect the grand ſeignior's revenues, and protect the pilgrims from the inſults of the Arabs.

No European Chriſtian is permitted to enter the city till the requiſite duties are diſcharged; nor can a ſtranger ſafely ſtay here, without being upon good terms with the Latin fathers; theſe eccleſiaſtics ſubſiſting by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every ſpot mentioned in the Old and New Teſtament.

The principal object of the pilgrims is the church of the Holy Sepulchre, ſituated upon Mount Calvary. It is 100 paces in length, and 60 in breadth: the workmen were obliged to reduce the hill to a plain area, in order to lay the foundation; but great precaution was uſed not to alter any part of it, where our Saviour's Paſſion was concerned. The ſcene of of the Crucifixion is left entire, being about 12 yards ſquare, and ſtands at this day ſo much higher than the floor of the church, that it is aſcended to by 21 ſteps. The Holy Sepulchre, which was originally a cave hewn out in the bottom of the rock, may be now compared to a grotto ſtanding above ground, and having the rock cut away, and levelled all round. The walls of the church of the Holy Sepulchre are of ſtone, and the roof of cedar; the eaſt end encloſes Mount Calvary, and the weſt the Holy Sepulchre; the former is covered with a ſuperb cupola, ſupported by 16 large columns, and open at top. Over the altar there is another fine dome; the nave conſtitutes the choir, and the iſles of the church contain the moſt remarkable places where the circumſtances of our Saviour's Paſſion were tranſacted, together with the tombs of Godfrey and Baldwin, the two firſt Chriſtian kings of Jeruſalem. In the church of the Crucifixion, the hole is ſhewn in which it is ſaid the croſs was fixed. The altar has three croſſes richly adorned on it, particularly with four lamps of immenſe value, which are kept conſtantly burning. The cloiſter round the ſepulchre is divided into ſundry chapels. The Latins, who take care of the church, have apartments on the north-weſt ſide, but they are never ſuffered to go out; the Turks keeping the keys, and furniſhing them with proviſions through a wicket. Some grand ceremonies are performed at Eaſter, repreſenting Chriſt's paſſion, crucifixion, death and reſurrection.

On Mount Moriah, in the ſouth part of the city, ſtands the edifice called Solomon's Temple, which is ſituated upon the ſame ſpot as the ancient temple ſtood; but it is uncertain by whom it was erected. The middle part, where the Jewiſh Sanctum Sanctorum was ſuppoſed to have ſtood, is converted into a Turkiſh moſque.

It is to be obſerved, that the Turkiſh ſangiac who governs this city reſides in the very houſe where Pontius Pilate is ſuppoſed to have formerly lived. The principal part of the churches have been converted into moſques. The prieſts and other Chriſtians, are kept miſerably poor, by the tyranny of the government, and have ſcarce any ſubſiſtence but what they procure by accommodating ſtrangers with food and lodging, and ſelling them relics.

In the neighbourhood of Jeruſalem, the moſt remarkable antiquities are,

The pools of Betheſda and Gihon. The former is 120 paces long, 40 broad, and 8 deep. It is at preſent dry, and the arches dammed up. But Gihon, which is about a quarter of a mile from Bethlehem gate, is a magnificent relic, 106 paces long, 60 broad, lined with a wall and plaſter, and ſtill ſtored with water.

The tomb of the Virgin Mary, in the valley of Jehoſhaphat, has a deſcent to it by a flight of 47 magnificent ſteps. On the right hand is the Sepulchre of St. Anne, the mother of the Bleſſed Virgin; and on the left hand is that of Joſeph her huſband. The whole is cut in the ſolid rock.

Abſalom's pillar or place, which it is ſaid was erected by that prince, in order to perpetuate his memory, as he had no male iſſue, reſembles a Sepulchre, though it is not known that he was buried here. There is a great heap of ſtones about it, which are always increaſing; for all Jews and Turks who paſs by it make a point of throwing a ſtone each upon the heap, as a token of abhorrence to Abſalom for his unnatural rebellion againſt his father. The ſtructure itſelf is 20 cubits ſquare, and 60 high, adorned below with four columns of the Ionic order. From the height of 20 to 40 cubits it grows leſs, and is plain, a ſmall fillet at the upper end excepted; from thence to the top it is circular, and runs up ſpirally to a point; the whole being cut out of a ſolid rock. There is a room within conſiderably higher than the level of the ground without, on the ſides of which are niches, probably to receive coffins.

To the eaſtward of the above is the tomb of Zechariah, the ſon of Barachiah, whom the Jews ſlew between the temple and the altar, as it is commonly ſuppoſed. It is cut out of the rock 18 feet high, as many ſquare, and adorned with Ionic columns on each front, cut out of the ſame rock, and ſupporting a cornice. The whole ends in a pointed top like a diamond.

The royal ſepulchres without the walls of Jeruſalem are ſome of the moſt elaborate, curious, and magnificent antique remains that imagination can conceive. By whom they were built is uncertain, but they conſiſt of a great number of apartments, moſt of which are ſpacious, and all cut out of the marble rock.

Near Jeruſalem is a ſpot of ground, 30 yards long, and 50 broad, which is now the burial place of the Armenians. It was formerly the Aceldama, *field of blood*, or *potter's field*, purchaſed with the price of Judas's treaſon, as a place of interment for ſtangers. It is walled round, to prevent the Turks from abuſing the bones of the Chriſtians; but one half of it is occupied by a charnel-houſe.

At Bethany, which ſtood in the road between Jeruſalem and Jericho, the remains of an old caſtle are ſhewn, which it is affirmed, belonged formerly to Lazarus. There is a deſcent of 25 ſteps to the room where he was laid, and the tomb out of which he was raiſed.

Jericho is reduced from a magnificent city to a little mean village, without any veſtiges of its former ſplendour, except ſome grand arches of an old conduit. It is about twenty-three miles from Jeruſalem, and was remarkable for being the firſt city invaded by the Iſraelites after their paſſage over Jordan, when it was taken by the ſingular fall of its walls.

Bethlehem is diſtant between ſix and ſeven miles from Jeruſalem, to the ſouth-weſt, in the way to Hebron. It lies in 31 deg. 35 min. north latitude; and in 65 deg. 50 min. eaſt longitude. Anciently it was called the City of David, having been the birth-place of the Royal Pſalmiſt. It was otherwiſe called Ephram, or Ephrata; Gen. xxxv. 19. It was originally built by the Jebuſites; and both Jerom and Euſebius aſſure us, that the monument of Jeſſe, the father

father of David, was here ſhewn in their time. Bethlehem is ſeated on a pleaſant hill, in a fine fertile plain, and enjoys a moſt excellent air. It contains a convent of the Latins, another of the Greeks, and another of the Armenians, and is annually reſorted to by a great number of pilgrims and travellers. All the convents have doors which open into the Chapel of the Holy Manger: for the place where the bleſſed Redeemer was born, and the manger in which he was laid, are ſhewn to this day. The manger is adorned with three pillars, one in the middle, and the others at the ends: in the angle, a ſtep lower, are two other ſmall pillars of an equal bigneſs, between which there is a marble manger, big enough to hold a new born infant: and oppoſite to it is a ſtone, whereon the bleſſed Virgin ſat when the wiſe men came to adore the heavenly infant. The whole is become entirely black through time.

At the diſtance of about forty yards from one of the convents, there is a grot hollowed in a chalky rock, where, tradition ſays, the bleſſed Virgin hid herſelf and her divine babe, from the malice of Herod, ſome time previous to her departure into Egypt. Eaſtward, at the diſtance of about half a mile, the pilgrims are ſhewn the field where the ſhepherds were watching their flocks, when they received the glad tidings of the birth of a bleſſed Redeemer. The magnificent church built over the grot were the divine infant was born, is one of the moſt ſuperb in the eaſt, being divided into five aiſles, formed by four rows of elegant marble pillars, to the amount of 40 in number, that is, ten in a row. Beſides theſe, 10 more ſupport the whole choir, which is encloſed by a wall. The pavement is beautiful, and the cedar roof proportionably high. The noble portico by which you enter the church is ſupported by 16 handſome marble pillars. The choir, which is covered by a noble cupola, terminates in a ſemicircle that contains the altar: not far from which are two marble ſtair-caſes, conſiſting of thirteen ſteps each: by one of theſe the pilgrims deſcend to the Chapel of the Nativity, where there is an altar under a concave, with a repreſentation of the nativity: the whole being illuminated by lamps continually kept burning.

This magnificent edifice was built by the pious empreſs Helena, in commemoration of the birth of Chriſt. At a ſmall diſtance to the ſouthward of Bethlehem, the famous fountains, pools, gardens of Solomon are ſhewn. The pools are three in number, lying in a row and ſo diſpoſed, that the waters of the uppermoſt fall into the ſecond, and thoſe of the ſecond into the third. They are of a quadrangular figure, equal in breadth; but differing in length; the breath of each being 450 feet; but the length of the firſt is 800 feet; of the ſecond 1000 feet, and of the third 1100 feet. They are very deep, and lined with a plaſtered wall. Cloſe to the pools is a pleaſant caſtle of a modern ſtructure: and at about the diſtance of 700 feet is a fountain, from which they receive their waters. On the eaſtward of the city the well of David is ſhewn, for the waters of which that monarch ſo paſſionately longed, according to the inſpired writer, 2 Sam. xxiii. 14, &c. "And David was then in the hold, and the garriſon of the Philiſtines was then in Bethlehem; and David longed, and ſaid, O that one would give me drink of the water of the well of Bethlehem, which is by the gate. And three mighty men broke through the hoſt of the Philiſtines, and drew water out of the well of Bethlehem, that was by the gate." And about two furlongs from this well are the remains of an old aqueduct, which anciently conveyed the waters of Solomon's pools to Jeruſalem. Beſides the above-mentioned chapels in Bethlehem, are the Chapel of St. Joſeph, the huſband of the Holy Virgin the Chapel of the Innocents, and thoſe of St. Jerome, St. Paul, and Euſtochium.

§

The moſt judicious travellers, upon an attentive ſurvey of many of the countries contained in Aſia Minor, and which are celebrated in the Greek and Roman hiſtory; fully vindicate all that has been ſaid by ſacred and profane writers, of their beauty, ſtrength, fertility, and population; though it muſt be confeſſed, that at preſent, through the Turkiſh indolence and tyranny, they are either totally forſaken, or a theatre of ruins. The ſites of ancient cities are diſcernible, and ſo luxurious is nature in thoſe countries, that in many places ſhe triumphs over her forlorn condition. Even Paleſtine and Judea, the moſt deſpicable at preſent of all thoſe countries, lie buried within the luxuries of their own ſoil.

The Turks ſeem particularly fond of repreſenting Judea in the moſt deſpicable colours, and have formed a thouſand falſehoods concerning it, which, being artfully propagated among ourſelves, have impoſed upon weak Chriſtians. The late Rev. Dr. Shaw, profeſſor of Greek, at Oxford, who ſeems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the ſoundeſt philoſophy to make the moſt judicious obſervations, ſays, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very beſt parts of Syria and Phœnicia, becauſe the ſoil is generally much richer, and, every thing conſidered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenneſs, he further remarks, of which ſome authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulneſs of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who poſſeſs it, and the perpetual diſcords and depredations of the petty princes who ſhare this fine country. Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Paleſtine," ſays Mr. Wood, "we have often ſeen the huſbandman ſowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the ſeed." And, after all, whoever ſows, is uncertan whether he ſhall ever reap the harveſt.

Some part of Paleſtine revived under the government of Sheik Daher, the ally of the famous Ali Bey. He enlarged the buildings and walls of St. John de Acre, formerly Ptolemais, and ſhewed great indulgence to the Chriſtians. Its inhabitants were lately computed at 40,000. Caifa, which ſtands on the declivity of Mount Carmel, diſtant about twenty miles from Acre, was alſo new built and enlarged by Daher.

The ancient Joppa, now Jaffa, 50 miles weſt from Jeruſalem, ſtands on a rocky hill, hath an harbour for ſmall veſſels, and its circumference is about two miles. The number of inhabitants is 7000. The weſtern part of the town is inhabited by Chriſtians.

The preſent ſtate of Ramah is deplorable, its walls being in decay, and moſt of the houſes empty, although the number of inhabitants is ſtill between 3 and 4000.

Not a houſe is ſtanding of the once magnificent city of Cæſarea, but the remains of the walls teſtify its former grandeur.

Azotus is about two miles in circumference; the inhabitants are near 3000, and moſtly Mahometans. An old ſtructure is ſhewn here, with fine marble pillars, which is ſaid to be the houſe that Sampſon pulled down, when inſulted by the Philiſtines.

Gaza is ſtill reſpectable; it extends from eaſt to weſt three miles, and is a mile in breadth, divided into the old and new town. The laſt is inhabited by the inferior Turks and Arabs: the number of the inhabitants is reckoned to be 26,000. It is about five miles from the ſea, and outſide the town is a market for the country people to diſpoſe of their commodities to the inhabitants, for they are not permitted to enter the town. The country around is very fertile; but corn, oil, wine, honey, bees-wax, flax, and cotton, are its chief produce.

It

It may be a queſtion with ſome, whether thoſe countries of Aſia could ever be reſtored to their ancient grandeur, trade, and population; but I apprehend that it would now be impoſſible, let the Turkiſh government be ever ſo beneficent, to divert commerce, (without which all attempts of that kind muſt be feeble) from its European channels. There can, however, be no queſtion, that a government leſs brutal and bigoted than that of the Turks might make the natives a powerful, as well as a happy people within themſelves: the misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and other ſects of Chriſtians there, partake but too much of the Turkiſh ſtupidity. Though they are not ſuffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on horſeback, and are ſubjected to a thouſand indignities and miſeries, and are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppreſſors; yet ſo abject is their ſpirit, that they make no efforts for their own deliverance, and are contented under all their mortifications. If they are leſs indolent than their oppreſſors, it is becauſe they muſt otherwiſe ſtarve; and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, leſt it ſhould be diſcovered to their tyrants, who would convert it to their own uſe, as though they were lawfully entitled to it.

With reſpect to their commerce and manufactures, there are no people in the world, who, from advantage of ſituation, and vaſt extent of empire, ſeem more calculated for monopolizing the trade of the whole eaſt, than the Turks. They poſſeſs the navigation of the Black Sea, the Levant, and the Red Sea, which undoubtedly affords them greater opportunities of importing the rich merchandizes of the Eaſt, and diſtributing them all over Europe, than any other power. But ſuch is the indolence of this people, that thoſe great objects are little attended to. The cities of Tyre, Sidon, and Alexandria, formerly the chief emporiums for trade in the univerſe, are now of no conſequence, but are entirely overlooked.

The Turks have but few merchant ſhips, and never attempt diſtant voyages; ſo that the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other European nations, reſort thither with the commodities of their reſpective countries, and return laden with thoſe of Turkey: even the inland trade of the empire, which is exceeding trifling, is carried on by Jews and Armenians.

Their articles for export are coffee, rhubarb, turpentine, ſtorax, gums, opium, galls, maſtic, emery, Lemnian-bole, pomegranate-ſhells, ſponges, dates, wine, oil, figs, raiſins, mother of pearl, box-wood, ſaffron, and ſome other articles; to which may be added, the produce of their manufactures, conſiſting of ſilks, burdets, cottons, dimities, waxed-linen, ſhagreen-ſkins, blue, red, and yellow Morocco-leather, carpets, and ſoap.

The traffic of the human ſpecies, though ſhocking to human nature, is carried on in a very extraordinary degree in Turkey; for they not only ſell their ſlaves of both ſexes, but alſo beautiful young girls, who are purchaſed, particularly by the Jews in Circaſſia, Georgia, and other parts, and again ſold to ſupply the ſeraglios of the grand ſeignior, and other great men.

By the conſtitution and government eſtabliſhed in Turkey, the grand ſeignior is one of the moſt deſpotic princes upon earth, having an abſolute power of life and death over all his ſubjects; of the juſtice of which they are ſo entirely perſuaded, that they never make any reſiſtance, but ſubmit with mildneſs to the firſt order he iſſues for taking away their goods, and even their lives. This exceſs of obedience is taught them by their religion; and, labouring under the force of this prejudice, even the chief officers of the empire conclude it to be their higheſt good-fortune and glory to end their days by the hand or command of their ſovereign. The whole extent of the Turkiſh empire, lands, and houſes, are his property, and at his ſole diſpoſal, except lands annexed to the church; which is a law that the Jews and chriſtians avail themſelves of, to ſecure the enjoyment of their eſtates to poſterity: and ſo ſacred and inviolable has it been held, that there is no inſtance recorded in hiſtory of a ſultan's having even attempted to violate it.

The Aſiatic Turks hold their lands by a kind of military tenure, being obliged to maintain horſes and men always in readineſs, againſt the grand ſeignior ſhall call them forth to ſerve in the wars. At his inauguration, this prince obliges himſelf to govern within the compaſs of the Mahometan law; which is in fact no reſtriction at all, for this very law ſtyles him the mouth and interpreter of it, and endows him with a power to alter and annul the moſt fixed and ſettled rules, or at leaſt to diſpenſe with them when they prove an obſtacle to his government. But notwithſtanding this deſpotic power, if he acts contrary to the humours of the people, particularly the janiſſaries, he is in danger of being depoſed, and alſo put to death, therefore upon the leaſt ſuggeſtion of the diſaffection or miſconduct of his miniſters, he cauſes them to be murdered, or at leaſt diſgraced; and frequently ſaves himſelf from the general fury, by throwing the whole blame of any mal-adminiſtration upon the grand vizier, and ſacrificing him to the public reſentment.

There is a gradation of the great officers of ſtate in Turkey; of whom are the grand vizier, or prime miniſter; the captain-baſhaw, or admiral; the mufti, or high-prieſt; the viziers of the bench, or of three baſhaws tails, ſo denominated from three horſes tails being carried before them when they march; theſe ſit in the divan, or courts of juſtice, with the mufti; the kadilaſquiers, or chief juſtices of provinces; the beglerbegs, or viceroys; the baſhaws, or governors of towns and diſtricts under the beglerbegs; the kaimacan, or governor of Conſtantinople; the grand vizier has a deputy, who is likewiſe ſtyled kaimacan: the reis-effendi, or lord-chancellor and ſecretary of ſtate; and the teſterdar, or lord-treaſurer. There are likewiſe the aga of the Janiſſaries, the aga of the Spahis, the aga of the Siluds, and ſome others. The chief officers of the ſeraglio are, the kiſlar aga, who is ſuperintendent of the women, and has the command of all the black eunuchs; the capi-aga, who has the command of all the white eunuchs, and to whom all petitions intended for the ſultan are firſt delivered.

The officers, both civil and military, with the beſt part of their forces, are ſeldom compoſed of Turks, but conſiſt chiefly of the children of Tartar or Chriſtian ſlaves taken in war, or renegadoes. The moſt beautiful, well-made, and ſprightly of theſe, while exceeding young, are preſented to the grand ſeignior; and ſuch as he approves of, are admitted into the ſeraglios of Conſtantinople, Adrianople, and Pera, where they are educated under the appellation of Ichoglans. Being circumciſed, they are firſt taught ſilence, and a modeſt, humble behaviour; and as they advance in years, they are inſtructed in the Mahometan religion, the Turkiſh language, and afterwards the Perſian and Arabic. When fit for manly exerciſes, they are taught the uſe of arms, and ſuch other ſciences as may render them ſerviceable to the ſtate, and are advanced, and their ſalaries augmented, according to their proficiency. When any poſt becomes vacant, it is filled by one of theſe; but none are preferred out of the ſeraglio before they have attained the age of forty. Theſe men, however, being tutored in the ſchool of adverſity, and arriving at preeminence, are generally as diſtinguiſhed for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They poſſeſs all the diſſimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in an humble rank; and they have a further reaſon for plundering the people, becauſe they are uncertain how long they may poſſeſs the dignities to which they are arrived. The adminiſtration of juſtice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over

the whole empire, which is owing, not to the laws of the kingdom, which are very equitable, but to the iniquitous conduct and manners of the judges. Beſides theſe Ichoglans, there are children in theſe ſeraglios called Azamoglans, who are trained up for inferior employments. Among the ſultan's attendants, are a number of mutes and dwarfs, the former of which converſe by ſigns with great readineſs, and the latter divert the court by their buffoonery.

The revenues of the grand ſeignior are immenſe, but it is impoſſible to aſcertain the exact ſum. According to Baron de Tott, they are eſtimated on the records to amount to 25,400,000l. but produce effectively only 3,200,000l. to the public. They ariſe from the cuſtoms, the produce of the demeſne lands, the capitation or poll-tax, impoſed on every ſubject of the empire who is not a Mahometan; towards which the rich pay thirty ſhillings a year, tradeſmen fifteen ſhillings, and common labourers ſix ſhillings and tenpence halfpenny. Beſides this, are the annual tributes paid by the Cham of the Crim Tartars, the princes of Moldavia, Walachia, the little republic of Raguſa, and part of Mingrelia, together with half a million annually from Egypt. All theſe, however, are inconſiderable, when compared to the vaſt ſums extorted by the ſultan from his viceroys and great officers of ſtate, under the plauſible appellation of preſents. He alſo raiſes vaſt ſums by the confiſcations of the eſtates and effects of his miniſters, whom, if they happen to be immoderately rich, he frequently puts to death, under pretence of miſconduct. He is likewiſe heir to all his officers and miniſters; who, after diſtreſſing the people they are appointed to govern, in order to amaſs prodigious wealth, are obliged to leave it at his diſpoſal when they die; and it is ſeldom that generoſity prompts him to beſtow any conſiderable part on the relations of the deceaſed.

In Turkey, the current coin conſiſts of gold and ſilver, there being no copper or braſs money. The gold coins are the altines or ducats, and the zechinos. The former are worth about ſeven ſhillings and ſixpence, and the latter about nine ſhillings. The ſilver coins are, the aſper, worth three halfpence; the para, worth four-pence halfpenny; the groſh, about threepence; the krip, about eleven-pence; and the ſolga, about two ſhillings and two-pence farthing. The gold and ſilver of all countries go for their full value.—A kize is a bag of fifteen thouſand ducats; a purſe is worth five hundred thouſand crowns, and of theſe the ſultan makes his common preſents; but thoſe he preſents to his ſultanas or favourites, are called golden purſes, and contain thirty thouſand crowns.

As to the Turkiſh military and marine ſtrength, their armies, even in time of peace, are very numerous; and the chief part of them conſiſt of a kind of militia, amounting to ſeveral hundred thouſand men, whom their leaders are obliged to conduct into the field, whenever the government requires their ſervice; they are termed the Timar-ſpahis, and are in fact light-horſe; theſe amount to about 268,000 effective men: but there is another body of cavalry, called Spahis, who are about 12,000 in number, and form the grand ſeignior's horſe-guard. The chief dependence of the empire, however, is upon the janiſſaries, or infantry, who are eſteemed the beſt ſoldiers in the Turkiſh armies, and on whom they principally depend in an engagement: their number is about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Conſtantinople. Theſe frequently grow mutinous, and have ſometimes proceeded ſo far as to depoſe the ſultan. They receive their pay from the treaſury, are educated in the ſeraglio, and trained up from their infancy to the uſe of arms. There are not leſs than 100,000 foot ſoldiers, ſcattered over every province of the empire, who procure themſelves to be regiſtered in this body, in order to enjoy the privileges of janiſſaries, which are very great, being ſubject to no juriſdiction but that of the aga, or chief commander of their corps.

The titles of the emperor are ſwelled with all the pomp of eaſtern magnificence. He is ſtyled by his ſubjects, "The Shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Diſpoſer of all Earthly Crowns," &c. The grand ſeignior's arms are, Vert, a creſcent argent, creſted with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron's-quills, with this motto, DONEC TOTUM IMPLEAT ORBEM, i. e. *Until he ſhall fill the whole world.*

The grand ſeignior's ſeraglio conſiſts of a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly ſent as preſents from the provinces and Greek iſlands, moſt of them being the children of Chriſtian parents. The brave Prince Heraclius hath for ſome years paſt aboliſhed the infamous tribute of children of both ſexes, formerly paid every year by Georgia to the Porte. The number of women in the harem depends on the taſte of the reigning monarch, or ſultan: Selim had 2000, Achmet had but 300, and the preſent ſultan hath nearly 1600. On their admiſſion, they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to ſew and embroider, muſic, dancing, and other accompliſhments, and furniſhed with the richeſt clothes and ornaments. They all ſleep in ſeparate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptreſs. Their chief governeſs is called Katon Kiaga, or governeſs of the noble young ladies. There is not one ſervant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation; the laſt that is entered, ſerves her who preceded her and herſelf. Theſe ladies are ſcarcely ever ſuffered to go abroad, except when the grand ſeignior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are encloſed with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land, they are put into cloſe chariots, and ſignals are made at certain diſtances, to give notice, that none approach the roads through which they march. The boats of the harem, which carry the grand ſeignior's wives, are manned with twenty-four rowers, and have white covered tilts, ſhut alternately by Venetian blinds.

Whenever the ladies are permitted to walk in the gardens of the ſeraglio, all people are ordered to retire, and on every ſide there is a guard of black eunuchs, with ſabres in their hands, while others go their rounds, in order to hinder any perſon from ſeeing them. If unfortunately any one is found in the garden, either through ignorance or inadvertence, he is undoubtedly killed, and his head brought to the feet of the grand ſeignior, who gives a reward to the guard for their vigilance. Sometimes the ſultan goes into the gardens to amuſe himſelf when the women are there; and it is then that they make uſe of their utmoſt efforts, by dancing, ſinging, ſeducing geſtures, and amorous blandiſhments, to enforce the affections of the monarch. He is not allowed to take a virgin to his bed, except during the ſolemn feſtivals, and on occaſion of ſome extraordinary rejoicings, or the arrival of ſome good news. Upon ſuch occaſions, if the ſultan chooſes a new companion to his bed, he enters into the apartment of the women, who are ranged in files by the governeſſes, to whom he ſpeaks, and intimates the perſon he likes beſt; but does not throw the handkerchief to her, as is generally aſſerted and believed.

As ſoon as the grand ſeignior has choſen the girl that he has deſtined to be the partner of his bed, all the others follow her to the bath, waſhing and perfuming her, and dreſſing her ſuperbly, conducting her, ſinging, dancing, and rejoicing, to the bedchamber of the ſultan, who is generally, on ſuch an occaſion already in bed. Scarcely has the new-elected favourite entered the chamber, introduced by the grand eunuch who is upon guard, than ſhe kneels down; and when the ſultan calls her, ſhe creeps into bed to him at the foot of the bed, if he does not order

order her, by ſpecial grace, to approach by the ſide: after a certain time, upon a ſignal given by the ſultan, the governeſs of the girls, with all her ſuite, enter the apartment, and take her back again, conducting her with the ſame ceremony, to the women's apartments; and if by good fortune ſhe becomes pregnant, and is delivered of a boy, ſhe is called aſaki-ſultaneſs, that is to ſay, ſultaneſs-mother. For the firſt ſon, ſhe has the honour to be crowned, and ſhe has the liberty of forming her court, by way of diſtinction. Eunuchs are alſo aſſigned for her guard, and for her particular ſervice. No other ladies, though delivered of boys, are either crowned or maintained in ſuch a coſtly manner as the firſt; however, they have their ſervice apart, and handſome appointments.

After the death of the ſultan, the mothers of the male children are ſhut up in the old ſeraglio, from whence they can never come out any more, unleſs any of their ſons aſcend the throne. A writer of credit informs us, that the female ſlave who becomes the mother of a ſultan, and lives long enough to ſee her ſon mount the throne, is the only woman who, at that period alone, acquires the diſtinction of ſultana-mother: ſhe is till then in the interior of her priſon with her ſon. The title of Bache-Kadun, principal woman, is the firſt dignity of the grand ſeignior's harem; and ſhe hath a larger allowance than thoſe who have the title of ſecond, third, and fourth woman, which is the number of free women allowed by the Koran.

Hiſtory of the Origin, Progreſs, and Eſtabliſhment of the Turks.

The ſouthern and more fertile parts of Aſia have, at different periods, been conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men who inhabit the vaſt country known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of theſe people, called Turks, or Turcomans (which name ſignifies wanderers) extended its conqueſts under various leaders, and during ſeveral centuries, from the ſhore of the Caſpian-Sea, to the Streights of the Dardanelles. Having been long reſident in the capacity of body guards about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a conſiderable time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief reſidence was in the neighbourhood of Mount Caucaſus, from whence they removed to Armenia-Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the ſultans of Perſia, they ſeized that kingdom about the year 1037, and ſpread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometaniſm, they never were without a pretence for invading and plundering the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were ſometimes commanded by very able generals. On the declenſion of the caliphate, or empire of the Saracens, they made themſelves maſters of Paleſtine; and the viſiting the holy city of Jeruſalam being then part of the Chriſtian exerciſes, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under ſuch heavy contributions, and exerciſed ſuch horrible cruelties upon the Chriſtian inhabitants of the country, as gave riſe to the famous cruſades.

The Greek emperors were unfortunately more jealous of the Chriſtians than of the Turks; and though after oceans of blood were ſpilt, a Chriſtian kingdom was erected at Jeruſalem, under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his ſucceſſors were able to maintain it, by any real power they poſſeſſed. About the year 1129, the Turks had extended their dominions on every ſide, and poſſeſſed themſelves, under Othman, of ſome of the fineſt provinces in Aſia, of Nice, and Pruſa, in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, firſt embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader, the appellation of Turks, as it ſignifies in the original wanderers, or baniſhed men, being conſidered by them as a term of reproach.

Othman may with propriety be ſtyled the founder of the Turkiſh empire, and was ſucceeded by a race of the moſt warlike princes that are mentioned in hiſtory. About the year 1357 they paſſed the Helleſpont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath ſettled the ſeat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of janiſſaries was eſtabliſhed. Such were their conqueſts, that Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek Emperor Sigiſmund, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, in hopes of ſubjecting all the Greek empire to his obedience. His greatneſs and inſolence provoked Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was then juſt returned from his eaſtern conqueſts, to declare war againſt him. A deciſive battle was fought between thoſe rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, when Bajazet's forces were cut to pieces, and he himſelf taken priſoner, and ſhut up in an iron cage, where he ended his days.

This was a dreadful blow to the Othmans; but the ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, by declaring war againſt one another, gave the Turks an opportunity of recovering the prodigious loſs they had ſuſtained, and of becoming more powerful than ever; and though their career was in ſome meaſure checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, nevertheleſs they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long ſiege, Mahomet II. took Conſtantinople in 1453. Thus, after an exiſtence of ten centuries, from its firſt commencement under Conſtantine the Great, ended the eaſtern empire; an event which had been long foreſeen, and was owing to many cauſes; the chief was, the total degeneracy and luxury of the Greek emperors themſelves, their courts and families; the diſlike their ſubjects had to the popes, and the weſtern church, one of their patriarchs having declared publicly to a Romiſh legate, "That he would rather ſee a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Conſtantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conqueſts, did not exterminate the conquered nations, but reduced them to ſubjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks ſtill exiſt, as we have already obſerved, particularly in Conſtantinople, and the neighbouring iſlands, where, though grievouſly oppreſſed, they profeſs Chriſtianity under their own patriarchs of Conſtantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jeruſalem; and the Armenians have three patriarchs, more wealthy than thoſe of the Greek church, on account of their people being richer, and more converſant in trade. It is ſaid that the modern Greeks, though pining under the the tyrannical yoke of the Turkiſh government, ſtill preſerve ſomewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles, by which their anceſtors were ſo long and ſo eminently diſtinguiſhed.

The conqueſt of the capital was followed by the ſubmiſſion of all Greece; and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power, and as having acquired a conſiderable weight in the political balance of affairs.

In 1481, Mahomet paid the debt of nature, and was ſucceeded on the Othman throne by Bajazet II. That prince carried on a war againſt the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as againſt the Perſians and Egyptians; but falling ill of the gout, he became indolent, was haraſſed with family differences, and at length, by order of his ſecond ſon, Selim, he was poiſoned by a Jew phyſician.

Selim, perſuaded that he could never poſſeſs the throne

throne in peace, while any other prince of the Othman race ſubſiſted, purſued the barbarous policy of the eaſt, and cauſed his eldeſt brother, Achmet, to be ſtrangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He continued the war againſt the Sophis of Perſia, and the Prince of Mount Taurus, and defeated their forces; but finding himſelf unable to penetrate into the Perſian dominions, he turned his arms againſt Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he ſubdued, in the year 1517. He was alſo ſucceſsful in the Leſſer Aſia; where he made himſelf maſter of Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damaſcus, Gaza, and ſeveral other places. He was ſucceeded, in 1520, by his ſon

Soliman the Magnificent, the greateſt prince that ever filled the throne of Othman. Availing himſelf of the fatal differences which prevailed among the Chriſtian powers, he beſieged and took Rhodes, driving the knights from that iſland to Malta, which was given them by the Emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Chriſtian powers, and generally ſucceſsful, both by ſea and land. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives. This happened A. D. 1526; and two years afterwards, he advanced into Auſtria, and beſieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. he miſcarried alſo in an attempt he made to take the Iſle of Malta. Dying in 1566, he was ſucceeded by

Selim, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Soliman, who continued the wars begun by his father againſt the Chriſtians, but without his good fortune. The Turkiſh fleet, which was now very powerful, was totally defeated by the Chriſtians, in the battle of Lepanto, This blow almoſt annihilated the Turkiſh navy, and had the victory been properly purſued by the Chriſtians, eſpecially the Spaniards, Selim had tottered on his throne. But differences and jealouſies prevailing among them, the panic of the Turks ſubſided, they ſoon recovered their ſpirits, and their army again became formidable; but their marine has never ſince been able to face that of the Chriſtians. Selim died in 1575, and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

Amurath III. who carried on a ſucceſsful war againſt the Perſians, and obliged them to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities to the Turks. He was alſo fortunate in his wars againſt the Hungarians, and made himſelf maſter of the fortreſs of Raab. His whole reign was indeed a continual war, the operations of which were various; ſometimes fortune attended the Othman ſtandards, and ſometimes thoſe of the enemy. After a reign of eighteen years, Amurath paid the debt of nature, and his ſon,

Mahomet III. aſcended the Turkiſh throne. The moſt memorable tranſactions of the reign of this prince are his cruelties. At this acceſſion to the throne, he cauſed nineteen of his brothers to be ſtrangled: and as ten of his father's concubines were ſuppoſed to be pregnant, he cauſed theſe unhappy victims of his jealouſy to be thrown into the ſea. But though he waded to the throne through a ſea of blood, he did not long enjoy it. He died of the plague in the year 1604.

Achmet ſucceeded to the Turkiſh throne on the death of his brother, and carried on an unſucceſsful war againſt the Perſians: but though his army was defeated in Aſia, and ſeveral towns taken from him, yet his forces in Hungary were victorious, and obliged the Auſtrians to ſign a peace in 1606, by which Achmet was allowed to retain all the conqueſts he had made. Soon after this peace, Achmet died, and

Oſman, his ſon, then only ſixteen years of age, ſucceeded him. He was a prince of great hopes, and ſeemed formed for governing a turbulent people; but being unſucceſsful in his wars againſt Poland, he was put to death by the Janiſſaries, whoſe power he intended to have reduced. He was ſucceeded by

Morad IV. who, after a long conteſt with the Perſians, made himſelf maſter of the city of Bagdad.

Ibrahim, his brother, ſucceeded him in the Othman throne, in 1640, but being a worthleſs, inactive prince, he was ſtrangled in the ſeraglio by the Janiſſaris, in 1648.

Mahomet IV. ſucceeded Ibrahim, and carried on a long war againſt the Venetians. During his reign, Candy was taken by the Turks, after a ſiege of thirty years, and the loſs of 180,000 men. A bloody war ſucceeded between the Turks and Imperialiſts, in which the former were ſo ſucceſsful, that they laid ſiege to Vienna; but were forced to raiſe it with great loſs, by John Sobieſki, King of Poland. This misfortune cauſed a ferment in Conſtantinople, Mahomet was ſhut up in priſon, and

Soliman II. Mahomet's brother, was placed upon the throne. The ſtandards of this prince were equally unfortunate, nor was his brother, Achmet II. more ſucceſsful: the Turks were beaten in almoſt every action, and victory ſeemed to have totally deſerted the Othman forces. Perſuaded that many of the late misfortunes were owing to the want of abilities in the Turkiſh generals,

Muſtapha II. who mounted the throne in 1696, headed his armies in perſon. But he was ſoon convinced that his opinion was too precipitately formed; the celebrated Prince Eugene, who then commanded the Imperial armies, totally defeated him, and a peace was concluded between the Imperialiſts and Turks, in the year 1699. This defeat terminated the reign of Muſtapha; he was depoſed, his mufti beheaded, and his brother,

Achmet III. was placed upon the throne. This prince was more ſucceſsful; he gave ſhelter at Bender to Charles XII. and terminated a ſucceſsful war againſt the Ruſſians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. He alſo declared war againſt the Venetians; but the numerous armies he levied for attacking the territories of that republic alarmed all Europe, ſo that the ſcene of action was tranſlated to Hungary. Eugene then commanded the Imperial army, and gave the Turks ſo many repeated defeats, that Achmet was forced to conclude an inglorious peace at Paſſarowitz, in 1718. Nor were the Turkiſh armies more ſucceſsful in Aſia; they were defeated by Kouli Khan, who had ſeized the throne of Perſia. Enraged at theſe repeated misfortunes, and alarmed at the progreſs of the Perſians, the populace demanded the heads of the vizier, the chief admiral, and the ſecretary. Theſe were accordingly ſtruck off; but even this ſacrifice was not ſufficient to appeaſe the clamours of the people, Achmet himſelf was depoſed, and

Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. This total change in the government did not however recall victory to the ſtandards of Othman. Mahomet was as unſucceſsful as his predeceſſor, and at laſt obliged to acknowledge the uſurper Kouli Khan as Sophi of Perſia.

The war being thus terminated in Aſia, Mahomet turned his arms againſt the Imperialiſts and Ruſſians; he was victorious in ſeveral actions with the former: Eugene was dead, and there was no other general of equal talents to ſupply his place: but his forces were not a match for the latter. Defeat ſucceeded defeat, and the progreſs of the Ruſſians was ſo rapid, that Conſtantinople itſelf was threatened with a ſiege. Reduced to this extremity, a haſty peace was concluded with the emperor, and ſoon after another with the Ruſſians, both diſadvantageous to the Turks. Mahomet died in 1754, and was ſucceeded by his brother,

Oſman III. who after a ſhort reign of three years, paid the debt of nature, and the crown was placed upon the head of Muſtapha III. This prince was born in 1723, and died on the 21ſt of January 1774, whilſt engaged in an unſucceſsful war againſt the Ruſſians.

Abdul

†

Abdul Hamed, or Achmet IV. grand ſeignior, was born in 1710, and ſucceeded to the throne of Turkey on the death of Muſtapha, his brother: he had three ſons and three daughters.

In the courſe of the war between Muſtapha and the Empreſs of Ruſſia, a conſiderable Ruſſian fleet was fitted out, which ſet ſail from the Baltic, with a view of ſhaking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet firſt ſailed to Minorca, and departing from thence in the beginning of February 1770, ſhaped its courſe for the Morea. Count Orlow, the Ruſſian admiral, having debarked ſuch land forces as he had with him at Maina, which lies a little to the weſtward of Metapan, and about fifty miles to the ſouth-weſt of Miſitra, the ancient Sparta, the Marriotes, the deſcendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who ſtill poſſeſſed the country of their anceſtors, under ſubjection to the grand ſeignior, immediately flew to their arms in every quarter, and joined the Ruſſians by thouſands, from their averſion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks followed their example, or rather only waited to hear the arrival of the Ruſſians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea ſeemed every where in motion. The open country was quickly over-run, and Miſitra, Arcadia, and ſeveral other places as ſpeedily taken, while the Ruſſian ſhips that had been ſeparated, or that put into Italy, arrived ſucceſſively, and landed their men in different quarters, where every ſmall detachment ſoon ſwelled to a little army, and the Turks were every-where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time the Greeks gave the utmoſt looſe to their revenge, and every where ſlaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent were ſeized, extended itſelf to the iſlands, where alſo the Turks were maſſacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head againſt the Ruſſians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within their fortreſſes. The mal-contents had ſo much increaſed ſince the firſt debarkation of the Ruſſians, that they inveſted Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the caſtle of Patras, with ſeveral other places of leſs note.

Whilſt they were employed in theſe enterprizes, an army of 30,000 men, compoſed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by Sereſkier, Baſhaw of Boſnia. This Turkiſh general recovered all the northern part of the peninſula, as ſoon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that were found in arms, or out of their villages, were inſtantly put to death. The Ruſſians were now driven back to their ſhips; but about the ſame time another Ruſſian ſquadron, commanded by Admiral Elphinſton, arrived from England, to reinforce Count Orlow's armament. The Turkiſh fleet alſo appeared, and an obſtinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that iſland from Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia.

The Turkiſh fleet was conſiderably ſuperior in force, conſiſting of fifteen ſhips of the line, from ſixty to ninety guns, beſides a number of chebeques and gallies, amounting in the whole to near thirty ſail; the Ruſſians had only ten ſhips of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ſhips engaged with great reſolution, whilſt others, on both ſides, found various cauſes for not approaching ſufficiently near. But Spiritoff, a Ruſſian admiral, encountered the captain-pacha, in the Sultane, of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm. They both fought with the greateſt fury, and at length ran ſo cloſe, that they locked themſelves together with grappling-irons, and other tackling. In this ſituation, the Ruſſians, by throwing hand granades from the tops, ſet the Turkiſh ſhip on fire, and as they could not now be diſentangled, both ſhips were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumſtanced, without a poſſibility of ſuccour, they both at length, blew up with a moſt terrible exploſion. The commanders and principal officers on each ſide were moſtly ſaved, but greateſt part of the crews were loſt.

The dreadful fate of theſe ſhips, as well as the danger to thoſe that were near them, produced a kind of pauſe on both ſides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night, without any material advantage on either ſide. When it became dark, the Turkiſh fleet cut their cables, and ran into a bay on the coaſt of Natolia: the Ruſſians ſurrounded them thus cloſely pent up, and in the night ſome fire-ſhips were ſucceſsfully conveyed among the Turkiſh fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Engliſhman in the Ruſſian ſervice, who, though abandoned by his crew, himſelf directed the operations of theſe veſſels of deſtruction. The fire took place ſo effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war, and a few gallies that were towed off by the Ruſſians, was totally deſtroyed; after which, they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a caſtle that protected it, with ſuch ſucceſs, that a ſhot having blown up the powder-magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbiſh. Thus of a town, a caſtle, and a fine fleet, which had made a formidable appearance at one o'clock, there was ſcarcely left a veſtige at nine the ſame morning.

As we have, in our account of Ruſſia, given ſome of the military tranſactions by land, in the war between that empire and Turkey, we ſhall only add here, that after a moſt unfortunate war on the ſide of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Ruſſians, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, a few months after the acceſſion of the late grand ſeignior, Achmet IV. The emperor, Muſtapha III. left a ſon, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government, in the then critical ſituation of the Turkiſh affairs, Muſtapha appointed his brother to ſucceed him in the throne; and to this prince he entruſted the care of his infant ſon, under the ſtrongeſt terms of recommendation. The preſent grand ſeignior is Selim III. born in 1761.

The great ſprings of thoſe ſucceſſes which have rendered the empire of the Turks ſo formidable, have been aſcribed to their perſeverance, their numerous Aſiatic armies, and an implicit ſubmiſſion to their officers, rather than to any excellency in military diſcipline, or courage in war. The extenſion, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed, in ſome meaſure, be owing to the military inſtitution of the Janiſſaries, a corps originally compoſed of the children of ſuch Chriſtian parents as could not pay their taxes. Theſe being collected together, were formed to the exerciſe of arms under the eyes of their officers in the ſeraglio; they were generally in number about 40,000, and ſo excellent was their diſcipline, that they were deemed to be invincible, and they ſtill continue to be the flower of the Turkiſh armies. But the Ottoman power is in a declining ſtate: the political ſituation of Europe, and the jealouſies that ſubſiſt among its princes, are now the ſureſt baſis of this empire, and the principal reaſon why theſe once haughty infidels are ſuffered to remain any longer in poſſeſſion of the fineſt provinces in the world.

CHAP. V.

EASTERN TARTARY.

Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Mountains, Rivers, Produce, Animals, Inhabitants, &c.

THESE vaſt regions are 4000 miles in length, and 2400 in breadth; being ſituated between 50 and 150 deg. eaſt long. and 30 and 72 deg. north latitude.

Taken in its fulleſt extent, Tartary is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; by the Pacific Ocean on the eaſt; by China, India, Perſia, and the Caſpian Sea, on the ſouth; and by Muſcovy on the weſt.—But the accounts given us by geographers, reſpecting the extent, limits, and ſituation of this country, are not to be depended upon entirely, ſince the emperor of Ruſſia and his miniſtry are ignorant of his preciſe limits with the Chineſe, Perſians, and other nations.

One part of this extenſive territory is ſubject to the Chineſe empire, another is under the dominion of Ruſſia; and the third is independent.

Its grand diviſions, ſubdiviſions, and chief towns, are as follow:

The north-eaſt diviſion contains the Kamtſchatka Tartars, whoſe chief town is Kamtſchatka; and the Jakutſkoi-Tartars, whoſe chief town is Jakutſkoi.

The ſouth-eaſt diviſion includes the Thibet and Mogul-Tartars, whoſe chief towns are Bratſki, Thibet, Polon, Kudak, containing 985,380 ſquare miles.

The north-weſt diviſion compriſes Samoieda and Oſtiack: their chief towns are Mangaſia and Kortſkoi.

The ſouth-weſt diviſion contains Circaſſian and Aſtrachan-Tartary, whoſe chief towns are Terki and Aſtrachan.

The middle diviſion includes Siberia, with its chief town, Tobolſk; Kalmuck-Tartary, and its chief town, Bokharia; and Uſbeck-Tartary, whoſe chief town is Samercand; Kalmuck-Tartary contains 850,000 ſquare miles, and Uſbeck-Tartary 339,840.

The chief mountains of Tartary are Caucaſus in Circaſſia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat, ſo contiguous to it, that they appear like a continuation of the ſame mountain, which croſſes all Aſia from Mingrelia to the Indies; and the mountains of Stolp, in the north.

Its ſeas are, the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caſpian.

There are ſeveral lakes in Tartary, the moſt conſiderable of which are the Baikal, the Kiſan, and the Kologal.

The moſt remarkable rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a courſe of 2000 miles; the Obey, which divides Aſia from Europe, the Tabol, Irtis, Geneſa or Jenſka; the Argun, which divides the Ruſſian and Chineſe empires; the Burrumpooter, and the Lena.

As this country is of a vaſt extent from north to ſouth, conſequently the air, climate, ſoil, and produce, muſt be very different; the ſouthern parts being in the ſame latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey; and the northern reaching beyond the arctic polar circle.

The moſt uncomfortable regions are Nova Zembla and Ruſſian Lapland; the earth, which is covered with ſnow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholeſome marſhes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickneſſes.

Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Ruſſian ambaſſador to China, repreſents ſome parts of Tartary as fertile and deſirable countries, which, when cultivated, yield excellent fruits, particularly very large grapes; and the graſs grows ſpontaneouſly to an amazing height; but the Tartars have no idea of making it into hay. The common productions are, ſome wheat, rice, barley; ſeveral kinds of roots, and pulſe, coffee, aloes, and various other drugs. Their method of procuring early graſs for their cattle, particularly in Mongalia, is very extraordinary: during the high winds which blow here in ſpring, they ſet fire to the rank graſs; this runs in a moſt amazing manner, and the flames frequently ſpread till their progreſs is ſtopped by ſome river or barren hill. The following year the aſhes of this conſumed graſs, waſhed into the earth by the ſnow as it melts, prove ſuch excellent manure, that the young graſs ſprings thicker than wheat, on the land thus prepared.

Beſides other land and amphibious animals common in the north parts of Europe, ſuch as bears, wolves, &c. there are, in ſome parts of Tartary, camels, dromedaries, goats with yellow hair, ſquirrels, foxes, an animal called hautchan, reſembling an elk; another called chulon or chaliſon, which ſeems to be a ſort of lynx, a little creature called tael-pe, and marmots. The laſt of theſe animals are chiefly found on the hills in Mongalia, where they burrow under the broad ſpreading leaves of the rhubarb plants; to the growth of which it is ſaid their dung, and their caſting up the earth about the roots, greatly contribute. Their horſes are of a good ſize for the ſaddle, and are very hardy; as they run wild till they are five or ſix years old, they are generally headſtrong.

Near Aſtrachan, there is a bird (by travellers taken to be the pelican) called by the Ruſſians Baba, of a grey colour, and ſomething larger than a ſwan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and, on ſeeing a ſhoal or fry of ſmall fiſhes, ſpreads his wings, and drives them to a ſhallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going aſhore, eats them, or carries them to the young.

The population of Tartary can never be aſcertained; but from ſome circumſtances we muſt conclude, that the number of inhabitants are by no means proportioned to the extent of their country. Theſe people, originally deſcended from the Scythians, are now generally divided into three diſtinct powers; the firſt are thoſe known by the name of Tartars, the ſecond are the Calmucks, and the third the Monguls. The Tartars, properly ſo called, live to the weſt of the Caſpian ſea. The moſt conſiderable of them are the Uſbecks, ſubject to Perſia; the Kara Kallpacks, the Nogais, and the Baſkirs, the two laſt being ſubject to Ruſſia; and the Dagheſtans, who depend on no power, and are more ſavage and untractable than any of the reſt.

In their perſons they are generally ſhort and ſtout, with broad faces, flat noſes, and ſmall but quick black eyes. They continually thin their beards by plucking the hairs out by the roots, ſo that they are ſcarcely viſible. The women bear a ſtrong reſemblance to the men, except in Circaſſia, where they are eſteemed as remarkable beauties, and are admired for their wit and addreſs. Many of them are found in the ſeraglios of the grand ſeignior, and other great perſonages, both in Turkey and Perſia; being purchaſed of their parents, while exceeding young, by merchants, who cauſe them to be inſtructed in ſuch accompliſhments as may tend to enhance their value when offered to ſale. The Tartarian women are famed for being honeſt, ſincere, and in general very modeſt. Adultery is a crime ſcarce ever heard of among them.

In their diſpoſitions the Tartars are naturally eaſy and cheerful, always diſpoſed to laughter, and ſcarce ever experience either care or melancholy. They are extremely hoſpitable to each other, and likewiſe to ſtrangers, who put themſelves under their protection. Their ideas of filial duty cannot be exceeded, and ſcarcely equalled, by more poliſhed nations; but they ſometimes carry them to what we muſt term, a cruel height, for if any of them are rendered infirm by age, or ſeized with an incurable diſtemper, they build a ſmall hut, near ſome river, into which they put the patient with a quantity of proviſions, and then quitting him, ſeldom or never return to know his fate. The reaſon they aſſign for this ſtrange conduct is, that they do their parents a good office in ſending them to a better world; for they believe in a future ſtate, and that virtue leads to happineſs, and vice to miſery: therefore, when tempted by another to commit a bad action, they uſually, if well-diſpoſed, reply in the following

lowing proverb: "Though a knife be ſharp, it cannot cut its own handle." Their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horſes; for, being inured to horſemanſhip from their infancy, they ſeldom appear on foot; their dexterity in ſhooting at a mark is inconceivable, and frequently while in full gallop, they will cleave a pole, at a conſiderable diſtance from them, with an arrow. They avoid all kind of labour, and have few mechanics among them, except thoſe who make arms. In general, they lead a wandering life, ſetting out in the ſpring, frequently ten thouſand in a body, preceded by their flocks and herds; and when they come to an inviting ſpot, they pitch their tents, and ſtay there till all the graſs is conſumed, when they again ſet forward in ſearch of another fertile plain. Some of them live in huts half ſunk under ground, the fire being in the centre, with a hole juſt over it in the roof to let out the ſmoke, and round it are benches to ſit or lie upon. This ſeems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eaſtward, to the Japaneſe ocean. In the northern provinces, as ſoon as the winter ſets in, every family burrows itſelf under ground, nor do they emerge again till the ſucceeding ſpring.

Their favourite food is horſe-fleſh, which they broil and roaſt, and ſometimes large pieces of it are ſmoked or dried in the ſun; but they never eat it raw, as is commonly believed, unleſs compelled to it by neceſſity. On long marches, all their proviſions conſiſt of cheeſe, or rather dried curd, made up into little balls, which they pound, and, mixing the powder with water, drink it.

Some of the tribes are far more filthy than others, but in this particular none exceed the Kamtſchatkans, who are ſaid never to waſh their hands or face, nor cut their nails: they eat out of the ſame diſh with the dogs, without ever being waſhed every thing about them ſtinks of fiſh, and they never comb their heads. Both men and women plait their hair in two locks, binding the ends with ſmall cords. If any hair happens to ſtart out, they ſew it down with thread, to make it lie cloſe, by which means their heads ſwarm with vermin, which they ſcrape off with their hands.

The Tartars have very little money except what they get from the Ruſſians, and their other neighbours, in exchange for cattle: and with this they ſometimes buy meal, but it is more frequently expended in cloths, ſilks, ſtuffs, and other apparel for their women, whom they likewiſe purchaſe with cattle.

They are not very nice in their marriages, it not being uncommon, in ſome of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter; and there is very little difference made between the child of a concubine or ſlave, and that of a wife, except that, among the heads of tribes, the wife's ſon is always preferred in the ſucceſſion. But what is ſtill a greater hardſhip, every wife when turned of forty, is degraded to the menial offices of a ſervant, and, as ſuch, muſt wait on the young wife who ſucceeds to her place.

The Tartarian dreſs is very ſimple; that of the men conſiſts of a ſhort jacket, with narrow ſleeves, made of deer-ſkins, with the fur outward, and trowſers and hoſe all of one piece. Moſt of the tribes ſhave their heads, except a lock behind, which is plaited, and hangs down their backs. They wear a cap turned up with fur, adorned on the top with a taſſel of red ſilk. The women are dreſſed in looſe gowns, ornamented and bordered with different colours; they all wear ear-rings, and their hair plaited in ſeveral locks. Thoſe of moſt conſequence among them, wear ſilk garments in the ſummer.

The inhabitants of Siberia are, like their anceſtors, moſt of them idolaters. They conſiſt of many nations, entirely differing from each other in their manner of living, religion, language, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on by ſome Tartars, and ſuch as are converted to Chriſtianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increaſed ſince it became a Ruſſian province; for the Ruſſians have built therein a number of towns, fortreſſes, and villages. Notwithſtanding which, it preſents but a void and deſert appearance; ſince, by its extent, it is capable of ſupporting ſeveral millions more than it at preſent contains.

The religion of the Circaſſians is Paganiſm; for, notwithſtanding they uſe circumciſion among them, they have nither prieſt, koran, or moſque, like other Mahometans. Every body here offers his own ſacrifice at pleaſure, for which, however, they have certain days, eſtabliſhed more by cuſtom than any poſitive command. Their moſt ſolemn ſacrifice is offered at the death of their neareſt friends, upon which occaſion both men and women meet in the field to be preſent at the offering, which is a he-goat: this being killed, they flay it, and ſtretch the ſkin, with the head and horns on, upon a croſs at the top of a long pole, placed commonly in a quickſet hedge (to keep the cattle from it) and the ſacrifice is offered near the place, by boiling and roaſting the fleſh, which they afterwards eat. When the feaſt is over, the men riſe, and having paid their adoration to the ſkin, and muttered over ſome certain prayers, the women withdraw, and the men conclude the ceremony with drinking a great quantity of aqua vitæ, and this generally ends in a quarrel before they break up the meeting.

We ſhall now proceed to give an account of the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet, and Laſſa, a large tract of Tartary bordering upon China, which is conſidered as the moſt remarkable, and moſt worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lama, or Delai Lama, who is not only ſubmitted to, and adored by them, but is alſo the great object of adoration for the various tribes of heathen Tartars, who roam through the vaſt tract of continent which ſtretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Korea on the ſea of Japan. He is not only the ſovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the deity on earth; but, as ſuperſtition is ever the ſtrongeſt, where it is moſt removed from its object, the more remote Tartars abſolutely regard him as the Deity himſelf. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worſhip and make rich offerings at his ſhrine: even the emperor of China, who is a Manchon Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expence, in the palace of Pekin, an inferior Lama, deputed as his nuncio from Thibet. The opinion of thoſe who are reputed the moſt orthodox among the Thibetians, is, that when the Grand Lama ſeems to die, either of old age or infirmity, his ſoul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and it is diſcovered again in the body of ſome child, by certain tokens known only to the Lamas or prieſts, in which order he always appears.

In 1774 the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been diſcovered ſome time before the Tayſloo Lama, who in authority and ſanctity of character is next to the Grand Lama, and during his minority acts as chief. The Lamas, who form the moſt numerous as well as the moſt powerful body in the ſtate, have the prieſthood entirely in their hands; and, beſides, fill up many monaſtic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The reſidence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vaſt palace on a mountain near the banks of the Barampooter, about ſeven miles from Laſſa. The Engliſh Eaſt-India company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774, in conſequence

of the fort of Dellamcotta, the principal pafs through the ridge of the Bootan mountains, being taken by ftorm by Capt. Jones, in 1773, which made the Thibetians fue for peace. The people at Thibet have great veneration for the cow, and alfo highly refpect the waters of the Ganges, the fource of which they believe to be in heaven. The Sunniaffes, or Indian pilgrims, often vifit Thibet as an holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Befides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is poffeffed of unlimited power throughout his very extenfive dominions.

The religion of Schamanifm is alfo very prevalent among the Tartars. The profeffors of this religion believe in one fupreme God, the creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all-powerful; but that he pays no attention to to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his fight. But they alfo maintain, that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the deftiny of men, among a number of inferior divinities, under his command and control, but who nevertheleſs generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore it is incumbent on mankind to ufe all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewife fuppofe, that, for the moft part, thefe fubordinate deities abominate and punifh premeditated villainy, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly perfuaded of a future exiftence; but they have many fuperftitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are confidered as beings vaftly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their fenfual pleafure, to people the world, and to fuperintend and manage houfehold affairs; in conſequence of thefe principles, it is no wonder they are treated with that contempt and feverity they commonly meet with.

Among a nation of Tartars, the reader cannot expect to find a very fatisfactory account on the article of learning; it is, however, very certain, that under Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early defcendants, Aftrachan and the neighbouring countries were the feats of learning and politeneſs, as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever fo fplendid, falls fhort of that of thofe princes; and there are ftill extant fome remains of their taſte in architecture, but thefe are only to be found in deſolate and almoft inacceffible places. The cultivation of learning was the firft care of the prince, and generally committed to the care of his own relations. They wrote in the Perfian or Arabic tongues; and their hiftories carry with them the ftrongeft marks of authenticity: many of thefe are ftill extant in manufcript.

Their curiofities are comprehended in the remains of the buildings left by the above-mentioned great conquerors, and their fucceffors. Here are remains of ditches and ramparts, which heretofore either furrounded fmall towns, now quite demolifhed, or were deſigned for the defence of camps, forts, or caftles, the veſtiges of which are often to be difcovered upon the fpot, as well as other traces of buildings, &c. which ftrongly indicate their priſtine importance. Many of them are in tolerable preſervation, and make ſome figure even at preſent.

The Slabode, or Tartarian fuburb of Kafimof, on the Oha, ſeems to have been the reſidence of ſome khan. In the midft of the ruins of that city is a round and elevated tower, called in their language Mifquir, a ſort of temple, or building dedicated to devotion. Here are alſo the remains of the walls of a palace; and in one of the maſarets, or burial-places, is a very conſiderable mauſoleum; all of which edifices are built of hewn ſtone and bricks. From an Arabic inſcription we learn that the khan of Schagali was buried there in the nine hundred and ſixty-ſecond year of the hegira, or the one thouſand five hundred and twentieth of the chriſtian æra. Near Mount Caucaſus are ſtill very conſiderable remains of Madſchar, a celebrated city of former times. Near Derbent are numerous tombs covered with cylindrical ſtones, exceeding the uſual ſtature of men, with Arabic inſcriptions.

In the environs of Aſtrachan, the ruins of ancient Aſtrachan are very viſible, and the rubbiſh and ramparts of another reſpectable town ſtill exiſt near Tzantzin, on the left ſhore of the Wolga. A little below the mouth of the Kama, which empties itſelf into the above-mentioned river, are many ſuperb monuments of the ancient city Bulgaria, conſiſting of towers, moſques, houſes, and ſepulchres, all built of ſtone or brick. The oldeſt epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the moſt modern at leaſt 400 years. Not far from hence, on the Tcheremtſcham, a little river that runs into the Wolga, are found ruins ſomewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are thoſe of Boulymer, an ancient and very conſiderable city of the Bulgarians. The ſmall town of Bilyairſk has been erected by the Tartars upon its ruins.

There is a monument, in the fortreſs of Kaſan, of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are ſo broad, that they ſerve at preſent for ramparts: the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn ſtone. In going up the river Kaſanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the ſtrong ramparts of the old Kaſan. Near the Oufa are cemeteries full of innumerable inſcriptions, and ſeveral ſepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are ſtill ſeen about Tobolſk upon the Irtiſch. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulph in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Oural are the ditches of the city Saratſchik. Not to mention a great number of other cities and ruins in Siberia; and eſpecially all thoſe that are to be met with in the deſert of Kirgius, which abounds in the relics of opulent cities. Some gold and ſilver coins have likewiſe been found, with ſeveral manuſcripts neatly written, which have been carried to Peterſburg.

About eighty miles from Laſſa is the lake Palte, or Jangſo; of that extent, the natives ſay it requires eighteen days to walk round it. In the middle of it are iſlands, one of which is the ſeat of the Lamiſſa Turcepama, or the great regenerate, in whom the Thibetians think a divine ſpirit reſides, as in the Great Lama. M. Voltaire, in his Hiſtory of Peter the Great, informs us, that there were found in Kalmuc Tartary a ſubterraneous houſe of ſtone, ſome urns, lamps, and ear-rings, an equeſtrian ſtatue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women ſeated on thrones, and a roll of manuſcript, which was ſent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inſcriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Thibet. Hair, fine wool, coarſe cloths, rock ſalt, muſk, and gold, are their ſtaple commodities.

CHAP. VI.

DESCRIPTION OF VARIOUS ISLANDS

DISCOVERED OF THE RUSSIANS.

THOUGH the voyagers of Columbus and Vaſquez de Gama had diſcovered a new world in the weſt, and proved the cauſe of exploring many countries little known, but by hearſay, in the oriental quarter of the world; yet it was ſtill ſuppoſed, by many who curiouſly contemplated the figure of the globe, that there were many iſlands in the eaſtern ocean.

ocean, and much land to the ſouthward yet remaining undiſcovered; and ſome for a long time entertained the idea of a vaſt ſouthern continent, or firſt diviſion of the world, which they contended was neceſſary to keep up the due balance of the terraqueous globe.

While theſe things were yet in contemplation, the Ruſſians diſcovered the northern Archipelago, a vaſt number iſlands ſituate between the eaſtern coaſt of Kamtſchatka and the weſtern part of the continent of America; the firſt project for making which diſcoveries was actually conceived and ſet on foot by the Czar Peter the Great. The firſt group of theſe iſlands called Saſignan, comprehends (partly under the name of Aleutian Iſles.) 1. Beering's-Iſland. 2. Copper-Iſland. 3. Orma. 4. Samyra. 5. Anakta. The ſecond group, called Khao, contains eight iſlands. 1. Immaak. 2. Kiſka. 3. Ichetchia. 4. Ava. 5. Kavia. 6. Iſchangulak. 7. Ulagama. 8. Amtſchkidga. The third, under the general name of Negho, comprehends a number of iſlands, ſixteen of which are thus denominated. 1. Amatkinak. 2. Ulak. 3. Unalga. 4. Navoltſha. 5. Uliga. 6. Anagin. 7. Kagulak. 8. Illak. 9. Takavanga. 10. Kanaga; on both which are volcanos. 11. Leg. 12. Sketſkuna. 13. Tugaloon. 14. Goreloi. 15. Ochtu. 16. Amla. The fourth group, which is called Kavalang, and by the Ruſſians the Fox-Iſlands, contains: 1. Amuchta. 2. Ttſchigama. 3. Iſchegula. 4. Uniſtra. 5. Ulaga. 6. Tauagulana. 7. Kagamin. 8. Kigalga. 9. Skelmaga. 10. Umnak. 11. Agun-Alaſhka. 12. Unimga. 13. Uligan. 14. Anturo-Leiſume. 15. Semidit. 16. Senagak.

The natives of theſe iſlands (ſome of which are only occaſionally inhabited) are, in general, ſtrong and robuſt, but ſhort in ſtature. They have little beards, lank black hair, and flat faces, with a fair complexion. The inhabitants of the Aleutian Iſles generally live upon wild animals and roots which grow ſpontaneouſly, little troubling themſelves to catch the fine fiſh with which the rivers abound.

Copper-Iſland takes its name from the quantity of copper which the ſea throws upon its coaſts. The Fox-Iſlands receive their appellation from the number of black, grey, and red foxes which are found there. The inhabitants are the moſt numerous and warlike of all theſe Tartars, they generally wear a cap, and a coat that reaches to the knee. Some of them adopt caps of a party-coloured bird-ſkin, on which they ſuffer part of the wings and tail to remain. They often ornament theſe on the fore part with a board ſet with jaw-bones of ſea-bears, and ornamented with beads. They generally eat their fleſh and fiſh raw, and ſo they feed their children with it; but when they think proper to dreſs their food, they chooſe a hollow ſtone in which they put the viands, cloſing the interſtices with clay or lime; then laying that horizontally on two other ſtones, kindle a fire beneath. What they intend for keeping, they do not ſalt, but dry it freſh in the open air.

They uſe bows and arrows, darts, and wooden targets in war. They live together either in families, or ſocieties of ſeveral families united, which they call a race; and theſe are in a ſtate of alliance, though without any ſettled form of government. Nor does it appear that they have either eſtabliſhed laws or puniſhments, but property in each iſland is held in common among every ſociety, and ſo enjoyed without diſturbance. The conſequence is a perfect equality, that child of the ſimplicity of nature, never to be expected in mighty ſtates or in great republics, and ſo often conſidered as a mere Utopian ſcheme and idle dream by European politicians.

Theſe people are deſcribed as poſſeſſing, with but little acuteneſs, a good portion of natural ſenſe; in general, ſlow and phlegmatic, but capable of being rouſed by injuries to a moſt implacable fury, and ſuſceptible of apprehenſions of evil, which will often drive them to the commiſſion of ſuicide, which they perpetrate with great apparent indifference. They ſeem much averſe to the viſits of their powerful neighbours the Ruſſians.

As a race of Tartars, delicacy is not to be expected among theſe iſlanders; and they may well be concluded ſtrangers to what is termed the refinement of manners. They ſeldom heat their dwellings, but when they are neceſſitated to warm themſelves, they either fire train oil, and pour it into a hollow ſtone, or ſtand over a bundle of burning hay, and this they think ſufficient. They endure the cold the more eaſily becauſe they are inured to it from early youth: a mother will carry her infant when it cries to the ſea-ſide, though in winter, and hold it in the water till it is quiet; by which means the child, as it grows up, can walk barefooted at all ſeaſons, and never experiences any ſenſible inconvenience from the ſeverity of the weather. Trees are not found on theſe iſlands, but drift wood is brought on ſhore in great quantities.

Being of an hoſpitable diſpoſition, the natives of the northern Archipelago make frequent feaſts, at the celebration of which they put on their moſt ſhewy caps, and advance in proceſſion to meet their gueſts with drums beating, preceded by ſinging and dancing women, eſpecially if the people of one iſland are viſited by thoſe of another; and theſe feaſts form the principal part of their recreation.

Such are the manners of the inhabitants of a cluſter of iſlands which were diſcovered at various times; and, as we have already obſerved, on a plan conceived by Peter the Firſt, that famous reformer and enlightener of his people. But great projects do not always meet with immediate ſucceſs.

It was in the year 1728 that Beering and Tſchirichoff, two Moſcovite navigators, ſailed firſt on a voyage of diſcovery, which, however, produced nothing worthy of notice. A ſecond expedition ſucceeded no better; and in a third voyage, in 1741, Beering's ſhip was caſt away, and he died on an iſland not far from Kamtſchatka; and ſo little did the Ruſſians poſſeſs of nautical knowledge, that notwithſtanding all encouragements given by their government, and though theſe iſlands were in their own neighbourhood, no perfect idea of them was obtained till ſo late as the year 1750. The account which we have here given, is from the authority of Mr. Muller, who conſulted many journals of voyages, by the direction of the late Empreſs of Ruſſia, to which he added the ſubſtance of further information received from a native and chief of one of the iſlands, who was brought to Peterſburgh in the year 1751.

CHAP. V.

KAMTSCHATKA.

Extent, Boundaries, Inhabitants, &c.

THIS is a great peninſula, extending from north to ſouth about 7 deg. 30 min. It is divided into four diſtricts, Bolchereſk, Tigilſkaia Krepoſt, Verchnei, or Upper Kamtſchatkoi Oſtrog, and Niſhnei, or Lower Kamtſchatkoi Oſtrog. The eaſtern ocean ſeparates it from America; on the weſt, it has Penſchinſka for its boundary, commencing near the ſouthern point of the Cape of Kamtſchatka, and extending northerly between Ochotſkoy and the weſtern coaſt of Kamtſchatka. The ſouthern part is 51 deg. north lat. and 143 deg. long. eaſt of London.

The inhabitants have no one fixed general name for this country, though the Ruſſians call the whole of it Kamtſchatka: it has the ſeveral names of Kurilſki, Bolſcheretſki, Awatcha Koreki, Ukoi, and Tegil, ſome from the names of the natives, and others from

ſome particular or memorable circumſtance. The three divided nations have different languages.

The Kamtſchadales are ſhort in ſtature, have dark hair, hollow eyes, ſharp noſes, and tawny complexions. Their dreſs conſiſts of deer-ſkins, with the fur outwards; alſo of dog-ſkins, and thoſe of other animals. They often wear two coats, the ſleeves of the outer coat reaching down to the knees; they have a hood to it, which in bad weather ſerves to cover the head: and they ornament the back part with ſhreds of ſkins, and ſometimes with ſilk of different colours.

The men wear a leather belt round them, and their legs are covered with different coloured ſkins; they wear ſeal-ſkin caps or hats, and ſometimes a hat or cap of birch bark: ſome have caps of graſs plaited.

The women wear the ſame ſorts of garments as the men; though their coats, or rather waiſtcoats, ſit cloſer to their bodies, and are decorated with ſlips of red, blue, and yellow cloth, and ſometimes ribband, or woollen liſt. They have fur caps, that are white within, and black without: they let their hair grow much longer than the men, plait it, and hang braſs trinkets to it.

There are three volcanoes in Kamtſchatka. The firſt is that of Awatcha, to the northward of the bay of that name. The ſecond iſſues from ſome mountains ſituated between the river of Kamtſchatka and that of Tabolſki. The third volcano iſſues from the higheſt mountain in Kamtſchatka on the banks of the river of that name.

The Kamtſchadales live ſome of them in huts, others in the woods, and on the banks of rivers.—The men, when not employed in hunting or fiſhing, weave nets, and conſtruct ſledges or boats: in the ſpring and ſummer they procure the neceſſaries of life, and lay up a ſtore for the ſucceeding winter, which is not very inclement, though their ſpring and ſummer do not continue more than four months.

The Province of Jakutſkoi.

In this country, and the northern parts of Siberia, the cold ſometimes increaſes ſo conſiderably in a few hours as to ſtrike men and cattle dead, who happen to be at too great a diſtance from any habitation to ſhelter themſelves from it: but when ſome parts of the body are only frozen, they rub them with ſnow, by which the circulation is immediately reſtored. This ſevere weather is ſucceeded by ſo hot a ſummer, that the inhabitants are obliged to go partly naked.

In the northern parts, beyond the ſixtieth degree of latitude, the earth produces neither corn nor fruit; they are however, ſupplied with thoſe neceſſaries from the ſouthern parts; and they are in want of neither fiſh nor animal food; for they have a great diverſity of the former, and a plenty of tame and wild animals; and as to fuel, they have alſo a ſufficiency of that neceſſary article.

There is ſome corn in the country of the Jakutſkoi, but they pay little regard to it, as their chief attention, like that of their neighbours, is employed in hunting animals.

The town of Jakutſkoi, on the river Leno, is the capital of the province, and is about 400 miles from the Frozen Ocean.

Theſe people form one of the moſt conſiderable and numerous Pagan nations in this vaſt country: they are divided into ten tribes, making in the whole not leſs than 30 or 40,000 perſons, all under the dominion and taxation of Ruſſia.

The Jakuti believe in a Supreme Being, and have attempted to give an image of him; the image, however, hath a very hideous aſpect, with a big head, and large eyes of coral. They place it in a tree, and cover it with furs: once a year they aſſemble together, and ſacrifice horſes, &c. to this image, ſticking up the horſes heads all round the tree. Then ſitting down in a circle, they drink of a liquor which they call cumoſe, and get intoxicated with it. They alſo throw ſome of the liquor into the air, and into a fire which they light on the occaſion.

When Captain Cook firſt made the land of the Jakutſkoi, in Auguſt 1778, it was ſuppoſed by ſome, on board the Reſolution, to be a part of the iſland of Alaſchka, laid down in Mr. Stæhlin's map; but, from the appearance of the coaſt, and other circumſtances, it was ſoon conjectured to be rather the country of the Jakutſkoi, or the eaſtern extremity of Aſia, explored by Beering in 1728. In admitting this, however, without farther examination, we muſt have pronounced Mr. Stæhlin's map, and his account of the new Northern Archipelago, to be either remarkably erroneous, even in latitude, or elſe to be a mere fiction; a judgment which we would not preſume to paſs upon a publication ſo reſpectfully vouched, without producing the moſt deciſive proofs.

This country, lying on the eaſtern coaſt of Aſia, is bounded on the ſouth by the river Anadir, and extends along the ſhore, to the north and north-eaſt, to 74 deg. of latitude.

Upon Captain Cook's landing, with a party of our people, at this place, thirty or forty men, each of whom was armed with a ſpontoon, a bow, and arrows, ſtood drawn up on an eminence near the houſes. Three of them came down towards the ſhore, on the approach of our people, and were ſo polite as to pull off their caps, and make them low bows. Though this civility was returned, it did not inſpire them with ſufficient confidence to wait for their landing; for, the inſtant the boats put aſhore, the natives retired. Captain Cook followed them alone, without any thing in his hand, and, by ſigns and geſtures, prevailed on them to ſtop, and accept ſome trifling preſents. In return for theſe, they gave him two fox-ſkins, and a couple of ſea-horſe teeth. The captain was of opinion, that they had brought theſe articles down with them, for the purpoſe of preſenting them to him, and that they would have given them, even if they had expected no return.

They diſcovered manifeſt tokens of apprehenſion and fear, intimating their deſire, by ſigns, that no more of our people ſhould be ſuffered to come up. On the captain's laying his hand on the ſhoulder of one of them, he ſtarted back ſeveral paces. In proportion as he advanced, they retreated, always in the attitude of being ready to make uſe of their ſpears; while thoſe on the eminence were ready to ſupport them with their arrows. Inſenſibly, however, the captain, and two or three of his companions, introduced themſelves among them. The diſtribution of a few beads among ſome of them ſoon created a degree of confidence; ſo that they were not alarmed, when the party was joined by a few more; and, in a ſhort time, a kind of traffick was entered into. In exchange for tobacco, knives, beads, and other articles, they gave a few arrows, and ſome of their clothing: but nothing that our people had to offer, could induce them to part with a ſpear or a bow. Theſe they held in continual readineſs, never quitting them, except at one time, when four or five perſons laid theirs down, while they favoured our people with a ſong and a dance; and even then, they placed them in ſuch a manner, that they could lay hold of them in a moment.

Their arrows were pointed either with ſtone or bone, but very few of them had barbs; and ſome of them had a round blunt point. What uſe theſe are applied to could not be determined, unleſs it be to kill ſmall animals without damaging the ſkin.

Their ſpontoons, or ſpears, were of iron or ſteel, and of European or Aſiatic workmanſhip; and conſiderable pains had been taken to embelliſh them with carving, and inlayings of braſs, and of a white metal. Thoſe who ſtood with bows and arrows in their hands, had the ſpear ſlung by a leathern ſtrap over their right ſhoulder. A leathern quiver, ſlung over their left ſhoulder,

ſhoulder, ſerved to contain arrows; and ſome of theſe quivers were exceedingly beautiful, being made of red leather, on which was very neat embroidery, and other ornaments. In this and ſome inſtances of their clothing, they gave proofs of a degree of ingenuity, not to be expected among the inhabitants of ſo northern a region. The natives were robuſt and well proportioned. No women or children, of either ſex, were obſerved, nor any aged perſons, except one man, whoſe head was bald, and he was the only one who bore no arms: the others ſeemed to be ſelect men, and rather under than above the middle age. The elderly man had a black mark acroſs his face, which was not perceived in any others. All of them had their ears perforated, and ſome had glaſs beads hanging to them. Theſe were the only fixed ornaments ſeen about them, for they wore none to their lips.

The dreſs of theſe people conſiſted of a frock, a pair of breeches, a pair of boots, and a pair of gloves, all made of the ſkins of deer, dogs, ſeals, and other animals, extremely well dreſſed, ſome with the hair or fur on, and others without it. Their hair was apparently black; but their heads were either ſhaved, or their hair cut cloſe off; and none of them wore beards.

They have their winter and ſummer habitations: the former are like a vault, the floor of which is ſunk below the ſurface of the earth. One of them examined by Captain Cook's people, was of an oval figure, about twenty feet in length, and twelve or more in height; the framing conſiſting of wood and the ribs of whales, judiciouſly diſpoſed, and bound together with ſmaller materials of the ſame kind. Over this framing, a covering of ſtrong coarſe graſs was laid, and that again was covered with earth; ſo that on the outſide the houſe had the appearance of a little hillock, ſupported by a wall of ſtone, of the height of three or four feet, which was built round the two ſides, and one end. At the other end of the habitation the earth was raiſed ſloping, to walk up to the entrance, which was by a hole in the top of the roof, over that end. The floor was boarded, and under it was a ſort of cellar, in which was ſeen nothing but water. At the end of each houſe was a vaulted room, which was ſuppoſed to be a ſtore-room.

Their ſummer huts were of a tolerable ſize, and brought to a kind of point at the top. Slight poles and bones, covered with the ſkins of ſea-animals, compoſed the framing. The inſide of one being examined, there was a fire-place juſt within the door, where a few wooden veſſels were depoſited, all very dirty. Their bed-places were cloſe to the ſide, and occupied about one half of the circuit: ſome degree of privacy ſeemed to be obſerved; for there were ſeveral partitions made with ſkins. The bed and bedding conſiſted of deer ſkins, and moſt of them were clean and dry.

When a viſiter comes to ſee them, he is always preſented with the maſter of the hut's wife or daughter, who hands to him a baſon of her own urine, with which the viſitor (if among their own people) waſhes his mouth; and this he is obliged to do, or he is not looked upon as a friend.

About the houſes were erected ſeveral ſtages ten or twelve feet in height. They were compoſed entirely of bones, and were apparently intended for drying their fiſh and ſkins, which were thus placed out of the reach of their dogs, of which they had great numbers.

Theſe dogs are of the fox kind, rather large, and of different colours, with long ſoft hair reſembling wool. They are, in all probability, uſed for the purpoſe of drawing their ſledges in winter; for it appears that they have ſledges, as many of them were ſeen laid up in one of their winter huts. It is likewiſe not improbable that dogs conſtitute a part of their food, for ſeveral lay dead, which had been recently killed.

The canoes of theſe people reſemble thoſe of the northern parts, the form being ſimple, but calculated for every uſeful purpoſe.

From the large bones of fiſh, and other ſea animals, it appeared, that the ſea furniſhed them with the greater part of their ſubſiſtence. The country ſeemed exceeding barren, as our people ſaw not a tree or ſhrub. At ſome diſtance towards the weſt they obſerved a ridge of mountains covered with ſnow, that had fallen not long before.

Such of theſe people as live to the northward of the Anadir not being under the dominion of the Ruſſians, are inimical to thoſe who are. The Ruſſians, indeed, have made many ſtrenuous but unſucceſsful efforts to bring them under a general ſubjection.

Our people, on leaving this country, ſteered to the eaſtward, in order to make a nearer approach to the American coaſt; and arriving in their paſſage at the latitude of 70 deg. 6 min. north, ſaw an amazing number of ſea-horſes on the ice, and as they were in want of freſh proviſions, the boats were diſpatched from each ſhip to procure ſome. Nine of theſe animals were brought on board the Reſolution, and which, till this time, were ſuppoſed to have been ſea cows; nor would the difference have been known, had not two or three men on board, who had been in Greenland, declared what animals theſe were, and that no perſon ever eat of them. Notwithſtanding this, they ſerved for proviſions, and there were few of our people who did not prefer them to ſalt meat.

The fat of theſe animals, at firſt, is as ſweet as marrow; but in a few days, it becomes rancid, unleſs it is ſalted, in which ſtate it will keep much longer. The lean fleſh is courſe and blackiſh, and has a ſtrong taſte; but the heart is almoſt as well taſted as that of a bullock. The fat when melted, affords a great quantity of oil, which burns very well in lamps; and their hides, which are of great thickneſs, were very uſeful about the rigging. The teeth, or tuſks, of moſt of them were, at this time, of a very ſmall ſize; even ſome of the largeſt and oldeſt of theſe animals had them not exceeding ſix inches in length. Hence it was concluded that they had lately ſhed their old teeth.

They lie upon the ice in herds of many hundreds, huddling, like ſwine, one over another; and they roar very loud; ſo that in the night, or when the weather was very foggy, they gave our people notice of the vicinity of the ice, before they could diſcern it. It was never found that the whole herd were aſleep at the ſame time, ſome of them being conſtantly on the watch. Theſe, on the approach of the boat, would awake thoſe that were next to them; and the alarm being thus gradually communicated, the whole herd would preſently be awake. However, they were ſeldom in a hurry to get away, before they had been once fired at. Then they would fall into the ſea, one over the other in the utmoſt confuſion; and if our people did not happen, at the firſt diſcharge, to kill thoſe they fired at, they generally loſt them, though mortally wounded.

They did not appear to be ſo dangerous as ſome authors have repreſented them; even when they were attacked. They are, indeed, more ſo in appearance, than in reality. Vaſt multitudes of them would follow, and come cloſe up to the boats; but the flaſh of a muſket in the pan, or even the mere pointing one at them, would ſend them down in a moment. The female, however, will defend her young ones to the very laſt, and at the expence of her own life, whether upon the ice or in the water.

There appeared ſome ſtriking inſtances of parental affection in theſe animals. All of them, on the approach of the boats towards the ice, took their young ones under their fins, and attempted to eſcape with them into the ſea. Some, whoſe cubs were killed or wounded,

wounded, and left floating upon the ſurface of the water, roſe again, and carried them down, ſometimes juſt as the men were on the point of taking them into the boat; and could be traced bearing them to a conſiderable diſtance through the water, which was ſtained with their blood. They were afterwards obſerved bringing them, at intervals, above the ſurface, as if for air, and again plunging under it, with a horrid bellowing. The female, in particular, whoſe young one had been killed, and taken into the boat, became ſo furious, that ſhe even ſtruck her two tuſks through the bottom of the cutter. Nor will the young one quit the dam though ſhe has been killed; ſo that if you deſtroy one, you are ſure of the other. The dam when in the water, holds her young one between her fore fins.

Why this animal ſhould be called a ſea-horſe is difficult to determine, unleſs the word be a corruption of the Ruſſian name *Morſe*; for they do not in the leaſt reſemble a horſe. It is, doubtleſs, the ſame animal that is found in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, and there called a ſea-cow. It is certainly more like a cow than a horſe; but this reſemblance conſiſts in nothing but the ſnout. In ſhort, it is an animal not unlike a ſeal, but incomparably larger. The length of one of them, which was none of the largeſt, was nine feet four inches from the ſnout to the tail; the circumference of its body at the ſhoulder was ſeven feet ten inches; its circumference near the hinder fins were five feet ſix inches; and the weight of the carcaſe, without the head, ſkin, or entrails, was eight hundred and fifty-four pounds. The head weighed forty-one pounds and an half, and the ſkin two hundred and five pounds.

Captain Cook's people, in a ſhort time, began to reliſh theſe animals, ſo that the whole ſtock they had procured was ſoon expended.

The Province of Thibet.

This diviſion of Tartary is ſituated in an excellent climate, between 30 and 40 deg of north lat. but it is ſurrounded with very extenſive mountains, and is bounded, on the Eaſt, by China; on the weſt, by Indoſtan; on the north, by the country of the Moguls; and on the ſouth by Ava. The whole country extends in length, from eaſt to weſt, upwards of 1700 miles, and the broadeſt part of it, from north to ſouth is about 1780. It is divided into three principal parts, namely, Great Thibet, Little Thibet, and Laſſa. This laſt diviſion, being the moſt rich, as well as the moſt plentiful province, and the reſidence of the grand lama, frequently gives name to the whole country.

In general, the climate of this country is very temperate and healthful; but in the weſtern parts it is cold, eſpecially on the tops of the mountains. The ſoil is for the moſt part fertile, and produces great plenty of rice and pulſe. It is particularly famous for the produce of rhubarb and muſk, the latter of which is eſteemed the beſt of any to be met with in India.

There are many rivers in Thibet, ſome of which produce great quantities of gold, particularly the Kinchakyang, which enters the Chineſe province of Yunnan, whoſe name ſignifies the river with golden-ſand: here is alſo the Nukyang, a very principal one; the Lantſankyang, which alſo enters Yun-nan, and flows into the kingdom of Tonquin; and the great river called Yorutſan-pu, or Dſan-pu.

The towns in this province are for the moſt part exceeding ſmall, and very poorly inhabited; nor is even Laſſa, the principal place in the country, in the leaſt fortified. There is indeed but little occaſion for fortifications here, the Tartars, in their wars, chooſing rather to fight in the open fields, than to undertake ſieges.

The natives of Thibet are in general a very robuſt and healthy people. They have an olive or tawney complexion, their noſes are flat, and their faces very broad; but the women are much handſomer in their features than the men. They are naturally very indolent, and the common people in particular are exceeding filthy. The garments of both ſexes are alike, conſiſting of a large piece of coarſe cloth, faſtened round the body with a girdle, and on their heads they wear a kind of bonnet, which is decorated with pieces of tortoiſe-ſhell, and other trifling baubles; but the better ſort adorn them with coral, and beads of amber. Both ſexes wear bracelets on their left arms, faſtened with beads.

The poor people live principally on rice and pulſe, though they have various kinds of fleſh: they are in general very temperate in their diet; but, as they are extremely fond of ſpirituous liquors, will often drink to exceſs.

The houſes of the better ſort are tolerably handſome, and chiefly built of wood; but thoſe of the common people are low, mean huts, made of ſtones rudely piled together.

The country of the Mogul Tartars, or Mongols, is bounded on the eaſt by the territories of the Mantchews, the Kalkas on the weſt, China on the ſouth, and by Eaſtern Tartary and the Kalka Tartars on the north.

Here the climate is exceedingly ſevere, and ice lies on the ground eight or nine months together. It is a country not very well known, except that part of it which the caravans paſs in travelling from Muſcovy to China.

The Bratſki Tartars dwell near the Lake Baikal, many of whom are good mechanics, and others well ſkilled in huſbandry. Some of theſe Bratſki are people of conſiderable property: it is not uncommon for a man to be proprietor of five or ſix hundred horſes, as well as of numbers of other cattle. The food of theſe people is veniſon and horſe-fleſh, the latter of which they prefer.

Samoieda, or, Samoidia.

This country is ſituated north-weſt of Siberia: it is divided into Obdora on the weſt, and Manamo and Loppo eaſt of the river Oby: the Riphæan mountains, ſurrounding the river Potzor, are its weſtern limits.

Their dwelling-places are caves, in which they live nine months in the year, and make ſubterraneous paſſages for the purpoſe of viſiting each other. They burn lamps fed with a ſtinking fiſh-oil.

The Oſtiocs live along the rivers Oby, Jeniſay, &c. Theſe people dry their fiſh in the ſummer, which ſerves them in the winter: they have no rice, but ſubſiſt on roots, fiſh, wild-fowl, &c. Their winter-huts are low in the ground, with a roof of bark or ruſhes; in ſummer, they build on the banks of the rivers, and employ themſelves in fiſhing. Their ſledges are drawn by dogs, four of which will draw a ſledge with 300 pounds weight upon it, fifteen leagues in a day. What is remarkable, they have poſts in this country for ſledges, as regular as the poſts of Europe, with relays of dogs for travellers to change on their journey at ſet diſtances: they increaſe the number of dogs, in proportion to the hurry a paſſenger is in. Theſe people worſhip and offer ſacrifices to ſmall braſen idols, placed in groves, or on the tops of houſes.

They are one of the moſt numerous nations in Siberia, and are likewiſe ſprung from the Finns. Before they were ſubjected to Ruſſia, they were governed by their own princes, whoſe deſcendents are ſtill reputed noble. Theſe people divide themſelves into different ſtocks or tribes, and chooſe their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. Theſe ſuperintend the payment of the taxes, and preſerve peace and good order. They are extremely ignorant, and entirely unacquainted with the uſe of letters or figures, and like the other Finniſh nations, can only reckon as far as ten. A ſingular cuſtom among them is that the

the daughter-in-law never uncovers her face in the preſence of her father-in-law; nor is the ſon-in-law allowed to appear before the mother-in-law till his wife has had a child. The greateſt part of them are idolaters; and one of their ſtrange notions is, that bears, after death, enjoy a happineſs equal to that which they expect for themſelves; and are ſo fixed in the belief of this, that whenever they kill one of theſe animals, they ſing ſongs over him, in which they aſk his pardon for the injury he has received at their hands: they alſo hang up his ſkin, to which they ſhew many civilities, and addreſs with many fine compliments, in order to avert his vengeance from them in the world of ſpirits. It appears, indeed, that among all the Pagan nations of the north and north-eaſt, bears are in great eſtimation.

WESTERN TARTARY.

CIRCASSIA AND ASTRACHAN.

CIRCASSIA is that country lying between the Caſpian-Sea on the eaſt; Aſoph, and the Palus-Mæotis on the weſt; the high mountains of Caucaſus on the ſouth; and Aſtrachan on the north. The ſouthern diviſion is claimed by the Perſians, the weſtern is under the dominion of the Turks, and the eaſtern pays obedience to Ruſſia.

Kizlaar is the capital of Circaſſia. This town being only in 44 deg. north lat. the air is conſequently ſerene and wholeſome. It was built by the Ruſſians: the citadel is only formed of earth, but the garriſon conſiſts of about 500 regulars, and 3000 Coſſacks; the latter whom are permitted by the Ruſſian government to erect habitations on the banks of the Terek, which flows from eaſt to weſt, and affords a great variety of fiſh, as ſturgeon, ſalmon, &c.

The Circaſſians are lovely in their features, majeſtic in their perſons, and agreeable in their deportment. In their ſtature they are large, and the men make excellent ſoldiers.

The country abounds in wild ſwine, wolves, and foxes; produces vines, whoſe grapes are excellent, and here is a great variety of game.

Terki, the capital of Circaſſian Tartary, is ſeated in a ſpacious plain, on an iſland formed by the rivers Terki and Buſtrow, and is garriſoned by 2000 regulars, and 1000 Coſſacks. It is well fortified with ramparts and baſtions in the modern ſtyle, well ſtored with cannon, and has always a conſiderable garriſon in it, under the command of a governor. The Circaſſian prince, who reſides here, is allowed 500 Ruſſians for his guard, but none of his own ſubjects are permitted to dwell within any part of the fortifications. Ever ſince the reduction of theſe parts to the obedience of Ruſſia, they have put in all places of ſtrength, not only Ruſſian garriſons and governors, but magiſtrates, and prieſts for the exerciſe of the Chriſtian religion: yet the Circaſſian Tartars are governed by their own princes, lords, and judges; but theſe adminiſter juſtice in the name of the emperor, and, in matters of importance, not without the preſence of the Ruſſian governors, being all obliged to take the oath of allegiance to his imperial majeſty.

This city has a great number of ſerpents about it, which make holes in the ground that are extremely dangerous. Theſe ſerpents are about ſix or ſeven feet in length, and about the thickneſs of a man's arm. There are likewiſe mice as large as ſquirrels, which are called Jerhuah. Their ears are long, and their fore-feet ſhorter than thoſe behind, which prevents their running ſwiftly; they, however, can leap to a conſiderable height or diſtance, by laying their tail over their backs.

The kingdom of Aſtrachan lies between 44 deg. 10 min. and 52 deg. north latitude; the longitude eaſt is 62 deg. 30 min. being bounded on the eaſt by the country of the Coſſacks; on the north, by the kingdom of Cazan, and part of Siberia; and towards the ſouth by Circaſſia. The eaſtern boundaries being deſerts very little known and uninhabited, cannot be aſcertained.

The habitants and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villages of Aſtrachan, are perfectly ſimilar with thoſe of the Tartars of Kaſon. In the city of Aſtrachan, they have a large magazine for goods, built of brick, and ſeveral ſhops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Perſians, Indians, and Bukharians; and manufacture Morocco-leather, cottons, camblets, and ſilks.

The metropolis, called alſo Aſtrachan, is built upon an iſland in the Volga, known by the name of the Iſle of Hares. It is in 46 deg. 13 min. north latitude, and 68 deg. eaſt longitude. This city is commonly ſuppoſed to contain 100,000 inhabitants. It abounds in well-furniſhed magazines, and hath a citadel ſurrounded by a thick brick wall, of about thirty feet in height; though this citadel, which lies towards the weſt of the city, is irregularly built, the baſtions are ſtrong, and the cannons numerous. Here is a palace for the governor, and another for the archbiſhop. In the court of chancery, all civil and military affairs are heard and adjuſted, and the records are kept. The citadel hath three gates, one opens to the city, another to the Volga, and the third to the Tartar ſuburbs. It contains likewiſe a guard-houſe a metropolitan-church, and a monaſtery.

This city is ſurrounded by a wall, between which and the houſes is a large intermediate ſpace, upon which none are permitted to build. It conſiſts principally of three long ſtreets from eaſt to weſt, which are interſected by many others, and is upon the whole about a mile in length. The houſes are built of timber, the ſuburbs are extenſive, and more populous than the city. There are four churches and a monaſtery belonging to thoſe of the Greek perſuaſion. The reformed have a church built of wood; the Roman Catholics have a monaſtery, and the Armenians a church of ſtone. Without the ſuburbs, are a naval and military-hoſpital, and a large monaſtery.

No Tartar is permitted to ſtay all night in the city. Armenian and Ruſſian merchants inhabit the eaſtern ſuburbs, and the Indians are permitted to live in guarded Caravanſeras.

Aſtrachan is garriſoned by five regiments of infantry and one of dragoons; many field regiments and Coſſacks, excluſive of the Tartar militia, winter here, beſides the garriſon itſelf.

The uſe of the regulars is to march againſt the wild Tartars whenever they attempt to make any incurſions into this kingdom, and the irregulars are employed to ſcour the deſerts, in order to trace out the lurking-places of the banditti.

The commerce of Aſtrachan conſiſts chiefly in ſilks, brocades, velvets, ſatins, drugs, copper, cotton, Perſian fruits, wines, ſweetmeats, &c. which they import; and in return, export meal, fiſh, ſalt, woollen, &c. All naval and military ſtores are prohibited from being exported to Perſia.

The Ruſſians, who compoſe a principal part of the inhabitants, are in the chief offices of ſtate. The Georgians, who profeſs the Greek religion, are fond of ſerving in the army; and the Armenians, who, in in perſon, diſpoſition, and features, very much reſemble the Jews, have no other object but ſcraping money together by means of traffic. As for the Perſians and Tartar inhabitants, they are too fond of indolence and roving to think of any thing elſe, unleſs compelled to it by abſolute neceſſity. Their huts, which are about twelve feet in diameter, are formed of canes or bulruſhes, at the top of which a hole is made to let out the ſmoke: their fuel is turf, or cow-dung.

The ſoil is light and ſandy, but ſo much impregnated with ſalt, as greatly adds to its ſterility. The

earth produces no grain, unleſs it has been overflowed during the winter ſeaſon. Its natural productions are reeds, liquorice, kal, guriſtar-aculeata, the herb aſtrachania-nitraria, &c. The inhabitants likewiſe raiſe melons and pompions, which they eat with bread. The wine made of their grapes is too ſharp, which proceeds from the ſalt of the earth, though their grapes are fine, and delicious to the taſte. The mulberries are unwholeſome, but the garden vegetables tolerably good.

CHAP. VIII.

SIBERIA,

INCLUDING

KALMUCK AND USBECK-TARTARY.

SIBERIA, extends from 50 to 68 deg. north lat. and is bounded on the weſt by Ruſſia, from which it is ſeparated by the mountains of Werkhotauria, which extend from Mount Caucaſus, and divide Aſia from Europe quite to the Frozen-Ocean, which bounds it on the north; on the eaſt it is bounded by the Japaneſe-Ocean, and part of Tartary; and on the ſouth, by the ſame. It is upwards of 3000 miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, and about 760 in breadth. The ſouthern is the only part fit for human beings to live in: here the climate is mild, and the ſoil appears as if it would be fertile, if cultivated. The northern part exhibits nothing but impenetrable woods, ſnow-topt mountains, fens, lakes, marſhes, &c. and is withal ſo much expoſed to the bleak winds, that it is quite barren and deſolate. To theſe dreary regions, the czars of Muſcovy baniſh their courtiers and other great perſons who incur their diſpleaſure.

The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air pure and wholeſome; and Mr. Tooke obſerves, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to an extreme old age, if they were not ſo much addicted to an immoderate uſe of intoxicating liquors.

Siberia contains mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, jaſper, lapis-lazuli, and loadſtones. Naturaliſts have long diſputed, whether a ſubſtance found there, reſembling elephants-teeth, are really ſuch, or whether they are a marine production: when poliſhed with art and ſkill, their appearance is certainly whimſical and curious.

A great variety of animals range the foreſts of Siberia, ſome of which are not to be found in other countries. Theſe ſupply the inhabitants with food and clothes, and at the ſame time furniſh them with commodities for an advantageous trade. This territory may alſo be conſidered as the native country of black foxes, ſables, and ermines, the ſkins of which are ſuperior to thoſe of any other part of the world. Horſes and cattle are in great plenty, and may be had cheap.

Tobolſki, the capital, is ſituated in 58 deg. north lat. and 67 deg. eaſt long. from London, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants, almoſt all Ruſſians, or naturalized. The city is divided into two parts; the larger being ſituated on the banks of the river Irtiſz, and the other upon a hill. This part is fortified, both eaſt and north, by a rampart, baſtions, and a ditch ſix feet broad, bordered with paliſadoes.

This city has a governor, whoſe prerogative reaches almoſt all over Siberia: here too is a court of equity, compoſed of fifteen counſellors, who conduct both civil and military affairs. In the lower town are ſeven churches, and a convent built of ſtone; and there are three different communications from the upper to the lower town. It has a garriſon, conſiſting of two regiments of infantry. A conſiderable traffic was once carried on between this place and the Chineſe, by means of caravans; but the reciprocal knavery of the Chineſe and Ruſſian merchants reduced it in a ſhort time to a very languiſhing ſtate.

The KALMUCKS are the inhabitants of a prodigious deſert, which lies between the rivers Don and Volga. Theſe people are continually roving about: in the winter, they uſually reſide on the borders of Circaſſia; they proceed northerly in the ſpring, and return back again at the latter end of autumn. They never cultivate any land, their only riches being their flocks and cattle, on whoſe account they principally roam about in ſearch of freſh paſture. Their temporary habitations are huts, covered with reeds, ruſhes, or felt.

They are for the moſt part raw-boned and ſtout, and have reddiſh and yellowiſh-brown complexions, a flat viſage, thick lips, a ſmall noſe, and ſhort chin. The women are ſhaped like the men, have a wholeſome white and red in their faces, and are lively, agreeable, and induſtrious. The ſole profeſſion among them is the breeding of cattle; they purſue hunting as an amuſement; live in tents, or yourts of felt, which they call *gar*, and the Ruſſians *kibitka*, and in many reſpects reſemble Kirguiſians. Their clothing is after the eaſtern manner, and they dreſs their heads exactly like the Chineſe: ſome of their women wear a large golden ring in their noſtrils. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Their principal food is animals tame and wild, and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of age or diſtempers, though it ſtink ever ſo much; ſo that the fleſh market in every herd hath the appearance and ſcent of a lay-ſtall of carrion: they eat likewiſe the roots and plants which grow in the deſerts. Both ſexes ſmoke continually. As their courſes are regulated by neceſſity, they keep to the north in the ſummer, and to the ſouthern deſerts in the winter. They ſleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themſelves with the ſame. They are characterized as a rough kind of people, but are leſs baſe and diſſolute than they are repreſented to be. Their attachment to their chiefs or maſters is very great; but their active ſpirit, together with their improvidence and careleſſneſs, render them thieviſh and dirty. In their robberies, they prefer ſtratagem to violence, and are ſeldom known to commit murder, from their belief in the nocturnal wandering of dead men's ſpirits. Their code is very favourable to females, to whom they never impute any crime. A rape and adultery is puniſhed with a mulct of nine herd of cattle. They affect to profeſs the Chineſe religion, but know very little of its principles. They are ſuperſtitious about good and bad days; and have written laws which are founded on reaſon, cuſtom, and the will of the prince. Their ſpeech is a mongrel dialect with many Tartarian words; but their religious books are in the Tangut or Tibotan.

Theſe people are divided into different hordes, each of which hath its chief, but all are ſubject to one ſovereign, called khan, who has an agent or envoy at Aſtrachan.

USBECK-TARTARY is ſituated between the Great Mogul's dominions, which bound it on the ſouth, and the Caſpian Sea, which, with Perſia, are the weſtern confines. It has the country of the Kalmucks on the north, and Thibet towards the eaſt.

The country of Uſbeck-Tartary was once the ſeat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite reſidence of Zingis or Jenghis Khan, and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the ſpoils of India and the eaſtern world.

The Uſbecks are generally eſteemed the moſt civilized of all the Mahometan Tartars; not but they can

can pillage and rob their neighbours as well as any other Tartarian tribe. They nearly reſemble the Perſians in their dreſs, their boots, which are uncommonly large, excepted: the chiefs wear a plume of feathers on their turban, and as well as their khan, pride themſelves much on being the deſcendants of the renowned Tamerlane.

Their common food is pilau, or boiled rice, but their greateſt delicacy is horſe-fleſh. They drink a kind of arrack, or fermented liquor, made of mare's milk. Their language is a mixture of the Turkiſh, Perſian, and Mongol; but they are well acquainted with the Perſian language in its purity.

The capital of this country is called Bukharia, and lies in 39 deg. 15 min. north latitude, at the diſtance of thirteen miles from the once famous city of Samarcand. It is ſurrounded by a mud wall; the houſes are built of wood, but the moſque and caravanſeras are of brick. It is tolerably populous, but not equal to what it was formerly. The khan is permitted to ſeize upon the property of whom he pleaſes, which damps the ſpirit of cultivation, and greatly injures commerce.

Laſſa is a ſmall city, but the houſes, which are of ſtone, are ſpacious and lofty.

The city of Derbent, ſituated on the Caſpian ſhore, is called the frontier of Perſia. It is ſaid to have been the firſt built by Alexander the Great, and that he here received the viſit from the Amazonian queen Thaleſtris. It is now encloſed with a ſtrong broad wall, built with large ſquare ſtones, hard as marble, from the quarries in Caucaſus.

Tarku is the capital of Dageſtan, and contains three thouſand houſes, two ſtories high, platformed at top for walking. The Tartars of this province are numerous and Mahometans, governed by a ſhefkal, whoſe office is elective.

With reſpect to commerce and manufactures, we muſt confeſs that this head makes but an inconſiderable figure in the deſcription of Tartary, their chief traffic conſiſting in cattle, ſkins, beavers, rhubarb, muſk, and fiſh. The Aſtrachans, notwithſtanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a conſiderable traffic into Perſia, to which they export red leather, woollen, and linen cloth, and ſome of the manufactures of Europe.

We ſhall conclude our account of this country with ſome few particulars concerning its inhabitants, who are generally allowed to be the deſcendants of Japheth.

Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furniſhed thoſe amazing numbers who, under various names, deſtroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and thoſe fine provinces, where learning and the arts once reſided, are now ſcenes of horror and barbarity. This muſt have been owing to the dreadful maſſacres made among the nations by the victorious Jenghis Khan, and Tamerlane, and their deſcendants; for nothing is more common in their hiſtories, than their putting to the ſword three or four hundred thouſand people in a few days. Some authors indeed have abſurdly queſtioned the veracity of the hiſtorians of theſe great conquerors, though it be better eſtabliſhed than that of the Greek and Roman writers. The former, about the year 1200, made himſelf maſter of thoſe regions which form at this day the Aſiatic part of the Ruſſian empire; and his ſon, Batou Sagin, made himſelf maſter of the ſouthern Ruſſia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blended with the Ruſſians. Long and heavily did the Tartar yoke gall the neck of Ruſſia, till alleviated by the diviſions amongſt themſelves: but they were not delivered from theſe warlike invaders till the time of Ivan III. who aſcended the Ruſſian throne in 1462. He repeatedly defeated them, ſubdued the kingdom of Kaſan and other provinces, and made his name reſpected in all that quarter. Tamerlane's memory hath been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan: his defeat of the Turkiſh emperor, Bajazet, hath been before noticed in the hiſtory of that nation, and great were his conqueſts, and his name far-beyond the limits of his proper dominions. His deſcent is claimed not only by all the khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indoſtan himſelf.

It may not be amiſs to mention, that, among the Tartars, the ſtandard or colours of the reſpective tribes form a diſtinct mark, whereby each Tartar knows the tribe to which he belongs. Theſe marks of diſtinction conſiſt of a piece of Chineſe linen, or other coloured ſtuff, ſuſpended on a lance twelve feet in length, among the Pagan Tartars. The Mahometan Tartars write upon their ſtandards the name of God, in the Arabic language. The Kalmucks and the Mogul Tartars, diſtinguiſh theirs by the name of ſome animal; and as the branches or diviſions of a tribe preſerve always the figure drawn upon the ſtandard of that tribe, adding only the particular denomination of each branch, thoſe ſtandards anſwer the purpoſe of a genealogical table or tree, by which the origin and deſcent of each individual may be aſcertained.

The khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgment of their dependence upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendſhip of theſe barbarians is of the utmoſt conſequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independence; and, when united, they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chineſe, of which we ſhall give ſome account in the deſcription of that empire.

The method of carrying on war, by waſting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practiſed by all of them, from the Danube eaſtward. This circumſtance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who muſt thereby be deprived of all ſubſiſtence, while the Tartars are at no loſs for proviſions, having always many ſpare horſes to kill and eat.

CHAP. IX.

CHINA.

Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Soil, Produce, Rivers, Inhabitants, &c.

THIS vaſt and opulent empire, is 1450 miles in length, and 1260 in breadth, and is ſituated between 20 and 42 deg. north lat. and between 98 and 123 eaſt long. It contains 1,110,000 ſquare miles, to which if we add Chineſe Tartary, containing 644,000, the whole will amount to 1,754,000.

China is bounded by the Chineſe Tartary, and an amazing ſtone wall, on the north; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the eaſt; by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Ruſſia, on the weſt; and by the Chineſian Sea, on the ſouth.

According to the authors of the Univerſal Hiſtory, the great diviſion of this empire is into fifteen provinces, excluſive of that of Lyau-tong, which is ſituated without the great wall, though under the ſame dominion; each of which might, for their largeneſs, fertility, populouſneſs, and opulence, paſs for ſo many diſtinct kingdoms. But it is neceſſary to acquaint the reader, that the informations contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of jeſuits, and other religioniſts ſent thither

thither by the pope, but whoſe miſſions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of thoſe fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of procuring information about a century ago; but even their accounts of this empire, are juſtly to be ſuſpected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing only by magnifying their own labours and ſucceſſes, as well as the importance of the Chineſe empire, ſo that their exaggerated accounts ought to be read with great caution.

The name of this empire is probably derived from a Chineſe word, ſignifying central or middle; for the natives, till they were convinced to the contrary by the European mathematicians, fancied that the world was flat; and that their country not only occupied the beſt part, but lay exactly in the middle.

China is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains except to the north, where thoſe which ſeparate it from Tartary are craggy, ſteep, and almoſt inacceſſible; but many hills are ſcattered throughout the whole empire, which in general are cultivated by the admirable contrivances and indefatigable induſtry of the natives. Numbers of theſe are, with infinite labour, cut into the moſt whimſical figures, ſo as to reſemble, at a diſtance, elephants, camels, leopards, boars, bears, tigers, &c.

The principal rivers are, 1. the Hoambo, or Yellow River, ſo called from being tinged with a yellow colour, owing to the peculiar quality of the ſoil through which it flows. It riſes towards the frontiers of Indoſtan, in the intermediate mountains between Tartary and the province of Suechan, and after purſuing a winding courſe of near 1900 miles, it falls into the Eaſtern Ocean: this river is exceedingly rapid. 2. The Ky-am, or Blue River, riſes in Thibet, flows from eaſt to weſt, and diſembogues itſelf into the Eaſtern Ocean: it is remarkably broad and deep. 3. The Bloody River, ſo called from the redneſs of its ſand. 4. The Pearl River, ſo denominated, on account of the number of precious ſtones found among its gravel. 5. A river near Somin, which in harveſt-time turns blue, when its waters give an admirable tinge of that colour. 6. A river near Pemgau, whoſe waters are ſo thin, that even timber will ſink in them. 7. A ſeventh, in the neighbourhood of Ching-tien, the waters of which are odoriferous. 8. The Kin-xa, which contains gold ſand. 9. The Xo, of a medicinal quality, on which account many flock to its banks for the cure of various diſorders. 10. The river near the city Hangchen, which annually, on a certain day, riſes to an aſtoniſhing height; a phænomenon not yet accounted for either by Aſiatic or European philoſophers. By theſe rivers, and the canals, the people are plentifully ſupplied with excellent fiſh in the greateſt variety.

The chief bays of this country, are thoſe of Nankin and Canton.

The canals of this mighty empire are perhaps the moſt uſeful and ſtupendous works that ever the imagination of man conceived, or the exertion of human induſtry executed, and are ſufficient to entitle the ancient Chineſe to the character of being the wiſeſt and moſt induſtrious people in the world. The commodiouſneſs and length of them is incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn-ſtone on the ſides; and they are ſo deep, that they carry large veſſels, and ſometimes extend above 1000 miles in length. Thoſe veſſels are fitted up for all the conveniencies of life; and it has been thought by ſome, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furniſhed with ſtone quays, and ſometimes with bridges of an amazing conſtruction. The navigation is ſlow, and the veſſels ſometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be obtained by art or perſeverance, for the ſafety of the paſſengers, in caſe a canal is croſſed by a rapid river, or expoſed to torrents from the mountains. Theſe canals, and the variety that is ſeen upon their borders, render China the moſt delightful to the eye of any country in the world, as well as fertile, in places that are not ſo by nature. Innumerable bridges paſs over theſe canals, the centre arches of which are ſufficiently high to admit of a veſſel paſſing without lowering the maſt.

Though no country is better fitted than China for producing timber of all kinds, yet ſuch is the induſtry of the inhabitants, that they are not incumbered with foreſts or woods. They ſuffer no timber to grow, but for ornament and uſe, or on the ſide of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed by water to any place.

The air of China differs according the ſituation of the places. Towards the north, it is ſharp; in the middle, mild; and in the ſouth, hot. The ſoil is, either by nature or art, fruitful in every thing that can adminiſter either to the neceſſities, conveniencies, or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almoſt beyond deſcription. The rare trees and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and ſome are peculiar to itſelf.

Gardening is placed in China at the head of the ſciences: the profeſſion is honourable; the profeſſors men of the greateſt abilities; and a kind of degree is taken, ere they can be admitted to practiſe this moſt ancient and moſt uſeful art. But, for all their ſkill, they are unacquainted with the nature of grafting trees, or of meliorating the earth where they are planted; on which account the fruit in general is of an inferior flavour, and leſs delicious than the European fruit. The principal trees are orange, lemon, and citron; the li-tchi, a kind of date-tree; the pea-tree, which produces a fruit that reſembles, and is as delicate to the taſte, as the pea of Europe; the meal-tree, the pulp of which yields excellent flour; the hermaphrodite-tree, which is half cypreſs, and half juniper; the pepper-tree, the berries of which are ſo ſtrong, that the ſmell frequently overcomes thoſe that pluck them; the varniſh-tree, which is of two ſpecies, viz. the tſi-chu, and the tong-chu; the former produces that admirable varniſh, which is ſo much admired in moſt parts of the univerſe; the latter bears a nut, from which an oil is extracted, that furniſhes a varniſh of an inferior kind: the kou-chu, or ſize-tree, yields a matter reſembling milk, which is of admirable uſe in gilding: the weeping willow-tree is much admired by the Chineſe, who plant it on the ſides of all their canals and rivers, and near moſt of the ponds in their gardens. They deem its ſhade the moſt pleaſing of any, and their paſtoral poets mention it with peculiar reſpect in all their compoſitions. The tallow-tree has red leaves and white fruit, which form a lively contraſt, and greatly pleaſe the eye of the beholder: of the kernels, which have all the properties of tallow, candles are made; the flame is yellow, the ſmell ſtrong, and the light rather dim. The white wax-tree is periodically covered with ſwarms of inſects, who leave on its branches thin threads of wax. The mango and long-yeu-trees yield fine fruits, that ſerve as delicate pickles, and the produce of the tſe-tſe-tree is an admirable ſweetmeat.

The polomie-tree, which is not peculiar to China alone, bears the largeſt fruit in the world, the kernel of which is delicious when roaſted, and makes an admired diſh when dreſſed in cocoa-nut milk; but the moſt ſingular particular of this tree is, that the fruit grows from the trunk of the tree, and not from the branches, which, indeed, would not be able to ſuſtain it.

The wood of the iron-tree is ſo hard, that whatever is made of it is exceedingly durable; of this, anchors are formed, and the Chineſe affirm, that they are more

more laſting than thoſe that are made of the metal from which the tree receives its name.

The tſet-ham is admired for the beauty of its wood, which is of an admirable red, beautifully variegated with fine veins, which produce ſuch an effect, that it ſeems to the eye to be elegantly painted.

The bamboo, or cane-tree, is pretty high and thick, the bud has an excellent flavour, and the pith is fine eating; it grows in marſhy grounds, is uſed in buildings, and the tubes are often converted into water-pipes; baſkets are fabricated of its ſplinters, and when it grows old and rotten, the Chineſe reduce it to a paſte, of which paper is made. Here is likewiſe a reed, of which not only baſkets and mats are made, but ropes, pack-thread, &c. The nan-mu-tree, however, furniſhes the principal wood for the purpoſes of building; nevertheleſs, they have oak, pine, ſanders-wood, ebony, camphire, &c.

But one of the moſt remarkable and profitable productions of this country, is the tea-tree; and this being almoſt as generally uſed at preſent in many parts of Europe as in China, we ſhall be the more particular in our deſcription of it. All the various kinds of tea are produced by the ſame ſort of ſhrub, only the leaves are gathered at different periods; indeed the ſoil where the tea-tree grows, makes ſome little difference in the flavour of the leaves: its taſte is bitter, and its qualities aſtringent; the little oil it contains is reſinous, and its ſalt fixed; it purifies, dilutes, invigorates the brain and ſtomach, promotes digeſtion, perſpiration, &c. The Chineſe uſe it in fevers, cholics, and other acute diſorders, chronic diſeaſes, ſcorbutic habits, &c. Its virtues are not local, though they are perhaps more efficacious in China than other places.

The general diviſion of teas is into two ſorts, viz. green and bohea; but theſe are again diſtinguiſhed by other appellations, according to the time of gathering, province where produced, or method of curing: as congo, ſouchong, ſinglo, bloom, imperial, hyſon, &c. &c. the ſinglo is deemed the moſt delicate, and the bohea the moſt wholeſome: the bohea is gathered in March, the imperial in April, the ſinglo in May, and the green in June. After the leaves are firſt plucked, perſons are employed to infuſe them for a certain time in water, by which the reſinous particles are diſſipated, and they are rendered palatable; for without ſuch a preparatory prelude, they would be ſo exceedingly bitter, that ſcarce any quantity of ſugar would prove ſufficient to correct the taſte, or render them agreeable to the palate; after infuſion, the bohea, which is made of the leaves when in maturity, is dried by the fire, or in the ſun; but the green, after being expoſed for a ſhort ſpace to the rays of the ſun, and aſſiduouſly turned and ſtirred about the whole time, is ſtrewed upon the ſheets of copper (which are gently warmed by embers beneath them) and rolled up and down by proper perſons, whoſe hands are defended by thick leather gloves from the effluvia, which would, without ſuch precaution, prove of the moſt pernicious conſequence.

The tea receives the principal part of its green tincture, and fine flavour, from the baleful vapours that exhale from the heated copper; yet theſe very circumſtances, that ſhould render it obnoxious, are its principal recommendations, not only with the Europeans, but the Aſiatics; who are ſo infatuated, as to pleaſe the eye and gratify the palate at the expence of their conſtitutions; and to prefer the unwholeſome green to the more ſalubrious bohea. Green is conſiderably dearer than bohea, on account of the greater trouble in preparing it, which is already mentioned, and becauſe when the young leaves are plucked, the tree receives ſo much injury, that it is allowed two or three years to regain its ſtrength and vigour, during which time, the leaves that accidentally fall, are gathered up and converted into bohea. Mr. Bell, however, the lateſt traveller who hath given us any authentic account of China, affirms, that the bohea, in curing, is mixed with another herb; this is probably only an adulteration, of which the Chineſe, who are exceedingly avaricious, and practiſed in every artifice to defraud, may be juſtly ſuſpected.

Dr. Quincy calls tea the moſt ſalubrious of all vegetables that were ever introduced into food or medicine; and Dr. Cheyne recommends green-tea as a fine diluter; while Dr. James, on the contrary, ſays, "Whatever virtues are aſcribed to tea, or however uſeful it may be in China, it is very certain that either the tea, or the water, or both, are extremely prejudicial, as an habitual drink in England;" but, with ſubmiſſion to theſe great phyſicians, we rather think they have carried their reſpective opinions too much into extremes. Tea hath, doubtleſs, many of the virtues which the Chineſe aſcribe to it, without being an univerſal medicine, as Doctor Quincy would have us believe; it may likewiſe have its bad qualities, without being ſo exceedingly pernicious as Doctor James would perſuade us. Beſides, if we conſider the probable adulterations of the Chineſe merchants, and our own domeſtic dealers, with the virtues it may loſe in the voyage, and by the length of time it lays by previous to conſumption, it is natural to conclude, that the latter gentleman drew his inferences, not from the effects of the genuine, but of a ſpurious and adulterated kind of tea.

The Chineſe drink their tea without ſugar, though the latter, as well as the former, is a produce of their country, and exceedingly cheap. The very beſt green tea is ſold at Pekin at the rate of two ſhillings Engliſh per pound; and it is obſervable, that the tea-tree degenerates when tranſplanted, even in countries under the ſame parallel of latitude. The Dutch dry and prepare ſage as tea is in China, of which the Chineſe are ſo fond, that they give four pounds of the latter for one of the former.

The culture of this plant ſeems to be very ſimple; and it is certain that ſome kinds are of a much higher and more delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the fineſt, which is the flower of the tea, is imported over-land to Ruſſia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body.

The Portugueſe, it is ſuppoſed, had the uſe of tea long before the Engliſh; but it was introduced among the latter before the reſtoration, as mention of it is made in the firſt act of parliament, that ſettled the exciſe on the king for life in 1660. Catharine of Liſbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the uſe of it common at court.

The ginſeng (a native of Chineſe Tartary) ſo famous among the Chineſe as the univerſal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in Britiſh America. When brought to Europe, it is little diſtinguiſhed for its healing qualities; and this inſtance alone ought to reach us with what caution the former accounts of China, penned by the jeſuits, are to be read. It grows in moſt grounds, is many years maturing, has ſmall leaves, pointing upwards, a bluiſh flower, and, when dried, is of a greyiſh caſt. Several other vegetables of a medicinal nature are alſo found in China, particularly rhubarb, tou-ling, or China-root; the tiho-hang, a reſtorative; the ſant-ſi, a purifier; and tobacco.

Naturaliſts affirm, that China produces all metal and minerals that are known in the world. They procure gold, which is the natural produce of the country, by gathering the larger particles which are waſhed down the rivers, catching the ſmaller by means of fleeces, or ſearching for what accidentally ſticks in the banks. They have alſo gold mines; but as one of the fundamental maxims of the Chineſe government, is, that of not introducing a ſuperabundance of gold and ſilver, for fear of hurting induſtry, theſe are therefore but ſlightly worked, and the cur-

rency of that metal is ſupplied by the grains the people pick up in the ſands of rivers and mountains. The ſilver ſpecie is furniſhed from the mines of Honan. The mountains are ſtored with iron, copper, quick-ſilver, lead, white copper, or tutenage, which the natives call pe tong, loadſtones, pit-coal, ſalts of various kinds, and quarries of ſtone, particularly marble, many veins of which are finely variegated with land-ſcapes; and ſome of the other ſtones, when burnt, produce a metal of which they make excellent ſwords, and other weapons.

The meadows and paſtures are fat and rich, and feed prodigious quantities of cattle.

No country is better furniſhed with horſes, the breed of which, though ſmall, hath been greatly improved by the introduction of the Tartarian, Arabian, and Perſian.

Here likewiſe great numbers of oxen, buffaloes, ſwine, game, &c. Their tygers are exceedingly fierce and dangerous, for they ſearch for their prey in droves, and when preſſed by hunger, will enter villages, and attack the inhabitants with great fury.

The bears in China naturally walk upon their hind-legs, have faces reſembling thoſe of monkies, long beards, and great ſagacity: they are taught a variety of tricks, and are rendered very entertaining by the addreſs of their tutors. The Chineſe camel is about the bigneſs of a middle-ſized horſe, of a dun or aſh colour; it is well made, and has two bunches upon its back. Here are no lions, and but few elephants, but many rhinoceroſſes and wild boars: ſtags alſo, and hares are in great plenty. The dwarf ſtag is a great curioſity, being in form exactly like a ſtag, and in ſize no bigger than a dog: this is accounted a domeſtic animal, as few perſons of any conſideration are without them in their houſes or gardens. The muſk-cat is likewiſe found here, from a bag under the navel of which is taken that noble perfume called muſk, which makes a valuable article of Chineſe commerce. Their wild mules can never be ſo far broken as to become ſerviceable; they are therefore only caught to be killed, as their fleſh is a delicacy.

With reſpect to the population of China, ſome accounts inform us, that there are in this vaſt empire fifty-eight millions of inhabitants; and all between twenty and ſixty years of age pay an annual tax; but in a work publiſhed at Berlin in 1786, by Profeſſor Herrmann, the population of China (including Chineſe Tartary) is ſettled at 104,096,254 ſouls, allowing 946 inhabitants to every ſquare mile. Of this amazing number, one-fourth part, he ſays, contributes to the public taxes; and the army is computed at one-ſeventieth. Notwithſtanding the induſtry of the people, their amazing increaſe frequently occaſions a ſcarcity of proviſions. As next to being barren, they count it the greateſt ſcandal to bring females into the world; therefore if a woman of a poor family happens to have three or four girls ſucceſſively, it not unfrequently happens that ſhe will expoſe them on the high roads, or caſt them into a river, which they are allowed to do; but then they faſten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compaſſionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children, to ſave them from death.

The Chineſe, in their perſons, are middle-ſized, their faces broad, their eyes black and ſmall, their noſes rather ſhort. The Chineſe have particular ideas of beauty: they pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few ſtraggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion towards the north, is fair; towards the ſouth, ſwarthy; and the fatter a man is, they think him the handſomer. Men of quality and learning, who are not much expoſed to the ſun, are delicately complexioned; and they who are bred to letters, let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to ſhew that they are not employed in manual labour.

As to the Chineſe women, they have little eyes, plump roſy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion. The ſmallneſs of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no ſwathing is omitted, from their earlieſt age, to give them that unnatural accompliſhment; ſo that when they grow up, they may be ſaid to totter rather than to walk. This abſurd cuſtom is ſaid by ſome to have been invented by the ancient Chineſe to palliate their jealouſy, by reſtraining women from viſiting, and rambling abroad too much.

It would give little information, and leſs amuſement to the reader, were we to enter into all the ridiculous formalities of the Chineſe, eſpecially of their men of quality, when paying or receiving viſits; and this very probably would come too late, as the manners of the Chineſe, ſince they fell under the power of the Tartars, are greatly altered, and daily vary. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that the legiſlators of China, looking upon ſubmiſſion and ſubordination as the corner-ſtones of all ſociety, deviſed thoſe outward marks of reſpect, ridiculous as they appear to us, as the teſt of duty and reſpect from inferiors or ſuperiors; and their capital maxim was, that the man who was deficient in civility, was void of good ſenſe.

From the general mode of behaviour, and the compliments uſed by the Chineſe on every occaſion, they ſeem to be a polite and affable people: but view them, independent of the ceremonials preſcribed by law, and they will appear to be the moſt diſhoneſt, low, thieving ſet in the world, employing their natural quickneſs only to improve the arts of cheating the European nations they deal with, eſpecially the Engliſh: but it has been remarked, that none but a Chineſe can over-reach a Chineſe. They are fond of law-diſputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocriſy is without bounds; and the men of property among them practiſe the moſt avowed bribery, and the loweſt meanneſſes, to obtain preferment. It ſhould however be remembered, that ſome of the late accounts of China have been drawn up by thoſe who were little acquainted with any part of that empire, but the ſea-port towns, in which they probably met with many knaviſh and deſigning people. Some of the jeſuit miſſionaries ſeem to have too much extolled the Chineſe, who are, on the other hand, too much degraded by later writers. Upon the whole, it ſeems not juſt to attempt to characteriſe a great nation by a few unfavourable inſtances, though well atteſted; and we appear not to be ſufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China, to form an accurate judgment of the manners and characters of the inhabitants.

The dreſs of the Chineſe varies according to the degrees among them. The men wear caps on their heads, of the faſhion of a ball; thoſe of quality are ornamented with jewels: the reſt of their dreſs is eaſy and looſe, conſiſting of a veſt and ſath, a coat or gown thrown over them, ſilk boots, quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the ſouth wear nothing on their head; ſometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and ſometimes it is diſhevelled: their dreſs differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open ſleeves. The dreſs, both of men and women, varies, however, according to the temperature of the climate. On paying a viſit, they envelope themſelves entirely with a blue ſilk looſe habit, which they cover with a black or purple cloak, that reaches to the mid-leg, they uſually wear a ſcymetar by their ſide, and carry a fan in their hand, but never forget the ſilk buſkins which cover their pink ſtockings. Elderly women generally dreſs in black or purple, but the youthful in whatever colours they pleaſe, except yellow,

yellow, which none but the royal family are permitted to wear.

Marriages in China are concluded on by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children, who never ſee each other till the day of their nuptials; and though in other countries it is the cuſtom for women to bring portions to their huſbands, here huſbands pay a ſum of money to the parents of the bride, which is generally laid out in clothes, &c. for her: then follow certain ceremonies, the chief of which conſiſt in the relations on both ſides ſending to demand the name of the intended bridegroom and bride, and in making them preſents. The relations of the bride, who fix the day of the nuptials, frequently conſult the calendar for a fortunate day; mean-while the man ſends his intended bride ſome jewels, pendants, and the like; at leaſt this is the cuſtom among the rich. When the nuptials are ratified, the bride goes among the ladies, and ſpends the day with them, while the bridegroom treats his friends in a ſeparate apartment, and at night the couple repair to bed.

No man, except the emperor, can marry more than one wife; he however has the privilege of taking as many concubines into his houſe as he pleaſes, but theſe muſt be obedient to the wife, and treat her as their miſtreſs, though the children are not deemed baſtards, but ſhare the father's eſtate in common with thoſe of the lawful wife, who permits them to ſtyle her mother, and treats them as ſhe does her own children. The emperor has three wives, and about 3000 concubines.

As to the funerals of theſe people, a great perſonage is always buried with a peculiar ſolemnity and pomp: they firſt waſh the corpſe, and after embalming it, dreſs it in the richeſt robes, and then expoſe it to view in a raiſed alcove, before which the wives, children, relations, and friends proſtrate themſelves: near the coffin, ſtands an image of the deceaſed, or elſe ſome carved work, with his name in large characters, and with flowers, perfumes, and flambeaux. The coffin is made of precious wood, varniſhed and gilt. People of note, and even ſome of the poorer ſort, will have their coffins made in their life-time. Before the corpſe is put into the coffin, a quantity of lime is ſtrewed at the bottom of it. Every Chineſe keeps in his houſe a table or altar, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great-grandfather, before which they frequently burn incenſe, and proſtrate themſelves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great-grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceaſed is ſubſtituted.

The mourning of the Chineſe is white, which is worn three years for a parent; wives mourn three years for their huſbands, but huſbands only one year for their wives. Children, mourning for their parents, wear coarſe white cloth the firſt year, a better ſort the ſecond year, and the third year white ſilk if they pleaſe. The firſt hundred days are ſpent in ſolitude, lamentation, and abſtinence; and during the whole peroid of their mourning, they are forced to refrain from holding any public employment; even a mandarin quits all buſineſs on ſuch an occaſion.

The two principal public feſtivals or rejoicings in China, are celebrated, one in the beginning, and the other about the middle of January. The former is kept in viſiting, feaſting, making preſents, &c. that of the middle of the month, is called the Feaſt of the Lanterns.

The Chineſe language contains only 336 words, all of one ſyllable; but then each word is pronounced with ſuch various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could eaſily be imagined, and enables them to expreſs themſelves very well on the common occaſions of life. The miſſionaries, who adapt the European characters, as well as they can, to the expreſſion of Chineſe words, have deviſed eleven different, and ſome of them very compounded, marks and aſpirations, to ſignify the various modulations, elevations, and depreſſions of the voice, which diſtinguiſh the ſeveral meanings of the ſame monoſyllable. The Chineſe oral language, being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature, and therefore their literature is all compriſed in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous: according to ſome of their writers, they amount to 25,000, to 30 or 40,000 according to others; but the later writers ſay, they amount to 80,000; though he is reckoned a very learned man who is maſter of 15 or 20,000. This language being wholly addreſſed to the eye, and having no affinity with their tongue, as ſpoken, the latter hath ſtill continued in its original, rude, uncultivated ſtate, while the former has received all poſſible improvements.

A modern writer obſerves, that the Chineſe characters, which are by length of time become ſymbolic, were originally irritative; they ſtill partake ſo much of their original hieroglyphic nature, that they do not combine into words like letters or marks for ſounds; but we find one mark for a man, another for a horſe, a third for a dog, and in ſhort a ſeparate and diſtinct mark for each thing which hath a corporeal form. The Chineſe alſo uſe a great number of marks entirely of a ſymbolic nature, to impreſs on the eye the conceptions of the mind, which have no corporeal forms, though they do not combine theſe laſt marks into words, like marks for ſounds or letters; but a ſeparate mark is made to repreſent or ſtand for each idea, and they uſe them in the ſame manner as they do their abridged picture-characters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphic.

The Chineſe do not write with a reed like the Arabians, or with a crayon like the Siameſe, or with a pen like the Europeans, but with an hair-pencil.—They make uſe of a piece of poliſhed marble, hollowed at one end to hold water, wherein they dip their ſtick of ink, and then gently rubbing it, there is in a few moments produced a fluid ink. They do not hold their pencils ſloping as we do our pens, but perpendicular to the paper: they write from top to bottom in columns, and begin their books where ours end; that is, they begin at the right-hand ſide of the paper, and proceed to the left, like the Hebrews: but their paper being very thin, it will not bear writing on both ſides of it. Sometimes a title is placed horizontally, and this is likewiſe read from the right-hand.

They lay claim to the invention of printing at leaſt four hundred years before it was practiſed by the Europeans; but that can only be applied to block-printing; and their method is not at all like ours.

The genius and learning of the Chineſe is peculiar to themſelves. They have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting; and yet in their gardening, and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true ſublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickneſs, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for aſtronomical obſervations; and the metaphyſical learning, which exiſted among them, was confined to their philoſophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jeſuits were of very ſhort duration among them, and laſted very little longer than the reign of Cang-hi, who was co-temporary with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they ever will be revived.

The progreſs of the Chineſe erudition is greatly retarded by the difficulty of maſtering and retaining ſuch a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are in what may called their written language. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with ſuch honours and rewards, and where there

there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and purſue it. The literati are reverenced as men of another ſpecies, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever ſo mean and low, they become mandarins of the higheſt rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, how exalted ſoever their birth may be, they quickly ſink into poverty and obſcurity, if they neglect thoſe ſtudies which raiſed their fathers; ſince there is no nation in the world where the firſt honours of the ſtate lie ſo open to the loweſt of the people, and where there is leſs of hereditary greatneſs.

The Chineſe range all their works of literature in four claſſes. The firſt is the claſs of King, or the ſacred books, which contains the principles of the Chineſe religion, morality, and government, and ſeveral curious and obſcure records, relative to theſe important ſubjects. Hiſtory forms a claſs apart; yet, in the firſt claſs, there are placed ſome hiſtorical monuments on account of their relation to religion and government, and among others the Tekun-tficou, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illuſtrious ſage. The ſecond claſs is that of the Su, or Che, that is, of hiſtory and the hiſtorians. The third claſs, called the Tſu, or Tſe, comprehends philoſophy and the philoſophers, and contains the works of the Chineſe literati, the productions alſo of foreign ſects and religions, which the Chineſe conſider only in the light of philoſophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematics, aſtronomy, phyſic, military ſcience, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and ſciences in general. The fourth claſs is called Tcie, or Miſcellanies, and contains all the poetical books of the Chineſe, their pieces of eloquence, their ſongs, romances, tragedies, and comedies.

The Chineſe literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themſelves leſs to the ſtudy of nature, and to the reſearches of natural philoſophy, than to moral enquiries, the practical ſcience of life, and internal polity and manners. It is ſaid, that it was not before the dynaſty of the Long, in the tenth and eleventh centuries after Chriſt, that the Chineſe philoſophers formed hypotheſes concerning the natural ſyſtem of the univerſe, and entered into diſcuſſions of a ſcholaſtic kind; and this was perhaps in conſequence of the intercourſe they had long maintained with the learned among the Arabians, who ſtudied aſſiduouſly the works of Ariſtotle; and the progreſs of the Chineſe in natural philoſophy has been much inferior to that of the Europeans, ſince they have begun to pay ſome attention to that ſcience.

The Chineſe have juſtly claimed the invention of gunpowder, which they made uſe of againſt Zinghis Khan and Tamerlane. They ſeem to have known nothing of ſmall fire-arms, and to have been only acquainted with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan.

Their induſtry and ingenuity in the manufactures of porcelain, ſilks, ſtuffs, japanning, and the like ſedentary trades, is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raiſing gardens, &c.

The Chineſe porcelains, which they call Tſe-ki, is made of the Pe-tun-tſe and Kaolin, the former of which is a fine white earth, and the latter an earthy kind of ſtone with bright particles like thoſe of ſilver. After they have waſhed and purged the ſtone from its ſandy and foul matter, they break it into pieces with hammers in mortars, and with ſtone peſtles reduce it to a fine powder. Theſe peſtles, which are capped with iron, are worked perpetually, either by man's labour, or by means of water, in the ſame manner as the hammers of paper-mills. The powder is put into a veſſel, and briſkly ſtirred about; when, after it has reſted a few minutes, a thick cream riſes on the ſurface, which they take off, and pour it into a ſecond veſſel of water; this cream is not leſs than four or five inches thick. The groſs part of the powder that remains in the firſt veſſel they take out and pound afreſh. With regard to what is put into the ſecond veſſel, they wait till it has formed a kind of paſte at the bottom; and when the water is clear, they pour it gently off, and caſt the paſte into large moulds, in which it is dried. It is remarkable that neither the Pe-tun-tſe nor Kaolin are to be got in the neighbourhood of King-te-tching; they are obliged to fetch them from the province of Chan-ſi, twenty or thirty leagues off, where the inhabitants know not how to uſe them: of theſe are made cups and vaſes of various kinds, ſizes, and colours; ſome red, ſome yellow, ſome grey, ſome blue, and others white, but none of a perfectly black ground: red and ſky-blue are the moſt common colours.

The whole proceſs of painting the porcelain is long and laborious, and employs a great number of hands: it is the buſineſs of one to make the coloured circle near the edge; another traces the flowers, which are painted by a third; a fourth is employed in the formation of birds and other animals; a fifth forms rivers, rocks, &c. and a ſixth is engaged in the figures of men and women.

They uſe all colours in painting their china ware; ſome quite red with ſmall ſpots, others entirely blue, others ſtreaked or chequed with ſquares, like moſaic work, which is reckoned among the moſt beautiful. Some of their china is mixed with various colours, like jaſper; and ſome is adorned with flowers, landſcapes, dragons, and frequently human figures. Theſe figures are often relievo, which is thus effected: they firſt delineate the figure with a pencil, and then pare down the contiguous ground, ſo that it appears raiſed or emboſſed on the ſuperficies. They make every kind of repreſentation in this ſort of ware, as idols, animals, &c. Many of thoſe figures known in Europe by the name of Chineſe baboons are images of the gods they worſhip.

The ſilks moſt eſteemed either for richneſs or beauty, are the Nan-king damaſks of various colours, ſatins, taffeties, brocades, gauzes, &c. Theſe, when quite new, have a very fine and handſome appearance; but their beauty ſoon fades. A ſtrong durable ſatin called Touan-tſe is much eſteemed: it is ſometimes plain, and ſometimes figured with repreſentations of birds, trees, flowers, and particularly dragons; for the figure of a dragon is a very favourite repreſentation with the Chineſe, on account of the peculiar veneration they have for the memory of a celebrated dragon, which, agreeable to their fabulous antiquity, inſpired their great legiſlator Fo-hi. Theſe figures are not raiſed upon the ſilk after the European manner; the texture is even throughout, the figures being diſtinguiſhable by difference of colour, and not by their projecting from the ground of the ſilk, after the manner of baſſo relievo: theſe colours conſiſt of the juices of herbs and flowers, which ſo effectually penetrate the ſilk, that the ſtain always remains in it; and ſo admirable is the deception, that the figures appear as if actually projecting from the ground of the ſilk.

The Chineſe, however, are ignorant of the art of wire-drawing, and conſequently have no gold and ſilver thread; to ſupply this defect, they roll their ſilk in thin wire plates, to give it the tinge; and ſometimes, inſtead of gilding the thread, they apply the leaf gold to the ſilk in the piece. This ſplendid finery ſoon tarniſhes, and is worn only by mandarins of the firſt conſequence, and their ladies. Having thus far treated of the ſilks, we ſhall now ſay ſomething of the ſilk-worm.

The worm, when it leaves its egg, is no bigger than the head of a common pin; it feeds upon the mulberry leaf, and grows to the ſize of a caterpillar, after which it no longer eats, but prepares for its diſſolution: it wraps itſelf in a kind of ſilken ball ſpun from its own bowels, and its head ſeparating from its body,

body, the inſect now no way reſembles its original form; it hath apparently neither life nor motion; however, after remaining in this ſtate ſome time, it awakes to a new being, and appears a different kind of inſect. It reſembles a large moth or butterfly; and in this laſt ſtage the female propagates the ſpecies by laying a prodigious number of eggs, after which ſhe dies. This valuable worm is compoſed of ſeveral elaſtic ſprings; from one extremity to the other it has a kind of little nerve, which we will call the ſpine; this ſpine, placed in the centre of its body, and continued through its whole length, ſuſtains two other nerves or ſtrings; one of theſe is the heart, which is compoſed of many oval veſſels; the other, which is the lungs, is double, and appears to be an aſſemblage of ſeveral rings extending towards the two ſides of the inſect, and between which are certain orifices that correſpond with thoſe diſtributed along the exterior ſides. It is through theſe apertures that the air flows to the lungs, and by its ſpring and expanſion promotes the circulation of the chyle or humour which nouriſhes the inſect.

It is neceſſary to add, that the worm is perfectly black when it firſt comes out of the egg. In a few days it begins to aſſume a whitiſh hue, or aſh grey; after this its coat ſullies, and becomes ragged; at which time the inſect caſts it off, and appears in a new habit. It increaſes in bulk, and becomes more white, though a little inclining to a blueiſh caſt; then diveſting itſelf of its ſkin, it appears in its third habit; when its colour, head, and whole form are ſo metamorphoſed, that it appears quite another inſect. In a few days it becomes changed to a bright yellow; ſo that, from the time of its leaving the egg, it hath diveſted itſelf of three different coverings. It continues feeding a ſhort time longer, and then renouncing all ſociety, wraps itſelf in its little ſilken ball as already mentioned.

With reſpect to the natural curioſities in China, ſeveral of theſe have been already mentioned under the preceeding articles: to which we ſhall add, under this head, the volcano of Lineſung, which is ſaid ſometimes to make ſo furious a diſcharge of fire and aſhes, as to occaſion a tempeſt in the air; and ſome of their lakes are ſaid to petrify fiſhes when put into them. Their curioſities, effected by art and labour, are ſtupendous.

The great Wall in China was built ſome centuries before Chriſt's time, by the Chineſe Emperor Chien-chu Voang (according to Du Halde by Tſin-Shi-Wan, who makes it two hundred and twenty-one years before the birth of Chriſt), to prevent the incurſions of the reſtleſs weſtern Tartars. It is extended from the Oriental ſea far beyond the middle of Shen-ſi, and includes the provinces of Pekin, and almoſt the whole of Shen-ſi. Its length, in a direct line, is computed at ſix hundred and fifty-four French miles; but reconed as a curved line, amounts to upwards of one thouſand. It has three or four lofty towers or forts within the compaſs of every mile, many of which are ſituated upon the higheſt mountains; and the Wall is broad enough upon the top for eight horſes to gallop a-breaſt without any danger.

The gates of the Great Wall are all defended, on the ſide of China, by pretty large forts: the firſt of them, to the eaſt, is called Shang-hay-Quan; it ſtands near the Wall, which extends, from the bulwark above mentioned, the ſpace of a league along a country perfectly level, and does not begin to aſcend the mountains till after it has paſſed that place.

Many of the ſquare towers are large and lofty, ſome of two ſtories high, built of brick, upon a foundation of ſtone, which riſes about four feet above the ground. Each ſide of the ſquare, at the baſe, meaſures from thirty-five to forty feet, and their height is nearly the ſame dimenſions. The ſide of the ſquare at the top is from twenty-eight to thirty feet. The firſt ſtory is upon a level with the platform of the wall, in which there are embraſures.

The foundation of the wall, formed of large ſquare ſtones, which project about two feet beyond the brickwork, is about twenty-five feet thick at its baſe, and riſes not leſs than two feet above the ſurface of the ground. The reſt is caſed both inſide and outſide with brickwork, each of the thickneſs of five feet, having the intermediate ſpace filled up with earth or tempered clay, and terraced upon the top with a platform of ſquare bricks. The parapets, about eighteen inches thick, are a continuation of the brickwork above the terreplain.

To raiſe men for building this Wall, which is ſtated to have been completed in five years, the Emperor commanded that three out of every ten men throughout his dominions ſhould work at it; and afterwards, two out of every five were compelled to labour at this vaſt undertaking. It is alſo ſaid, that though the inhabitants of each province worked as near their own abode as they could, yet, either by the length of their journey, or the difference of climate, almoſt all thoſe employed in its conſtruction died unexpectedly. This raiſed a tumult in the empire, which proceeded to the length of murdering the Emperor, and his ſon Agutzi, in the fortieth year of his reign.

When it is conſidered, that this ſtructure, upwards of a thouſand French miles in length, beſides being extended along dreary waſtes, and even ſurfaces, is carried over expanſive rivers in the form of bridges, ſome having two tiers of arches; and alſo, in the ſame ſhape, acroſs deep and wide-extended vallies, uniting, as it were, the mountains which form them; that it aſcends the higheſt, and deſcends the ſteepeſt precipices; and with all this, conſidering the immenſity of labour, the ingenuity of the artiſts, the difficulty of tranſporting materials, and the ſhort time of its completion, the imagination is loſt in the contemplation of an object whoſe grandeur is not ſurpaſſed by any of the ſeven wonders of the world.

Their triumphal arches are amongſt the moſt famous buildings of the Chineſe: they are called by the natives Pay-leou, and are in every city or large town in the empire. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman ſtyle of architecture, yet they are ſuperb and beautiful, and erected to the memories of their great men, with vaſt labour and expence. They have commonly three gates, formed by columns, the baſes of which are without moulding or embelliſhment; neither have they capitals or cornices: the frize is high even to an abſurdity, to admit ſpace for inſcriptions, as well as borders of ornaments, conſiſting of birds, flowers, human figures, &c. They are ſaid in the whole to be 1100, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent.

The Chineſe bridges cannot be ſufficiently admired. They are built ſometimes upon barges ſtrongly chained together, yet ſo as to be parted, and to let veſſels paſs that ſail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and conſiſt only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, though a ſingle arch, and joins two mountains; and ſome in the interior parts of the empire are ſaid to be ſtill more ſtupendous.

Their towers, the models of which are now ſo common in Europe under the name of Pagodas, are vaſt embelliſhments to the face of this country. They ſeem to be conſtructed by a regular order, and all of them are finiſhed with exquiſite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. The moſt remarkable of theſe is that at Nan-kin, called the Porcelain Tower, from its being covered from top to bottom with porcelain tiles, finely painted: it is of an octangular figure, contains nine ſtories, is about 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter. It is raiſed on a very ſolid baſe of brickwork, the wall at the bottom being at leaſt twelve feet thick. The ſtructure leſſens all the way to the top, which is terminated by a ſort of ſpire or

pyramid, having a large golden ball or pine-apple on its ſummit. Between every ſtory there is a kind of penthouſe or ſhed on the outſide of the tower, at each corner whereof are hung little bells, which, being moved by the wind, make a pleaſant jingling. The ceilings of the rooms are adorned with paintings, and the light is admitted through windows of lattice-work. There are alſo abundance of niches in the wall, filled with images of their deities; and the amazing variety of ornaments that embelliſh the whole, render it one of the moſt beautiful ſtructures in the kingdom.

The Chineſe are remarkably fond of bells, which has given name to one of their principal feſtivals. A bell of Pekin weighs 120,000lb. but its ſound is ſaid to be diſagreeable.

Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the diſagreeable taſte in which they are built, and the uglineſs of the idols they contain. Their ſepulchral monuments have a pompous appearance.

The laſt curioſity we ſhall mention, is the fire-works of the Chineſe, which exceed thoſe of all other nations, both in beauty and variety.

It would take a volume to deſcribe all the buildings and other objects deſerving attention in this empire, where every province is a ſcene of curioſities. Their ſtructures, except thoſe above-mentioned, are confined to no order; and, being ſuſceptible of all kind of ornaments, exhibit a wild variety of pleaſing elegance, very agreeable to the eye and imagination, by preſenting a diverſity of objects not to be found in European architecture; though none of theſe ſtructures, ſingly conſidered, has the leaſt claim to true beauty and juſt proportion.

From the ſituation of China, and its producing ſuch a variety of materials for TRADE and MANUFACTURES, it may with propriety be denominated the land of induſtry; but it is an induſtry without taſte or elegance, though carried on with a great degree of art and neatneſs. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton; but not comparable to the European for records or printing. Their ink, for the uſe of drawing, is well known in England, and is ſaid to be made of oil and lamp-black. We have already mentioned the antiquity of their printing, which they ſtill perform by cutting their characters on blocks of wood.

The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of china, was long a ſecret in Europe, and brought immenſe ſums to that country. The ancients knew and eſteemed it highly under the name of porcelain, but it was of a much better fabric than the modern. Though the Chineſe affect to keep that manufacture ſtill a ſecret, yet it is well known that the principal materials are prepared pulverized earth, and that ſeveral European countries far exceed the Chineſe in manufacturing this commodity. The Engliſh in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commiſſions which have been received of late from ſeveveral princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture ſo elegant and generally uſeful, will meet with encouragement from every true patriot. The Chineſe ſilks (which, as well as the china-ware, have been noticed in a preceeding article) are generally plain and flowered gauzes, and they are ſaid to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing ſilk-worms was firſt diſcovered. They manufacture ſilks of a more durable kind; and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furniſhing a light warm wear. Their manufactures in amber, ivory, coral, ebony, ſhells, &c. are alſo extremely ingenious.

It is well known that the Chineſe trade is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for ſuch is the pride and avarice of theſe people, that they think no manufactures equal to their own: but it is certain, that the Chineſe commerce has been on the decline ſince the diſcovery of the porcelain manufactures, and the vaſt improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches.

The Conſtitution and Government of the Chineſe, before the conqueſt of their empire by the Tartars, formed an inſtructive leſſon to the reſt of the world; and though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chineſe, they have obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient diſcipline in many reſpects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may have contributed to their degeneracy.

The original plan of the Chineſe government was patriarchal, almoſt in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the moſt rigorous manner; but, at the ſame time the emperor was conſidered as the parent of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of ſtate, were looked upon as his ſubſtitutes, and the degrees of ſubmiſſion which were due from the inferior ranks to the ſuperior, were ſettled and obſerved with the moſt ſcrupulous preciſion, and in a manner that to us ſeems highly ridiculous. This ſimple claim of obedience required great addreſs, and knowledge of human nature, to render it effectual.

The chineſe legiſlators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of myſtical appearances, ſo as to ſtrike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins, or great lords, had modes of ſpeaking and writing which differed from thoſe of other ſubjects; they were ſeldom ſeen, and more ſeldom approached, as the people were taught to believe that their princes partook of divinity.

But notwithſtanding this ſyſtem preſerved the public tranquility for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect that often convulſed, and at laſt proved fatal to the ſtate, becauſe the ſame attention was not paid to the military as to the civil duties. The Chineſe had paſſions like other men, and ſometimes a weak or wicked adminiſtration drove them to arms, and a revolution eaſily ſucceeded, which they juſtified, by ſaying that their ſovereign had ceaſed to be their father. During thoſe commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their aſſiſtance; and it was thus that thoſe barbarians, who had great ſagacity, became acquainted with the weak ſide of their conſtitution, which they availed themſelves of, by invading the country, and reducing the whole of it to their obedience.

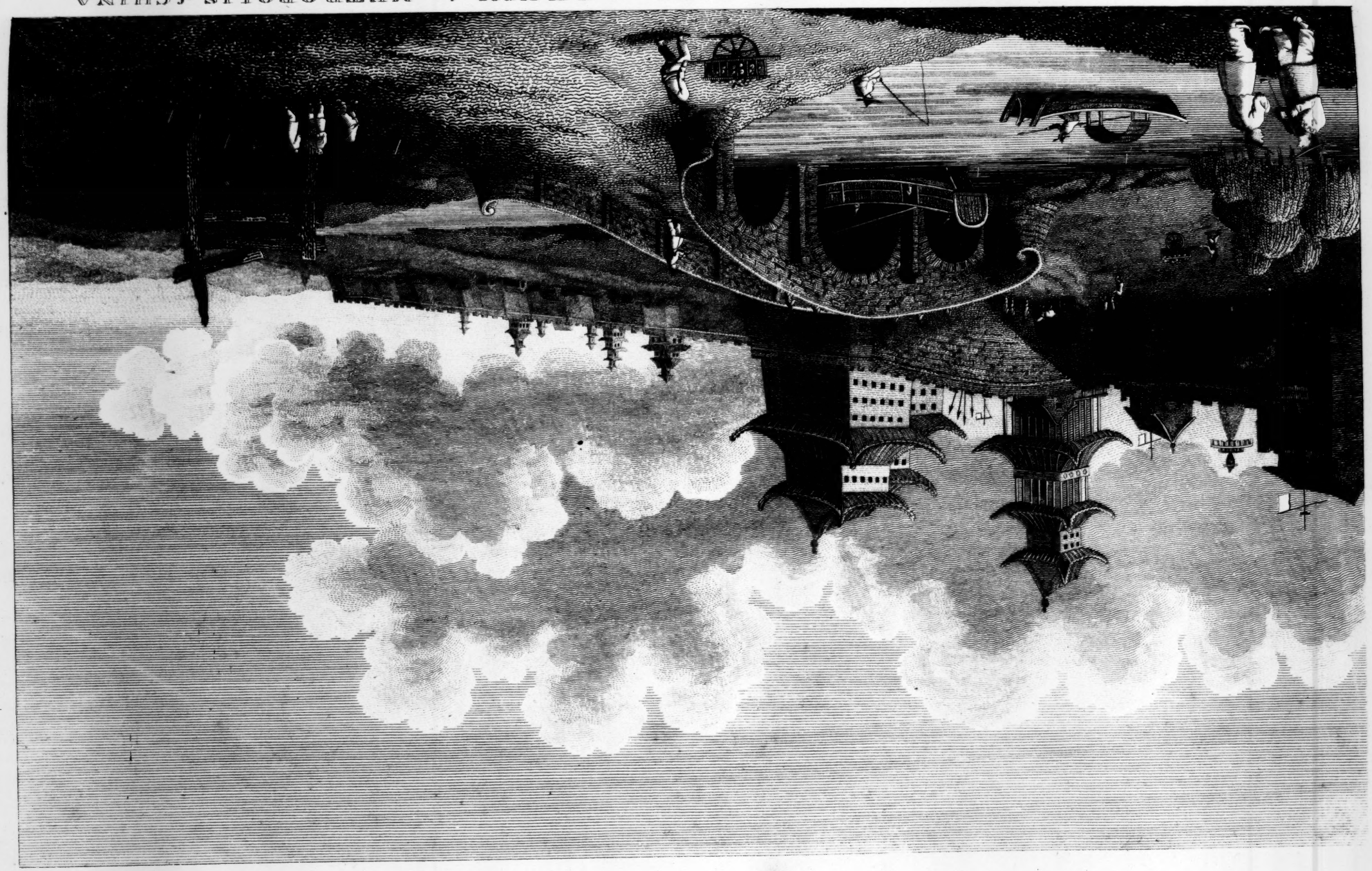
The Chineſe, beſides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, had ſumptuary laws, and regulations for the expences of all degrees of ſubjects, which were uſeful in preſerving public order, and preventing the pernicious effects of ambition. By their inſtitutions, likewiſe, the mandarins might remonſtrate to the emperor, but in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner, upon the errors of his government; and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the moſt ſalutary effects.

No country in the world is ſo well provided with magiſtrates for the diſcharge of juſtice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but, as in other countries, they are frequently rendered ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution.

The emperor is ſtyled, "Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People," &c. He has an abſolute power over the lives and fortunes of all his ſubjects, not even excepting the princes of the blood. His will is law, and his commands admit of no delay or neglect, under the ſevereſt penalties. But notwithſtanding this arbitrary power of the emperor, his government is conducted in a very regular manner; tribunals and magiſtrates are eſtabliſhed in the moſt exact and uniform method, for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and the due perform-

ance

A West VIEW of the ENTRANCE into the CITY of PEKIN the METROPOLIS of CHINA



ance of all the offices of a well-regulated government. The emperor is aſſiſted, in the management of the great affairs of the kingdom, by two ſovereign councils, which aſſemble at Peking. Beſides theſe, ſix ſuperior tribunals are held in the ſame city for civil and military affairs; and their authority extends to every part of the empire.

Every mandarin or governor is obliged to tranſmit to court annually a particular account of his government, and is ſeverely puniſhed if he endeavours to palliate any miſcarriage; but as corruption prevails to a ſhameful degree in China, he that offers the higheſt bribe is ſure of gaining his cauſe. Except the princes of the blood, and tributary kings, there are at preſent no hereditary nobility among the Chineſe, nor is there any diſtinction but what flows from their offices, or their ſuperior wealth or learning.

As to religion, the Chineſe are, in fact, idolaters, but they are ſaid to worſhip one ſupreme God, and ſeveral inferior deities, who appear to have been men eminent in their ſeveral ages, particularly the inventors of arts and ſciences. They alſo worſhip things inanimate, as mountains, woods, and rivers; but never ſacrifice to vice, as is cuſtomary with moſt Pagans. There are, at preſent, three ſects in China: firſt, the followers of Li-Laokun, who, according to their account, lived above five hundred years before Chriſt, and taught that God was corporeal. They profeſs the ſtudy of magic, and pretend to make a drink which gives immortality. Secondly, the diſciples of the celebrated Confucius, who taught that God was a moſt pure and perfect principle, and the fountain and eſſence of all beings. Thirdly, the worſhippers of the idol Fo, or Fohi, the founder of the Chineſe nation; and this ſect is much more numerous than the other two. The emperor, being of the Tartar race, follows the idolatry of that nation, and worſhips the Dalay Lama.

In the accounts of China, tranſmitted to us by the Jeſuits, we are told, that the doctrine of Confucius approximates nearly to Chriſtianity, but very little dependence can be placed on their relations. About 100 years ago great numbers of theſe fathers reſorted to China, and, being men of great abilities, ſoon made a prodigious number of converts, for, if they may be depended on, they had no leſs than two hundred churches and chapels; but the emperor finding that theſe reſtleſs eccleſiaſtics, under pretence of religion, were aſpiring to the civil direction of the government, immediately baniſhed them, levelled their churches with the ground, and forbad the exerciſe of the Chriſtian religion, which ſince that time has made no figure in China. Hiſtory informs us, that Chriſtianity was planted in China by St. Thomas, or one of his diſciples, and many of the Chineſe records tend to confirm this opinion; but the Jeſuits affirm that they did not perceive the leaſt remains of it on their arrival in the country.

The revenues of this extenſive empire are ſaid by ſome to amount to twenty millions ſterling a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the uſe of government in rice, and other commodities, may very poſſibly amount to that ſum: theſe are certainly very great, and may be eaſily impoſed, as an account of every man's family and ſubſtance is annually enrolled.

With regard to their military and marine ſtrength, China is at this time a far more powerful empire than it was before its conqueſt by the Eaſtern Tartars in 1644. This is owing to the conſummate policy of Chun-tchi, the firſt Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary ſubjects to conform themſelves to the Chineſe manners and policy, and the Chineſe to wear the Tartar dreſs and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chineſe were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the ſeat of his government, and the Tartars quietly ſubmitted to a change of their country and condition which was ſo much in their favour. But this ſecurity of the Chineſe from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at preſent, is the diſuſe of arms.

The Chineſe land army is ſaid to conſiſt of five millions of men; but in theſe are comprehended all who are employed in collecting the revenue, preſerving the canals, the great roads, and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. The marine force is compoſed chiefly of junks (veſſels much in uſe here) and other ſmall ſhips, that trade coaſt-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent ſudden deſcents. In 1772, there was publiſhed at Paris a treatiſe on the military art, tranſlated from the Chineſe into the French language, from which it appears that the Chineſe are well verſed in the theory of the art of war; but caution, care, and circumſpection, are much recommended to their generals: and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themſelves.

For the better conducting all matters relative to the war department, the Chineſe have placed the military government of the country under the direction of an order of mandarins, called the mandarins of war, of whom there are five claſſes, viz. the mandarins of the rear-guard, the mandarins of the left wing, thoſe of the right wing, thoſe of the main body, and thoſe of the van-guard. Theſe five claſſes are under the juriſdiction of ſo many courts or tribunals, which are all ſubject to a ſixth, viz. the fourth ſovereign court of Peking, which is intruſted with the care of the military of the empire. The preſident of the ſixth tribunal of war is always a grandee of the realm; his authority extends to all military perſons; to him belongs the ſupreme command of the army: but ſhould there be a war, the Chineſe law preſcribes, there ſhall in ſuch caſe be joined with him in commiſſion a mandarin of letters, bearing the title of ſuperintendent of arms; and there muſt be likewiſe appointed out of the ſame order two inſpectors of his conduct. The generaliſſimo undertakes no enterprize without the conſent of theſe three officers, who ſend a particular account of his operations to the fourth ſupreme court at Peking, that awful tribunal, to which even the general himſelf is accountable. Theſe mandarins, or officers at war, are computed at no leſs than eighteen thouſand.

Provinces and Chief Cities in China.

The ſixteen provinces, into which China is divided, are as follow: viz. Pe-ke-li, Kyang-man, Kiang-ſi, Fokyen, Che-ky-ang, Hu-quang, Ho-nan, Shang-tong, Shan-ſi, Shen-ſi, Se-chuen, Quan-tong, Quang-ſi, Yun-nan, Quew-chew, Ly-au-tong (without the great wall.)

The empire is ſaid to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton.

Peking, the capital of the Chineſe empire, and the ordinary reſidence of the emperors, is ſituated in a very fertile plain, twenty leagues diſtant from the great wall; this name, which ſignifies the Northern Court, is given it to diſtinguiſh it from Nan-king, or the Southern Court. The emperor formerly reſided in the latter; but the Tartars, a reſtleſs and warlike people, obliged the prince to remove his court to the northern provinces, that he might more effectually repel the incurſions of thoſe barbarians, by oppoſing to them the numerous militia that he generally keeps around his perſon. This capital forms an exact ſquare, and is divided into two cities; the firſt is inhabited by Chineſe; the ſecond by Tartars. Theſe two cities, without including the ſuburbs, are ſix leagues in circumference, according to the moſt accurate

curate meaſurement made by the expreſs order of the emperor. The walls of the Tartar city are very lofty, and ſo thick, that twelve horſemen might eaſily ride abreaſt upon them; with ſpacious towers at intervals, a bow ſhot diſtant from one another, and large enough to contain bodies of reſerve in caſe of neceſſity. The city has nine gates, which are lofty, and well arched; over them are large pavilion-roofed towers, divided into nine ſtories, each having ſeveral apertures or port holes; the lower ſtory forms a large hall, for the uſe of the ſoldiers and officers who quit guard, and thoſe appointed to relieve them. Before each gate a ſpace is left of more than 360 feet; this is a kind of place of arms, incloſed by a ſemicircular wall, equal in height and thickneſs to that ſurrounding the city. The great road, which ends here, is commanded by a pavilion-roofed tower, like the firſt, in ſuch manner that, as the cannon of the former can batter the houſes of the city, thoſe of the latter can ſweep the adjacent country. The ſtreets of Peking are ſtraight, about 120 feet wide, a full league in length, and bordered with ſhops. It is aſtoniſhing to ſee the immenſe concourſe of people that continually fills them, and the confuſion cauſed by the prodigious number of horſes, camels, mules, and carriages, which croſs or meet each other. Beſides this inconvenience, one is every now and then ſtopped by crowds, who ſtand liſtening to fortune-tellers, jugglers, ballad-ſingers, and a thouſand other mountebanks and buffoons, who read and relate ſtories calculated to promote mirth and laughter, or diſtribute medicine, the wonderful effects of which they explain with all the eloquence peculiar to them. People of diſtinction oblige all their dependants to follow them. A mandarin of the firſt rank is always accompanied in his walks by his whole tribunal, and to augment his equipage, each of the inferior mandarins in his ſuit is generally attended by ſeveral domeſtics. The nobility of the court, and princes of the blood, never appear in public without being ſurrounded by a large body of cavalry; and, as their preſence is required at the palace every day, their train alone would be ſufficient to create confuſion in the city. It is very ſingular, that in all this prodigious concourſe, no women are ever ſeen; hence we may judge how great the population of China muſt be, ſince the number of females in this country, as well as every where elſe, is ſuperior to that of the other ſex As there is a continual influx of the riches and merchandize of the whole empire into this city, the number of ſtrangers that reſort hither is immenſe; they are carried in chairs or ride on horſeback; the latter is more common; but they are always attended by a guide, acquainted with the ſtreets, and who knows the houſes of the nobility and principal people of the city. They are alſo provided with a book, containing an account of the different quarters, ſquares, remarkable places, and of the reſidence of thoſe in public offices. In ſummer, there are to be ſeen ſmall temporary ſhops, where people are ſerved with water, cooled by means of ice; and one finds every where eating-houſes, with refreſhments of tea and fruits. Each kind of proviſion has a certain day and place appointed for its being expoſed to ſale. The governor of Peking, who is a Mantchew Tartar, is ſtyled governor of the nine gates; his juriſdiction extends not only over the ſoldiers, but alſo over the people in every thing that concerns the police. No police can be more active. It is rare, in a number of years, to hear of houſes being robbed, or people aſſaſſinated; all the principal ſtreets have guard-rooms, and ſoldiers patrol night and day, each having a ſabre hanging from his girdle, and a whip in his hand, to correct, without diſtinction, thoſe who excite quarrels or cauſe diſorder. The lanes are guarded in the ſame manner, and have latticed gates, which do not prevent thoſe from being ſeen who walk in them; they are always kept ſhut during the night, and ſeldom opened even to thoſe who are known: if they are, the perſon to whom this indulgence is granted muſt carry a lanthorn, and give ſufficient reaſon for his going out.

The ſhops where they ſell ſilks and china-ware generally take up the whole ſtreet, and afford a very agreeable proſpect. Each ſhop-keeper places before his ſhop, on a ſmall kind of pedeſtal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varniſhed, and often gilt, on which are written, in large characters, the names of the ſeveral commodities he ſells. Theſe being placed on each ſide of the ſtreet, at nearly an equal diſtance from each other, have a very pretty appearance.

Of all the buildings in this great city, the moſt remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not conſiſt ſo much in the nobleneſs and elegance of the architecture, as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly diſpoſed: for within the walls are not only the emperor's houſe, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houſes of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill-contrived. F. Altiret, a French Jeſuit, who was indulged with a ſight of the palace and gardens, ſays, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference, and that the front of the buildings ſhines with gilding, paint, and varniſh, while the inſide is ſet off and furniſhed with every thing that is moſt beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe.

The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raiſed, at proper diſtances, artificial mountains, from twenty to ſixty feet high, which form a number of ſmall vallies, plentifully watered by canals, which, uniting, form lakes and meers. Beautiful and magnificent barks ſail on theſe pieces of water; and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are ſaid to have any reſemblance to each other, which diverſity produces a very pleaſing effect.

Every valley has its houſe of pleaſure, large enough to lodge one of our greateſt lords in Europe with all his retinue: many of theſe houſes are built with cedar, brought at a vaſt expence the diſtance of 500 leagues. Of theſe palaces, or villa's, there are more than 200 in this vaſt encloſure.

In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky iſland, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent ſtructure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly ſuch as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with ruſtic pieces of rock, diſpoſed with ſuch art, as exactly to reſemble the wildneſs of nature, which gives them a very pleaſing appearance. The city of Peking is computed to contain two millions of inhabitants.

Canton, the capital of the province of Quang-tong, is about as large as Paris: it is the greateſt port in China, and the only one that has been much frequented by the Europeans. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, with very pleaſant walks around it. From the top of ſome adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine proſpect of the country. It is beautifully interſperſed with mountains, little hills, and vallies, all green; and theſe again pleaſantly diverſified with ſmall towns, villages, high towers, temples, the ſeats of mandarins, and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and ſmall branches from the river Ta; on which are numberleſs boats and junks, ſailing different ways through the moſt fertile parts of the country: the city is entered by ſeven iron gates, and within ſide of each there is a guard-houſe. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well ſtocked with images.

The ſtreets of Canton are very ſtraight, but generally narrow, and paved with flag-ſtones: they are ſo crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them: yet a woman of any faſhion is ſeldom to be ſeen, unleſs by chance when coming out of their chairs. There are great numbers of market-places for fiſh, fleſh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of proviſions, which are ſold very cheap. There are many private walks about the ſkirts of the town, where thoſe of the better ſort have their houſes, which are little frequented by Europeans, whoſe buſineſs lies chiefly in the trading parts of the city, where there are only ſhops and warehouſes. The ſhops of thoſe who deal in ſilk are very neat, make a fine ſhew, and are all in one place; for tradeſmen, or dealers in one kind of goods, herd together in the ſame ſtreet. Few of the Chineſe traders of any ſubſtance keep their families in the houſe where they do buſineſs, nor do any of their windows look towards thoſe of their neighbours. It is computed that there are in this city, and its ſuburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 junks or trading veſſels lying before it.

Nanking (a name ſignifying the court of the ſouth, as Peking does the court of the north) is the capital of the province of Kiang-nan. This once ſplendid and extenſive city was for many ages the metropolis of the Chineſe empire, as well as the reſidence of the emperors; whence it took its name. It is the largeſt city in China, and was originally ſurrounded with a triple wall, meaſuring about ſixteen leagues in circumference: but the palace, once famous for its ſplendor and magnificence, hath been deſtroyed, as well as many grand monuments. The ſtreets of this city are narrow, but well paved; the houſes low, but handſome; the ſhops ſpacious, and moſt richly furniſhed with goods.

Nanking is celebrated for its great number of libraries: it excels likewiſe in printing, and in artificers of moſt kinds: here too reſide the moſt eminent doctors of the empire, as well as the greater part of ſuch mandarins as have been diſcharged from their governments. The number of people reſident in this ancient city is eſtimated at about four millions, including thoſe who live in barks upon the water; and indeed whenever a city is ſituated on the banks of a canal or river, there is ſeen another large floating city of barks. If we except a few temples, the city gates, and a tower about 200 feet high, the preſent public buildings of Nanking have rather a mean appearance.

Sou-tcheou, the ſecond city of the province of Kiangnan, is celebrated for its commerce and beautiful appearance. In point of ſituation, it may be compared to Venice, though far ſuperior in extent and populouſneſs. It is four leagues in circumference, excluſive of the ſuburbs, which are very extenſive: it abounds with canals of pure water, capable of bearing ſhips of heavy burden; and here people are conveyed to almoſt any part of the city in gondolas elegantly painted. The trade and riches of this city, the beauty of its ſituation, the fruitfulneſs of the circumjacent country, the continued appearance of the gondolas, the concourſe of viſitants, and the natural politeneſs of the inhabitants, render it the paradiſe of China, in the fulleſt ſenſe of the term.

HISTORY OF THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

The antiquity of the Chineſe is univerſally admitted; but it is difficult to aſcertain the firſt period of their true chronology. A French writer allows the Chineſe nation to be near as old as the deluge; nor does Maigret, in his remarks on the obſcurity of the reign of Fo-hi, deny the reality of it; others of the learned give it as their opinion, that the Chineſe have been a nation near 4000 years. Even ſuch as have treated with ridicule the pretenſions of theſe people to antiquity, allow their monarchy to be at leaſt as ancient as that of the Egyptians, Aſſyrians, or any other country recorded in hiſtory.

The firſt inhabitants of China ſettled in the province of Chen-ſi, from whence they ſpread themſelves over the adjacent countries, Honan, Pe-tche-li, and Chan-tong, which four provinces together formed a conſiderable kingdom, containing that large tract of country lying north of the river Yang-tſe-kiang. The fame of the firſt princes of this infant monarchy brought together great numbers of foreigners; wherefore, to extend the bounds of their kingdom, they drained a large tract of low country that lay under water, fencing the land againſt the encroachments of the ſea with high banks, and by the ſame means confining the courſe of the rivers within deep and narrow channels: thus two fine provinces, Tche-kiang and Kiang-nan, were added to the kingdom.

We are told, "that under the reign of the emperor Yu, which they place above two thouſand years before Chriſt, they diſcovered a large tract of territory to the ſouth, partly deſtitute of inhabitants: this large extent of country, Yu and his ſucceſſors peopled with colonies, at different periods, under the control of princes of the blood, to whom they portioned out this new country, reſerving to themſelves only ſome acknowledgment. Thus were formed ſeveral little tributary kingdoms, which being afterwards united to the empire, rendered it very conſiderable. During the reign of Yu, the monarchy was divided into nine provinces, a particular delineation of which this emperor cauſed to be engraved on nine brazen veſſels. In the year 2037 before Chriſt, ſeveral nations ſent ambaſſadors to China, and ſubmitted voluntarily to a yearly tribute. Towards the end of the ſecond dynaſty, about 1200 years before Chriſt, certain Chineſe colonies extended themſelves to the eaſtern coaſt, and alſo took poſſeſſion of ſeveral iſlands.

"Under the fifth race, or dynaſty, which commenced about the year 200 before Chriſt, the Chineſe not only enlarged their borders to the north, after many ſignal victories obtained over the Tartars, but puſhed their conqueſts even to the confines of India, viz. to Pegu, Siam, Camboya, and Bengal.

"About 600 years after Chriſt, Kao-tſou-venti, founder of the twelfth race, added to the empire ſeveral of the northern provinces, ſituated beyond the river Yang-tſe-kiang, and which at that time compoſed a particular kingdom ſubject to the Tartars: this went by the name of the northern empire for ſeveral ages.

"The revolution which happened in 1644, when China was conquered by the Tartars, only ſerved to increaſe the power and extent of this great empire, by joining to its former poſſeſſions a conſiderable part of Great Tartary. Thus this vaſt monarchy attained to the ſummit of its greatneſs, by a gradual progreſs, not ſo much in the way of conqueſt like other empires, as by the wiſdom of its laws, the reputation of its government, and at laſt by its diſgrace."

The family of Yu ended with the reign of Kié, a wretch of infamous memory, who is ſaid to have drowned, in the ſpace of one day, three thouſand of his ſubjects, in a pit which he cauſed to be filled with wine. This and other enormities occaſioned a revolt of his ſubjects, who placed upon the throne Tchintang, a tributary prince of China.

Tcheou rendered himſelf abhorred by his ſubjects on account of his wicked and debauched life: his people therefore applied to Vou-vang, a prince of a ſmall neighbouring ſtate, and placed him on the throne. Vou-vang, however, in the beginning of his reign, committed a very capital fault, which in time was productive of great revolutions. In order to gratify certain families, and the princes of the blood royal in particular, he erected for them ſeveral

petty kingdoms, which were at firſt feudatory to the empire, but ſoon after declared for independence.

Under the thirteenth emperor of this family, all theſe petty princes were engaged in inteſtine wars, and diſtracted the whole empire. China became a ſcene of rapine for many ages; its authority was held in contempt, and the tributary princes controlled the emperors, enthroning and depoſing them, as their inclination or caprice dictated.

Tcheou-kiun, the thirty-fifth and laſt emperor of this race, found a very powerful rival in Tchao-ſiang, his vaſſal, the King of Tſin, to whom he was forced to give up his crown; this rebel, however, happened to die ſuddenly, and his ſon, who ſucceeded him, alſo died ſoon after; ſo that his grandſon was the firſt who enjoyed the advantages of this uſurpation.—This grandſon was named Tchuang-ſiang-vang, and was the founder of the fourth ſucceſſion, which gave four emperors to China, and laſted forty-three years only.

The fifth dynaſty began with the reign of Lieou-pau, who was firſt a common ſoldier, and at the head of a gang of robbers: he obtained the imperial throne by dint of violence, and yet proved himſelf capable of governing with a becoming dignity, judgment, penetration, and juſtice. This race laſted 426 years, and produced a great many very reſpectable characters; but the laſt monarchs of this race ſuffered themſelves to be ruled by the court eunuchs, fell into diſgrace, and became as odious as the eunuchs themſelves. The people took up arms, and wars enſued, which terminated in a diviſion of the empire into four parts, under four diſtinct ſovereigns; theſe however were re-united by Tchao-lie-vang, founder of the ſixth dynaſty. This monarch, after the ſhort reign of three years, died, and left Heou-ti, his ſon, who filled the throne forty-one years, and then moſt ſhamefully abdicated it in favour of the uſurper, Chi-tſou-vouti, founder of the ſeventh dynaſty.

The ſeventh race ſubſiſted 155 years, giving fifteen emperors to China, moſt of whom, through their want of capacity to govern, diſcredited the elevated ſtation of life in which fate had placed them. The laſt of theſe monarchs was put to death in the ſecond year of his reign, by one Lieo-you, who, quitting the trade of a ſhoe-maker, commenced ſoldier, roſe to the rank of general, and afterwards aſcended the throne of the empire.

This eighth race, with the ninth, tenth, and two following, only comprehend 198 years; in which ſpace of time there were no leſs than twenty-four reigns. The Chineſe annals of this period preſent us with ſcarce any thing but revolution, rapine, and deſtruction; weak, ſpiritleſs, and ſuperſtitious princes, controlled by their miniſters, and ſome of them betrayed, and even murdered by the very men in whom they had confided.

Under the firſt emperor of the thirteenth family, the people enjoyed the bleſſings of peace, the happy effects of the prudent and conſtitutional adminiſtration of thoſe emperors. The tranquillity which was in a more particular manner enjoyed during the reign of Tai-tſong, the ſecond emperor of this race, is recorded to the immortal honour of that ſovereign.—Under Hiven, the ſixth emperor, the tranquil ſtate of the nation was diſturbed with new commotions and ſeditions, which laſted in continual ſucceſſion from his reign down to that of Tchao-ſuen, the twentieth and laſt emperor of this race. Theſe diſturbances were occaſioned by the arbitrary and oppreſſive conduct of the eunuchs, to whom the monarchs of this dynaſty committed an unlimited exerciſe of regal juriſdiction. Tchou-ven, the captain of a gang of banditti, taking advantage of their unhappy broils, depoſed Tchao-ſuen, murdered him, and founded himſelf the fourteenth family, which, with the four following, ſubſiſted about fifty years; in which ſhort interval, no leſs than thirteen monarchs ſwayed the imperial ſceptre, moſt of whom ſuffered a violent death.

During theſe laſt reigns, the Tartars, who inhabited Leao-tong, one of the moſt northern provinces of China, began to render themſelves powerful. This province was ceded to them by the laſt emperors of the thirteenth race; and Kao-tſou, head of the ſixteenth, who was indebted to them for his advancement to the throne, gave up to them ſixteen more towns in the province of Pe-tche-li, excluſive of a tribute of 300,000 pieces of ſilk. Theſe ſhameful compliances increaſed their power and pride, and were productive of wars for 400 years, which nearly deſolated the empire.

The Chineſe, at length, called to their aſſiſtance the Niu-tche, or Eaſtern Tartars, in conjunction with whom they drove the Northern Tartars from a country which they had poſſeſſed upwards of two centuries; the Chineſe, however, were obliged to pay dearly for the aid of their allies, who not only conſtrained them to cede Leao-tong by way of compenſation, but alſo took poſſeſſion of Pe-tche-li, Chen-ſi, and Ho-nan; and they ſome years afterwards invaded the very heart of the empire, took Nanking, the capital, burned the royal palace to the ground, and forced the Chineſe to accept of the moſt diſhonourable terms of pacification.

Under this family, another race of Tartars, called the Tan-yu Tartars, ſettled weſtward of China, entered into an alliance with the Chineſe againſt their conquerors, the Niu-tche Tartars, and after ſeveral engagements, the Niu tche victory were themſelves conquered and driven from their poſſeſſions in Leao-tong and the other provinces, after an uſurpation of 117 years. The Tan-yu-heroes, however, in requital of their ſervices, demanded a ſettlement in thoſe provinces from whence they had exterminated the Niu-tche barbarians; theſe were accordingly ceded to them; but not contented with ſuch ceſſion, they took poſſeſſion of Yun-nan, Setchuen, and Houguang; and in leſs than half a century were maſters of the whole empire.

The twentieth race took the name of Yven, and had for its founder Chi-tſou, fourth ſon of Tai-tſou, in whom commenced the third Tartarian uſurpation. The Yven family gave to China nine emperors, the former of whom, by their prudential adminiſtration, won the hearts of their ſubjects; but the ſucceeding monarchs, indulging in a life of indolence, luxury, and diſſipation, perceived themſelves excelled in the uſe of arms and natural courage by the very people whom they had conquered, who, poſſeſſing the livelieſt ſentiments of freedom, and deſpiſing their diſſipated victors, wreſted conqueſt from their hands, and drove them back to their native country. This family, which laſted only eighty-nine years, became extinct in the perſon of Chun-ti, a very worthleſs monarch, who was addicted to a variety of vices; which made way for the twenty-firſt race, of which Tai-tſou was founder, and ſubſiſted 276 years. The commotions that happened under this family, produced gradually that grand revolution, which a ſecond time placed a Tartarian family on the throne of China. The progreſs of which was as follows:

The Niu-tche or Eaſtern Tartars, being expelled from Leao-tong and the empire, retreated into the ancient country bordering upon Leau-tong, ſeparating themſelves into ſeven diſtinct cantons, and fighting againſt each other, till at length they were united in ſubjection to one ſovereign. It happened that their merchants, trading in Leao-tong, having received ſome indignity from the merchants of China, exhibited a complaint to the mandarins, who, inſtead of attending to their complaint, augmented conſiderably the grievance, by craftily drawing their prince into an ambuſcade, and ſevering his head from his ſhoulders.

The

The Tartars, enraged at this cruel and iniquitous act, marched a numerous army into the very heart of Leao-tong, commanded by Tien-ming, ſon of their murdered prince, who ſubdued Leao-tong and Petche-li, but was ſoon obliged to abandon thoſe provinces, which were, however, with the reſt of the Chineſe empire, reſerved for his grandſon Tſong-te, but who was cut off by ſudden death, in the moment of his great view of ſovereignty. He had been brought up and educated in China, was maſter of the Chineſe tongue, and perfectly acquainted with the diſpoſition and genius of the people.

At this period the empire was very critically ſituated: the war with the Niu-tche Tartars continued, and as an addition to this national calamity, there was a great famine in the land. The then reigning monarch, too, Hoai-tſong, was a man of mean abilities, ſuffering himſelf to be directed in every thing by his miniſters and eunuchs, who greatly oppreſſed the people. A revolt was the conſequence, and in a ſhort ſpace of time there were eight different factions under the ſame number of chiefs; theſe were, however, reduced afterwards to two, and at length to one, headed by a commander named Li, who invading and poſſeſſing himſelf of the provinces of Ho-nan and Chenſi, ſtyled himſelf emperor of China. In Ho-nan he committed the moſt dreadful ravages; in his attack of Cuif-ong, its capital, that town was laid under water by a ſudden breaking down of the dykes of the Yellow-River, and 300,000 perſons periſhed in the inundation. He afterwards marched to Peking, at the head of 300,000 troops, and entered the city without the leaſt oppoſition; for he had privately conveyed into the city a number of his people in diſguiſe, who threw open the gates to him: and ſuch was the ſupineneſs of Hoai-tſong, the emperor, that he knew nothing of this circumſtance, till the uſurper had laid the whole city under his ſubjection.

As ſoon as the emperor heard the news, he marched from his palace at the head of 600 of his guards, who treacherouſly abandoned him. Thus ſituated, he flew into the gardens of his palace with his daughter, whoſe head he cut off, and then hung himſelf upon a tree: his wives, his prime-miniſter, and ſome of his eunuchs, alſo deſtroyed themſelves. The news of this melancholy event ſoon reached the army, then making war in Tartary, under the command of a general named Ou-ſang-guey, who refuſed to acknowledge Li, as his ſovereign; whereupon the latter put himſelf at the head of his numerous army, for the purpoſe of giving him battle.

Ou-ſang-guey ſhut himſelf up in a ſtrong fortified town; thither Li marched his troops, and having taken captive the father of Ou-ſang-guey, ordered him to be loaded with irons, and placed at the foot of the town wall, ſending word to his ſon at the ſame time, that if he did not immediately ſurrender, his father's throat ſhould be cut from ear to ear. The father found means to ſend a meſſage to the ſon, begging him not to ſurrender; the ſon ſacrificed his filial eſteem to the intereſts of his country, and the old man was moſt cruelly put to death. The patriotic ſoul of Ou-ſang-guey, now inflamed with rage, concluded a peace with the Niu-tche Tartars, and engaged them to enter into an alliance with him againſt Li, whoſe ſuperior force it was impoſſible for him to reſiſt.

Tſong-te, the Tartarian king, came to his aſſiſtance at the head of 80,000 warriors, forced the tyrant to raiſe the ſiege, purſued him even to Peking, and ſo totally routed his army, that he was forced to fly into the province of Chen-ſi, where he ſpent the remainder of his days in obſcurity. Tſong-te being thus ſucceſsful, the people idolized him as their deliverer, and he beſtowed ſeveral diſtinguiſhed honours upon the faithful Ou-ſang-guey: the latter however, ſoon had cauſe to repent his having leagued himſelf with ſo great and powerful a prince, for Tſong-te was no ſooner arrived at Peking, than he began to think of improving the ſucceſs of his arms, and the favourable diſpoſition of the people (with whom, hiſtory informs us, he had been brought up and educated) into the means of his advancement to the throne of China; but being ſeized with an illneſs that ſpeedily brought on his diſſolution, all that he could do was to declare his ſon emperor, who was only ſix years of age. This election was confirmed by the grandees and people, who in conſideration of the ſignal ſervices done by the father, connived at the tender age of the child, who took the name of Chun-ſi, and is conſidered as the founder of the twenty-ſecond dynaſty, which now fills the imperial throne of China.

By this revolution, which happened in the year 1644, a conſiderable part of Great Tartary was united to the Chineſe empire; and ſince the union, the Tartars ſeem rather to have ſubmitted to the laws of the Chineſe, than to have impoſed any upon them; in fact, the latter may be ſaid to be as great gainers by it as the Tartars themſelves. China ſtill holds the ſeat of empire, and has the ſupreme courts of juſtice: thither flows all the opulence of the united kingdoms, and all honours are conferred there. Both nations, ſo oppoſite in genius and character, have each been conſiderably advantaged by the incorporation: the fierce ſpirit of the Tartar has given a ſpark of martial fire to the peaceful temper of the Chineſe, while the arts and commerce of the latter have humanized and ſoftened the ſavage roughneſs of the former.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which compoſed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the ſettlements which they had under the Ruſſian government on the banks of the Wolga, and the Iaick, at a ſmall diſtance from the Caſpian ſea, and in a vaſt body of fifty thouſand families, they paſſed through the country of the Haſacks; after a march of eight months, in which they ſurmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themſelves as ſubjects to Chen-Lung, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-ſixth year of his reign. He received them graciouſly, furniſhed them with proviſions, clothes, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and paſturage. The year following there was a ſecond emigration of about thirty thouſand other Tartar families, who alſo quitted the ſettlements which they enjoyed under the Ruſſian government, and ſubmitted to the Chineſe ſceptre. The emperor cauſed the hiſtory of theſe emigrations to be engraven upon ſtone in four different languages.

The hopes which were lately indulged of the great and manifold advantages to be derived from the embaſſy of lord Macartney to the court of Peking have ended in diſappointment. Never, perhaps, was there a character better qualified for the management of an embaſſy of ſuch delicacy and importance than lord Macartney: but, notwithſtanding his lordſhip's adroitneſs, he found it utterly impoſſible to obtain permiſſion for the reſidence of an Engliſhman at the capital of China, as ambaſſador, conſul, or in any other character, or any excluſive ſettlement for the Engliſh within the Chineſe dominions, even on a temporary grant, and ſolely for the purpoſes of trade. According to a fundamental principle in Chineſe politics, innovation, of whatever kind, is held to be inevitably pregnant with ruin; and on this principle the emperor declined to admit a foreign reſident at the court of Peking, or to expand the principles on which our commercial intercourſe with this country are at preſent regulated and confined.

The embaſſy arrived in the river Pei-ho, in the gulf of Peking, the beginning of Auguſt 1793, and on the 21ſt of the ſame month reached the city of Peking. They remained here till the beginning of September, when they were conducted to Zhe-hol, or Jehol,

one

one of the emperor's country reſidences in Tartary, diſtant about forty or fifty leagues from Peking.

The emperor was accompanied by moſt of his family on the day of the embaſſador's preſentation, the ſcene of which was in the garden of the palace of Zhe-hol. The emperor's magnificent tent was placed in the middle of the garden, and within it was a throne. Immediately behind this tent was another, of an oblong form, having a ſopha in it at one extremity, for the emperor to retire to occaſionally. In the front were ſeveral ſmall round tents; one for the accommodation of the embaſſy, till his imperial majeſty ſhould arrive; the others for that of the tributary princes of Tartary, and delegates from other tributary ſtates, who came to Zhe-hol to be preſent at the celebration of the birth-day, but who attended now to dignify the embaſſador's reception. The repreſentative of the king of Great Britain was to be received by his imperial majeſty, in his large ſtate tent, ſeated upon his throne.

As a compliment to the Britiſh embaſſy, the emperor permitted his courtiers to appear dreſſed in Engliſh cloth, in lieu of ſilk and furs. The princes wore the tranſparent red button, marking the higheſt of the nine orders, as fixed by the preſent emperor. In compliance with the etiquette of the court, which is to be a long time in waiting, the embaſſy aſſembled before peep of day; but many of the courtiers had remained all night in the garden.

The emperor's approach was notified, ſoon after day-light, by inſtruments of muſic. His imperial majeſty was preceded by perſons loudly proclaiming his virtues and his power. He was born by ſixteen men in a triumphal car, followed by guards, officers of the houſehold, ſtandard and umbrella bearers, and a band of muſic. He wore a plain, dark ſilk, with a velvet bonnet, having a large pearl in the front, the only jewel he had about him.

His imperial majeſty entered the tent, and aſcending a few ſteps, conſecrated only to his uſe, ſeated himſelf upon the throne. The Colao, and two officers of his houſehold, were next him, and knelt whenever they addreſſed him. The princes of the family, the tributary princes, and officers of ſtate, having gained their reſpective ſtations in the tent, the preſident of the tribunal of rites conducted the embaſſador, attended by his page and interpreter, the miniſter plenipotentiary being alſo preſent, near the foot of the throne, on the left hand ſide, the place of honour. The other gentlemen of the embaſſy, many mandarines and officers of various ranks, were at the great opening of the tent, whence every thing that paſſed could be obſerved.

His excellency appeared in a ſuit of velvet richly embroidered, decorated with a diamond badge and ſtar, the Order of Bath, and over this a long mantle of the ſame order. The miniſter plenipotentiary, being an honorary doctor of laws, of the univerſity of Oxford, was habited in the ſcarlet gown of that degree. The Embaſſador, purſuant to inſtructions received from the preſident of the ceremonies, held the large, magnificent, ſquare gold box, embelliſhed with jewels, containing his Majeſty's letter to the Emperor, between both hands raiſed above his head, and mounting the ſteps which led to the throne, and bending upon one knee, preſented the box with a ſuitable laconic addreſs to his Imperial Majeſty, who receiving it graciouſly with his own hands, put it by his ſide, and repreſented "the ſatisfaction he felt at the teſtimony which his Britannic Majeſty gave to him of his eſteem and good-will, in ſending him an Embaſſy, with a letter, and rare preſents; that he, on his part, entertained ſentiments of the ſame kind towards the ſovereign of Great-Britain, and hoped that harmony would always be maintained among their reſpective ſubjects."

The dignified and ſplended manner in which the Embaſſy was received, influenced the minds of the Chineſe, and induced them to believe that the government was about to make a change of meaſures favourable to the Engliſh. Embaſſadors were not uſually received by the Emperor upon his throne; nor were their credentials delivered into his hands, but ordinarily into thoſe of his miniſters.

The firſt preſent which the Emperor made to his Majeſty was a jewel or precious ſtone, more than twelve inches long, highly valued by the Chineſe: it was carved into the ſimilitude of a Chineſe ſceptre, in the form of that which is always placed upon the Imperial throne, alluſive of peace and plenty. The Embaſſador, in compliance with the Chineſe etiquette, and alſo the miniſter plenipotentiary, reſpectfully offered preſents, in their turn, on their own behalf, which his Imperial majeſty vouchſafed to receive, and gave others in return.

Adverting to the inconveniency of having recourſe to an interpreter to explain whatever paſſed during the interview, his Imperial majeſty aſked the Colao, if there were any perſons in the embaſſy acquainted with the Chineſe language; and being told that the ambaſſador's page, Maſter George Staunton, a youth then in his thirteenth year, was the only one who had made any proficiency in it, the emperor deſired he might be brought up to him; and he aſked him to ſpeak Chineſe. His Imperial majeſty was ſo charmed with the converſe and elegant manners of this accompliſhed young gentleman, that he took from his girdle his areca-nut purſe, which hung to it, and preſented it to him with his own hand. It was of plain yellow ſilk, and had the figure of the five-clawed dragon and ſome Tartar characters wrought upon it. Purſes, it ſeems, are the ribbands of the Chineſe monarch, which he beſtows as rewards of merit; but the emperor's own purſe was a token of perſonal favour, valued by the Chineſe above all other gifts.

At the concluſion of theſe ceremonies were brought up to the emperor, at the right hand of the throne, ſeveral Hindoo ambaſſadors from Pegu, and Mahometans from the vicinity of the Caſpian, who, when they had repeated nine ſolemn proteſtations, were ſpeedily diſmiſſed. After this the Engliſh ambaſſador, and the three perſons accompanying him, were conducted to the left hand of his Imperial majeſty, and ſeated upon cuſhions. The princes of the Imperial family, the chief Tartar tributaries, and the higheſt officers of court, were ſeated according to rank, nearer to or more remote from the throne, before which was placed a table for his Imperial majeſty; and one table was likewiſe laid for every two gueſts. When all were ſeated, the tables were uncovered, and diſplayed a ſplendid banquet. Various kinds of viands and different ſorts of fruit were ſerved up in bowls, piled piramidically one above another; tea was alſo introduced. During the repaſt, every bowl or cup handed to the emperor was taken with hands raiſed above the head, as had been done by the ambaſſador when he preſented the gold box. Much ſilence and great ſolemnity, verging on religious awe, were obſerved during the whole of this buſineſs.

His Imperial majeſty's attention to his European gueſts was remarkably conſpicuous: by his order, ſeveral diſhes were handed to them from his own table; and when the repaſt was finiſhed, he ſent for them, and gave them, with his own hand, a goblet of warm Chineſe wine. Enquiring of the ambaſſador how old his own ſovereign was, he cordially wiſhed, in anſwer, that he might attain his years, which then amounted to eighty-three, in a perfect enjoyment of health. The feſtival concluded, he deſcended the throne, and walked firm and erect to the open chair which was in waiting.

The emperor appeared, at the time he gave audience to the embaſſy, to be perfectly unreſerved, chearful, and unaffected; his eyes were full and clear, and his countenance open. He aſcended the throne

of China in the year 1736. He is only the fourth ſovereign of the Tartar dynaſty, which took poſſeſſion of the throne of China about the year 1644.

CHAP. X.

INDIA, OR INDOSTAN.

General Deſcription, with a particular Account of its Boundaries, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Inhabitants, Government, Religion, Produce, &c.

INDIA is bounded by Uſbeck-Tartary and Thibet on the north; by Acham, Ava, and the Bay of Bengal, on the eaſt; by the Indian-Ocean, on the ſouth; and by the the ſame ſea, and Perſia, on the weſt. It is ſituated between the equator and the parallel of 40 deg. north latitude, and between the 66th and 109th deg. of eaſt longitude; being 2042 miles long, from north to ſouth, and upwards of 1400 broad from eaſt to weſt.

This vaſt country at large may be divided into three great parts: firſt, the peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Further Peninſula; ſecondly, the main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the peninſula within, or on this ſide the Ganges; all of them vaſt, populous, and extenſive empires. But before they are conſidered ſeparately, it will be neceſſary to premiſe ſome particulars which are common to them all, as this method will at once ſave many repetitions, and convey a more adequate idea to the reader of every material circumſtance relative to this large country.

We ſhall begin with an account of their population, inhabitants, religion, and government.

The two latter diviſions are comprehended by an excellent and authentic hiſtorian, under the title of Indoſtan. This writer ſays, the Mahometans (who are called Moors) of Indoſtan, are computed to be about ten millions. Above half of the empire is ſubject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their deſcent from the old princes of India, and exerciſe all right of ſovereignty, only paying a tribute to the great mogul, and obſerving the treaties by which their anceſtors recogniſed his ſuperiority. In other reſpects, the government of Indoſtan is full of wiſe checks upon the overgrowing greatneſs of any ſubject; but as precautions of that kind depend upon the adminiſtration, the indolence and barbarity of the moguls and emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitleſs.

The Indians, or original inhabitants of the country, are called Gentoos; or, as others ſtyle them, Hindoos, and the country Hindooſtan, or Hindoſtan. They pretend that Bramma, their legiſlator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he exiſted many thouſand years before our account of the creation. This Bramma probably was ſome great genius, whoſe beneficence, like that of the pagan legiſlators, led his people and their poſterity to pay him divine honours. The Bramins (for ſo the Gentoo prieſts are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and inſtitutions; and that though the original is loſt, they are ſtill poſſeſſed of a ſacred commentary upon it, called the Shahſtah, which is written in the Shanſcrita, now a dead language, underſtood only by the Bramins, who ſtudy it, even as our ſacred ſcriptures, written in the Greek and Hebrew, are. But it is not well known, whether that language was originally different from that of the country, or whether it has only now become unintelligible to the people, through that change to which all living languages are incident.

The foundation of Bramma's doctrine, uncorrupted by the arts and gloſſes of the Bramins, conſiſted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who originally created a regular gradation of beings, ſome ſuperior, and ſome inferior to man; in the immortality of the ſoul, and a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, which is to conſiſt of a tranſmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-exiſtent ſtate. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempſychoſis took its riſe in India. But in order to accommodate this ſublime, but otherwiſe complicated doctrine, to the capacities of the lower ranks of people, the Bramins have had recourſe to ſenſible repreſentations of the Deity and his attributes; by which means, the original doctrines of Bramma have degenerated into rank, ridiculous idolatry, in the worſhip of the moſt hideous figures, either delineated or carved; and the belief of an Omnipotent Being is now almoſt confined to the Gentoos. Wooden images are placed in all their temples, and on certain feſtivals are exhibited in the high roads, and in the ſtreets of towns. The human figures with elephants' heads, which are the objects of their devotion, have many hands, and are enormouſly corpulent. Yet amidſt all their errors, they agree in thoſe truths which form the harmony of the univerſe, that "there is one ſupreme God, and that he is beſt pleaſed by charity and good works."

From time immemorial, the Hindoos have been divided into four great tribes.

1. The firſt and moſt noble are the Bramins, who alone can officiate in the prieſthood, like the Jewiſh tribe of Levi. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are ſtrictly prohibited from all menial offices by their laws.

2. The ſecond in order is the Sittri tribe, who, according to their original inſtitution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other profeſſions.

3. The third is the tribe of Beiſe, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias, or ſhopkeepers.

4. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial ſervants, and they are incapable of raiſing themſelves to any ſuperior rank.

If any one of them ſhould be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his poſterity are for ever ſhut out from the ſociety of every body in the nation, excepting that of the Harri caſt, who are held in utter deteſtation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meaneſt and vileſt offices. This circumſtance renders excommunication ſo dreadful, that an Hindoo, rather than deviate from one article of his faith, will ſuffer the torture, and even death itſelf.

The Gentoos are alſo ſubdivided into caſts, or ſmaller claſſes and tribes; and it has been computed, that there are eighty-four of theſe caſts, though ſome have ſuppoſed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the caſts, in a particular city or province, is generally indiſputably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himſelf honoured by adopting the cuſtoms of a ſuperior caſt; but this laſt would give battle, ſooner than not vindicate its prerogatives: the inferior receives with reſpect the victuals prepared by a ſuperior caſt, but the ſuperior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior caſt.

There are ſome caſts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarkable for their uglineſs. The moſt ſtriking features in the character of the Hindoos, are their ſuperſtition, and veneration for the inſtitutions and tenets of their forefathers. Their marriages are circumſcribed by the ſame barriers as the reſt of their intercourſes; and hence, beſides the national phyſiognomy, the members of each caſt preſerve an air of ſtill greater reſemblance to one another.

The diviſion of the Gentoos into tribes or claſſes, diſcovers a ſtriking peculiarity in their government and religion. The tribes are headed by a chief, who is in ſome degree reſponſible for the conduct of thoſe under him; and individuals, on proper occaſions, are ſometimes ſummoned to aſſemble together, in conformity to the requiſitions of government.

Among the Gentoos, the principal deity or divinity itſelf is repreſented as having an infinite number of heads, hands, and eyes, which are emblematical of his knowledge, power, and penetration; and the inferior attributes are figured by almoſt every animal or viſible object in the creation: in particular, wiſdom is repreſented by a ſnake. But the ignorant, not content with one deity, have ſplit their principal divinity into many thouſand parts, and changed each attribute into a ſeparate god.

There are upwards of eighty ſects who ſupport the religions tenets of Bramma; in ſome fundamental points they concur, and never diſpute upon any. They live in friendſhip with perſons of all perſuaſions, and admit of no proſelytes; they ſay heaven has many gates, and every one may enter at which he pleaſes.

In this country, the dominion of religion extends to a thouſand particulars, which in others are governed either by the civil laws, or by taſte, cuſtom, or faſhion. Dreſs, food, the common intercourſes of life, marriages, profeſſions, are all under the jurdiſdiction of religion. There is ſcarcely any thing which is not regulated by ſuperſtition. It preſcribes rules of conduct in all circumſtances and ſituations; nor is there any thing almoſt ſo trifling or minute, as to be conſidered a matter of indifference.

As to the religion of the Mahometants here, it is the ſame as in Perſia, and is the religion of the court; the Mahometan fanatiſciſm, however, having ſubſided to a degree of rationality and candour, all profeſſions or religions here, through this means, are practiſed with freedom and tranquility.

The original government of the Hindoos was in reality an hierachy; for among that religious people. the higheſt authority was poſſeſſed by the prieſthood, or the Bramin caſt.

The governments of both nations were not only hierarchical, but there was in both a vaſt variety of religious obſervances and ceremonies, extending to many particulars, which in order countries are matters of choice or indifference; and both entertained the moſt profound reſpect and veneration for their anceſtors. All the caſts acknowledge the Bramins for their prieſts, and from them derive their belief of the tranſmigration, which leads many of them to afflict themſelves even at the death of a fly, although occaſioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of caſts are leſs ſcrupulous, and eat, though very ſparingly, both of fiſh and fleſh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. To beef they have a particular objection.

The food of the Hindoos is ſimple, conſiſting chiefly of rice, ghee, which is a kind of imperfect butter, milk, vegetables, and oriental ſpices of different kinds, but chiefly what is called in the eaſt, chilly; and in the weſt, green or Cayen pepper. The warrior caſt may eat of the fleſh of goats, mutton, and poultry. Other ſuperior caſts may eat poultry and fiſh; but the inferior caſts are prohibited from eating fleſh or fiſh of any kind. Their greateſt luxury conſiſts in the uſe of the richeſt ſpiceries and perfumes, of which the great people are very laviſh, and which grow almoſt ſpontaneouſly in their gardens. They eſteem milk the pureſt of foods, becauſe they think it partakes of ſome of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and becauſe they almoſt aſcribe divinity to the cow itſelf.

Penal laws are ſcarce known among the Gentoos, as their motives to bad actions are few. Temperate in their living, and delicate in the conſtitutions, their paſſions are calm, and their manners gentle: they have no object but that of living with comfort and eaſe, their happineſs principally conſiſting in the ſolaces of a domeſtic life; and they are taught by their religion, that marriage is an indiſpenſable duty in every man, who does not entirely ſeparate himſelf from the world through a principle of devotion. Their religion alſo permits them to have ſeveral wives; but they ſeldom have more than one: and it has been obſerved, that their wives are diſtinguiſhed by a decency of demeanour, a ſolicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the moſt civilized countries.

The amuſements of the Hindoos conſiſt in going to their pagodas, in aſſiſting at religious ſhows, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies preſcribed to them by the Bramins. Their religion ſeems to forbid them to quit their own ſhores, nor do they want any thing from abroad. If others therefore had looked on them with the ſame indifference with which they regard the reſt of the world, they might have continued to live in much tranquility and happineſs.

The Gentoo ſoldiers are called rajah-poots, or perſons deſcended from the rajahs. They reſide chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the ſouthern provinces, who are quite black. Theſe rajah-poots are a robuſt, brave, faithful people, and enter into the ſervice of thoſe who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finiſhed, and they run off the field without incurring the charge of cowardice.

The abominable cuſtom of the women burning themſelves upon the death of their huſbands, ſtill continues to be practiſed in India among ſome of high caſt and condition; though ſince the Moguls have become maſters of Indoſtan, theſe ſhocking ſpectacles have been much leſs frequent than formerly, nor do the Bramins encourage them.

The following recent inſtance we have been lately favoured with, will ſufficiently prove, that the cuſtom above alluded to is ſtill obſerved; and may ſerve to invalidate the modern opinion, that the Bramin women have diſcontinued it: "Signor Nicola Fontana de Cremona, a doctor of phyſic, at Calcutta, was witneſs, on Nov. 24, 1784, to the ſhocking ſight of a woman, the wife of a Bramin, burning herſelf on the ſame pile with her huſband. The ſight was more affecting, as the wife was both young and handſome. The ceremony commenced about ſun-ſet. During the preparation of the funeral pile, the females were employed in preparing the widow for the voluntary ſacrifice: they adminiſtered opium to her with a view to annihilate thoſe feelings which ſo painful a death muſt naturally excite. After taking the opium, ſhe was ſtripped and plunged into the river, in order to purify her for that ſtate which they were taught to believe ſhe muſt enjoy, viz. that ſhe would live happy with her huſband 3500 years in the Elyſian-Fields. Having been waſhed, and ſome clothes thrown about her, ſhe reſolutely walked towards the wood, and boldly placed herſelf at the feet of her deceaſed huſband: there ſhe undreſſed herſelf, and diſtributed her clothes to thoſe around her: ſhe ſaid a few words, was tied faſt to the dead body, and the pile was inſtantly ſet on fire. As the flames reached her, ſhe began to ſcream; the whole company inſtantly ſtruck up a doleful kind of hymn; and the more her ſcreams increaſed, the louder they raiſed their voices. When the wood and bodies were reduced to aſhes, each departed home; and thus ended the proceſs of this horrid, ſuperſtitious, and moſt unnatural ceremony."

It may not be amiſs to remark, that the inſtitution of the above horrible ſacrifice is not to be aſcribed to Bramma, but ſeems rather to be the invention of ſome Bramin, who carried his jealouſy beyond the grave. It is a piece of refinement dictated by a barbarous and over-ſtrained affection, and ſuitable to the character

†

ter of thoſe ſuperſtitious beings who think there is a particular merit in rigid morality, or what they ſtyle a tranſcendent purity of manners, how incompatible ſoever their general conduct is to the principles of right reaſon and true religion.

The famous dancing-girls are a particular claſs of women, who are allowed to be openly proſtituted. By the continuation of wanton attitudes, they acquire, as they grow warm in the dance, a frantic laſciviouſneſs themſelves, and communicate, by a natural contagion, the moſt voluptuous deſires to the beholders. Their attitudes and movements are very eaſy, and not ungraceful. Their perſons are delicately formed, gaudily decorated, and highly perfumed.

The Gentoos apply themſelves to the cultivation of their lands, and to public and neceſſary works, with the ſame aſſiduity as the Chineſe; and are alſo remarkably honeſt and humane. There is ſcarcely an inſtance of a robbery in all Indoſtan, though the diamond-merchants travel without defenſive weapons. A late writer obſerves, that the Hindoos, as well as the Perſians, Tartars, and adjoining nations, who have inhabited Indoſtan ſince it was invaded by Tamerlane, though of different nations, religions, laws, and cuſtoms, poſſeſs, nevertheleſs, in equal degrees, hoſpitality, politeneſs, and addreſs. In refinement and eaſe, they are ſuperior to any people to the weſtward of them. In politeneſs and addreſs, in gracefulneſs of deportment, and ſpeech, an Indian is as much ſuperior to a Frenchman of faſhion, as a French courtier is to a Dutch burgomaſter of Dort. The Hindoos, eſpecially thoſe of the higher caſts, are in their demeanor eaſy and unconſtrained, ſtill more than even a French courtier, and their eaſe and freedom is reſerved, modeſt, and reſpectful.

The Indians are of a middle ſtature, their perſons ſtraight and elegant, their limbs finely proportioned, their fingers long and tapering, their countenances open and pleaſant, and their features exhibit the moſt delicate lines of beauty in the females, and in the males a kind of manly ſoftneſs. Their walk and gait, as well as their whole deportment, is in the higheſt degree graceful. The inhabitants of the northern part are of a deep olive colour; and thoſe of the ſouth, black. The natives, who dwell on the mountains in the centre of the peninſula, are exceeding black: all have black eyes, and long black hair.

The dreſs of the men is a kind of cloſe-bodied gowns, and wide trowſers, reſembling petticoats, reaching down to their ſlippers. Such of the women as appear in public, have ſhawls over their heads and ſhoulders, ſhort cloſe jackets, and tight drawers, which come down to their ancles. Hence the dreſs of the men gives them, in the eyes of Europeans, the appearance of effeminacy; whereas that of the women will appear rather maſculine: but theſe ideas are chiefly owing to the influence of habit and cuſtom on human ſentiments. The men tie their hair up in a roll, over which they have a ſmall turban. The women's hair is alſo tied up in a roll, like the men's, and is adorned with jewels, or toys in imitation of them; they have pendants in their ears and noſes, and ſeveral ſtrings of beads round their necks; they wear bracelets on their wriſts and ancles, and rings on their fingers and toes: they put their bare feet into ſlippers, as the men do; though indeed, in the ſouthern parts, ſome of the women wear no ſlippers or ſhoes at all.

The Moors, or Mahometans, appear in a very handſome and becoming dreſs: they have grand turbans of rich muſlin, and their garments reach down to their feet. Their ſaſhes are embroidered in great taſte, the ends being decorated with gold and ſilver tiſſue, and in their ſaſhes they ſtick their daggers; they wear embroidered ſlippers, which they take off, and leave at the foot of a ſopha when on a viſit.—They are remarkably fond of ſmoking tobacco, and uſe the callaan.

In manners, the inhabitants of Indoſtan reſemble the other natives of ſouthern Aſia: they are effeminate and luxurious, and are by education taught to affect a grave deportment, which initiates them early in the arts of diſſimulation, and they are very apt to gratify a private revenge without having had any public quarrel.

Their houſes are of two kinds, thoſe built by the Moguls, and thoſe by the original Indians. The houſes of the Moguls are all in the Perſian taſte; in ſhort, they ſeem to imitate the Perſians in every thing. The Indian houſes cover much ground, and have ſpacious galleries and accommodations of various kinds. The apartments are ſmall, and the furniture not very elegant, if we except the rich Perſian carpets. The grandeur of their palaces conſiſts in baths, perfumes, temples, gods, and harams. The harams, or zenanas, that is, the reſidences of the women, are removed from the front of the houſe, and lighted only from a ſquare ſpace in the centre of the whole building. The apartments in the houſes of the wealthy are ornamented chiefly with looking-glaſſes, which are purchaſed of the Europeans, and many of their ceilings are inlaid with mother-of-pearl and ivory.

The Bramins ſuperintend and have the immediate direction of all the temples and pagodas erected in every capital, which are ſtupendous, but diſguſtful ſtone buildings. If theſe Indian prieſts are maſters of any uncommon art or ſcience, they frequently turn it to the purpoſes of profit from their ignorant votaries. They know how to calculate eclipſes; and judicial aſtrology is ſo prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head aſtrologer being always conſulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewiſe encourage thoſe ſuperſtitions, and appropriate to themſelves the fruits of the Gentoo induſtry.

Though the Gentoos are entirely paſſive under all their oppreſſions, and, by their ſtate of exiſtence, the practice of their religion, and the ſcantineſs of their food, have nothing of thoſe diſagreeable qualities in their nature that animates the generality of mankind; yet they are ſuſceptible of avarice, and ſometimes bury their money; many of them, rather than diſcover it, having put themſelves to death by poiſon, or otherwiſe. The vaſt ſcarcity of ſilver, that till of late prevailed in Indoſtan, has been aſcribed to this practice.

The Indians are ſuppoſed, for the reaſons abovementioned, to be leſs under the influence of their paſſions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual uſe of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nouriſhment; and their marrying early, the male before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their perſons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, the women begin to bear children at about twelve, and their beauty is on the decay at eighteen: at twenty-five, they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being ſoon ſtrangers to all perſonal exertion and vigour of mind; and whatever may be the cauſe, a perſon who has lately travelled into this country obſerves, that death is regarded with leſs horror in India than in any other country in the world. "The origin and the end of all things, ſays the Indian philoſopher of the preſent times, is a vacuum. A ſtate of repoſe is the ſtate of greateſt perfection; and this is the ſtate after which a wiſe man aſpires." "It is better, ſay the Hindoos, to ſit than to walk, and to ſleep than to wake; but death is the beſt of all."

At certain times, a court of juſtice is held for determining diſputes relative to property, and other controverſies among the people. Law-ſuits are here very quickly adjuſted, as the whole power of deciding is

veſted

veſted in the judge, whoſe principle is avarice, and whoſe ſoul is conſequently a ſtranger to tender or equitable ſentiments.

In every town and village, courts are likewiſe held for the adminiſtration of juſtice: the principal perſon of the place acts as judge, and determines all diſputes within his diſtrict; the determination, however, is generally made in favour of him who diſplays the greateſt liberality, and can give the higheſt bribe.

The emperor himſelf decides in all capital caſes, as his viceroys do in their different governments.—Though there are no written laws, particular puniſhments are inflicted for particular offences. Murder and robbery are puniſhed with death; but the mode of executing is entirely in the will of the mogul or his viceroy. Some offenders are beheaded, ſome hanged, ſome impaled upon ſharp-pointed ſtakes, and others trampled to death by elephants. The poor criminal who is doomed to ſuffer exceſſive torture, has the bones of his legs and arms broken by the elephant, who kicks him in thoſe parts with his heavy foot, and then leaves the victim to expire. There have been inſtances of delinquents being torn to pieces by dogs, in the empire of Indoſtan. According to the Gentoo laws, criminals ſentenced to death are not to be ſtrangled, ſuffocated, or poiſoned, but to be cut off by the ſword; becauſe without an effuſion of blood, malefactors are ſuppoſed to die with all their ſins upon them; but by the ſhedding of blood, it is thought their crimes againſt the Deity are expiated.

In India, the Mahometans are called Moors, and are of Perſian, Turkiſh, Arabic, and other extractions. They invaded Indoſtan ſoon after the caliphs of Bagdad began to reign. Afterwards penetrating to Delhi, they made that city their capital. They ſettled colonies in ſeveral places, whoſe deſcendents are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which ſtill ſubſiſts. Thoſe princes, being ſtrict Mahometans, received under their protection all that profeſſed the ſame religion, and who, being a brave, enterpriſing people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. The vaſt reſort of Perſian and Tartar tribes has likewiſe ſtrengthened the Mahometan government; but it is obſervable, that in two or three generations the progeny of all thoſe adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horſes and ſwords, degenerated into all the indolence and ſenſuality of the eaſt.

The Moors are ſaid to have introduced the diviſion of provinces, over which they appointed ſoubahs; and thoſe provinces, each of which might be ſtyled an empire, were ſubdivided into nabobſhips; each nabob being immediately accountable to his ſoubah, who in proceſs of time became almoſt independent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute.

The Marattas at preſent make the greateſt figure of all the Tartar tribes: Malwa, Berar, Oriſſa, Candeiſh, and Viſipour, the principal part of Amednagur or Dowlatabad, half of Guzarat, and a ſmall part of Agimere, Agra, and Allahabad, are compriſed within their extenſive empire, which reaches from ſea to ſea acroſs the wideſt part of the peninſula, and from the confines of Agra northward to the Kiſtna ſouthward, forming a tract of about 1000 miles long, and 700 wide. This extenſive country is divided among a number of chiefs, whoſe obedience to the Paiſhwah, or head, is merely nominal, and they are often at war among themſelves, and with their head. For the laſt twenty years, their power has been on the decline. They are now a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indoſtan and Perſia. They commonly ſerve on horſeback, and, when well commanded, have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active ſpirits, and pay no great reſpect to the principles of their religion.

A modern writer ſays, that the Mahometans or Moors are of ſo deteſtable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and thoſe were among the Tartar and Perſian officers of the army. We are indeed told, that they are void of every principle even of their own religion; and if they have any virtue, it is an appearance of hoſpitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will ſtab him to the heart. But, according to others, the Marattas, who have been unjuſtly repreſented as barbarians, are a great and riſing people, ſubject to a regular government, the principles of which are founded in virtue. Theſe people are at this time in friendſhip with the Engliſh; but a rupture taking place between them and Tippoo Saib, a formidable neighbouring potentate, the country of the latter was conquered by the Engliſh, their allies, in 1792.

The Gentoos have a remarkable manner of drinking. They religiouſly avoid touching with their lips the veſſel that contains the liquor, and pour it into their mouths, holding the bottle, or other veſſel, at leaſt at a foot diſtance. They will drink from a pump, or any running ſtream, but not out of a ſtanding pool; for their idea is, that ſtagnated water has a polluting quality.

The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his only officers. The imperial demeſne lands are thoſe of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his ſucceſſors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are beſtowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights of the ſub-tenants, even of thoſe lands, are indefeaſible. All other lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that ſtate even down to the ſub-tenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each diſtrict. The Mahometan inſtitutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood.

According to the Gentoo conſtitution, land is not private property, but belongs to the community in the ſeveral villages, but this does not extend to houſes and gardens: theſe villages are ſupplied with their reſpective public officers, as the head-man, to execute juſtice; the conicopoly, to keep the accounts of the village; the corn-meter, ſmith, barber, doctor, aſtrologer, &c. The grounds are cultivated by the community, and the produce ſhared out in certain proportions to all. One is alotted to the Pagodas and Bramins, one to the government, another to the public officers, one to the repair of tanks or reſervoirs of water, and the reſt is diſtributed among the community: but the Mahometan government, and the intruſion of Europeans, have introduced ſome innovations in this ancient conſtitution, among which the farming the circar, or government ſhares, are particularly inſtanced.

The government of this great empire, the outlines of which we have now given, long ſubſiſted without almoſt the ſemblance of virtue or probity among its great officers, either civil or military; till it was ſhaken after the overthrow of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by ſo great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the ſoubahs and nabobs became abſolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they framed new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies and ſupport their power: ſo that many of the people, within theſe few years paſt, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-maſters, were left to periſh through want. To ſum up the miſery of the inhabitants, thoſe ſoubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the Gentoos themſelves, and ſome even of

of the Bramins, as the miniſters of their rapaciouſneſs and cruelties.

Upon the whole, ever ſince the invaſion of Kouli Khan, Indoſtan, from being a well regulated government, is become a ſcene of mere anarchy or ariſtocracy; every great man protects himſelf in his tyranny by his ſoldiers, whoſe pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private aſſaſſinations and other murders are now committed here with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worſe ſtate, concern themſelves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above cauſes are owing the late ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in Indoſtan. The reader, from this repreſentation, may perceive, that all the Engliſh have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from uſurpers and robbers; and their poſſeſſion of it being guaranteed by the preſent lawful emperor, is ſaid to be founded upon the laws and conſtitutions of that country. But notwithſtanding this, we are ſorry to be obliged to remark, that the conduct of many of the ſervants of the Eaſt India company towards the natives, not being properly checked or puniſhed, either by the directors, or the Britiſh legiſlature, has in too many inſtances been highly diſhonourable to the Engliſh name, and totally inconſiſtent with that humanity which was formerly our national characteriſtic. But we hope the wiſdom and juſtice of the Britiſh parliament will prompt them to puniſh the delinquents for paſt offences, find expedients for removing the preſent evils, and for preventing the like in future.

CHAP. XI.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES,

CALLED THE FURTHER PENINSULA.

Situation, Extent, Mountains, Rivers, Soil, Produce, Trade, &c.

THIS peninſula is ſituated between the 92d and 109th deg. of eaſt longitude, and between the 1ſt and 30th of north latitude; being about 2000 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth. It is bounded by Thibet and China, on the north; by China and the Chineſe ſea, on the eaſt; by the ſame ſea and the Straights of Malacca, on the ſouth; and by the bay of Bengal, and the Hither India, on the weſt. The province of Mecklus, and other diſtricts, are ſubject to the king of Ava or Burmah, and lie between Bengal and China.

On the north weſt, are the kingdoms of Acham, Ava, and Arracan, whoſe chief towns are Camdara, Ava, Arracan; containing 180,000 ſquare miles.

On the ſouth-weſt, are the kingdoms of Pegu, Martaban, Siam, Malacca. Their chief towns are, Pegu, eaſt long. 97 deg. north lat. 17 deg. 30 min. containing 50,000 ſquare miles. Mataban; Siam, eaſt long. 100 deg. 55 min. north lat. 14 deg. 18 min. containing 170,000 ſquare miles. Malacca, eaſt long. 101 deg. north lat. 2 deg. 12 min. containing 48,000 ſquare miles.

On the north-eaſt are the kingdoms of Tonquin and Laos. Their chief towns are, Cachao, or Keccio, caſt long. 105 deg. north lat. 21 deg. 30 min. containing 122,000 ſquare miles; Lanchang, containing 59,400 ſquare miles.

On the ſouth-eaſt, lie Cochin-China, Cambodia, and Chiampa; whoſe chief towns are Thoanoa, containing 61,900 ſquare miles; Cambodia and Padram, containing 60,200 ſquare miles.

The whole of this peninſula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly ſo to the moderns. The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was beſt known to the Perſians.

The air of this peninſula is very dry and healthy in the northern parts, but the ſouthern provinces are very hot and moiſt, eſpecially in the vallies, and low lands near the ſea and rivers, and therefore not ſo healthy; notwithſtanding which, the natives build moſt of their towns in theſe parts. They are obliged to erect their houſes upon high pillars to ſecure them from the floods during the rainy ſeaſon, at which time they have no communication with each other but by boats; and ſuch ſtorms of wind, thunder, and lightning happen, about the equinoxes on the ſhifting of the monſoons, as are ſeldom ſeen in Europe. The year is not divided into winter and ſummer, as with us, but into the dry and wet ſeaſons, or into the eaſterly and weſterly monſoons; a term ſometimes applied to thoſe periodical winds, and ſometimes to the wet and dry weather. When the ſtorms ceaſe, there are ſea and land breezes near the coaſt, which ſhift every twelve hours.

The mountains of this part of India run from north to ſouth almoſt the whole length of the country. The mines of it yield gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethyſts, beryls, aſterias or cat's-eyes, and other precious ſtones, in which the natives drive a great trade.

The principal rivers are, 1. The Domea, in Tonquin, which runs from north to ſouth, and, paſſing by Cachao the capital, falls into the Chineſian ſea. 2 The Mecon, which running from north to ſouth, through Laos and Cambodia, falls by two channels into the ſame ſea. 3. The Menan, which runs from north to ſouth through Siam, and falls into the bay of Siam. 4. The Ava, or the great river Nou Kian, which joining the leſſer river Pegu, they both fall through one mouth into the bay of Bengal. 5. The Sanpoo, or Burrumpooter.

Adjoining to this country are the promontaries of Siam, Romana, and Branſac; the bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China; and the Streights of Malacca and Sincapore.

The ſoil is in general fertile, but more ſo in ſome places than others. Thoſe are remarkably ſo which are overflowed by the torrents from the mountains, and the mud and ſlime left on the ſurface when the floods retire. Here are produced all the delicious fruits found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables. Areca and betle claim particular mention, from the unbounded uſe made of them by the Indians. The areca-tree nearly reſembles the cocoa in height and ſhape; but the trunk is ſmaller, and the leaves ſhorter. Under the leaves grows a long maſs, which forms a bunch or cluſter of fruit, reſembling nuts or apricots, intermixed with flowers. About two months after the flowers are gone, the huſk which covers the fruit begins to open and fall off, when an oblong fruit appears of the ſize of a middling plum, and of a whitiſh and ſhining colour; its ſhell becomes firm, compact, and reddiſh; the pulp contained in it is of a brown caſt, bordering on red, and ſoft and aſtringent to the taſte.

The betle is a plant which creeps along the ground like peas or hops, ſo that its ſtalk muſt be ſupported by a prop, or planted near the areca-tree, to which it fixes itſelf like ivy. Its leaf reſembles that of the citron-tree, and becomes reddiſh when dried. When it is planted in watery places it produces a fruit ſhaped like a rat's tail, but bears none in climates which are too hot or too cold; in which places the inhabitants make uſe of the leaves prepared with lime of oyſter-ſhells, inſtead of it.

An Indian is ſeldom ſeen without betle in his mouth, which they ſay ſtrengthens the gums, preſerve the teeth, makes the breath ſweet, is good for the ſtomach, promotes digeſtion, prevents wind and vomiting, to which they are very ſubject, and is an antidote againſt the ſcurvey. When they chew the

areca, they mix the kernel with the leaves of the betle, dividing a nut into eight or ten parts.

Their other productions are corn, rice, pepper, and a variety of garden-ſtuff and drugs. The principal fruit-trees are the palm, cocoa-nut, tamarind, quava, mango, plantains, orange, lemon, and pomegranate. Pine-apples and melons are likewiſe found here in the greateſt plenty and perfection.

The trade and manufactures of this peninſula vary in the different kingdoms of it; but they principally conſiſt in muſlins, chints, calicoes, and ſilks. The natives are very ingenious in weaving, embroidering, and darning, eſpecially the laſt; ſo that if a piece of muſlin is torn, they join it with ſuch neatneſs, as not to be diſcovered by the moſt curious inſpection. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. No nation exceeds them for inlaying in ivory; nor can they be equalled for cabinets, eſcrutoires, and other curious works in wood, very finely lacquered. The fineneſs of their linen, and their fillagree work in gold and ſilver, far exceed thoſe in any other part of the world. They have a method of covering canes with caſes of beautiful tortoiſeſhell; and of making beads, little idols, bracelets, necklaces, and various toys, of a very tranſparent cryſtal, found in the mountains. In ſhort, the commerce of India is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been ſo from the earlieſt ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their higheſt materials of luxury. The Engliſh, Dutch, French, Daniſh, and Sweediſh veſſels reſort thither annually. The greateſt part of it, however, now centres in England, though that of the Dutch is very conſiderable. The French trade thither has been long on the decline, and that of the Swedes and Danes is very inconſiderable. The natives have ſome merchant ſhips of their own, in which they traffic with the countries bordering upon India; but their principal trade is with the Europeans.

Of the different Kingdoms on this Peninſula, and the Religion, Cuſtoms, Government, Conſtitution, &c, of their reſpective Inhabitants.

The kingdom of Acham, or Azem, has China to the eaſt, Indoſtan to the weſt, Tipra to the ſouth, and Boutan, with part of Independant Tartary, to the north. It is one of the moſt fertile kingdoms in Aſia, producing every thing neceſſary for the ſupport of human life. It contains mines of gold, ſilver, ſteel, iron, and lead, the property of which the king has reſerved to himſelf, on condition of not levying any taxes on the people. Great quantities of coarſe ſilk are alſo produced here, eſpecially a particular ſort ſpun by a little inſect reſembling a ſilk-worm, which, when manufactured, bears a prodigious fine gloſs, but it is not laſting. Two ſorts of gum-lack are found in this kingdom, the beſt is of a red colour, and uſed by the natives in painting their linen; the other is made uſe of to varniſh cabinets and make ſealing-wax. Their gold is current in ingots, but they have pieces of ſilver coin of two ſhillings each in value.

The inhabitants towards the north have good complexions and indifferent features, but are ſubject to prodigious wens or ſwellings in their throats, owing to the bad quality of the water. Thoſe in the ſouthern extremity are ſwarthy and flat-noſed, but have no diſagreeable ſwellings in their throats. The only covering they wear is a piece of cloth girt round their middle, and on their heads a cap or bonnet, hung round with boars' teeth. They bore very large holes in their ears, in which they hang pieces of gold and ſilver. The legs and arms of the moſt affluent among them are adorned with bracelets of coral and amber, while the poorer ſort make uſe of tortoiſe and other large ſhells, formed into rings for this purpoſe. There is ſcarce a man in Azem but has a horſe for himſelf, and an elephant to carry his wives, which are uſually four; to every one of whom he aſſigns her particular domeſtic offices. They pay no taxes, they do not even work in the mines, ſlaves being purchaſed for that purpoſe. The favourite food of this people is dog's fleſh, though all kinds of game, and other proviſions, abound here. They have prodigious quantities of fine large grapes, from which they extract brandy inſtead of wine. The Azemites diſpute the invention of gunpowder with the Chineſe; and many circumſtances conſpire to decide this conteſted point in their favour.

Theſe Indians, as well as the Chineſe, had unqueſtionably the uſe of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally aſcribed to the Azemites.

The metropolis of this kingdom, and the reſidence of the king, which lies in 25 deg. 33 min. north latitude, is named Camdaras, Kemmeroofe, or Guergen; and the city of Azoo is the royal burial place. When any king is buried in the grand temple, his favourite idol is buried; this always being either of gold or ſilver, the vaults are filled with immenſe treaſures. The people imagine that the righteous have, in the other world, plenty of what they deſire, but that the wicked ſuffer all the miſeries of hunger and thirſt. Full of this notion, and not entertaining any very high idea of the morality or piety of their monarchs, they bury with them all kinds of edibles, great riches, ſeveral of their wives, officers, elephants, ſlaves, &c. leſt they ſhould fare worſe in the other world than they did in this.

Ava, according to ſome accounts, is about 765 Engliſh miles in length, and 575 in breadth; but, according to others, it is about 800 miles long, and 250 broad. It is ſituated between 15 and 28 deg. north latitude; and is bounded on the eaſt, by Laos and Siam; on the weſt, by Bengal; on the ſouth, by the Indian ſea; and on the north by Thibet. It is ſaid to be larger than the whole empire of Germany. It is in general a flat country and very fertile, yielding rice, fruits, garden-ſtuff, and a variety of wild and tame animals. It alſo contains mines of ſilver, lead, and copper.

The king aſſumes next to divine honours; his ſubjects approach him with the moſt abject reverence; and the higheſt title they aſpire to, is that of his firſt ſlave. When they ſpeak or write to him, they term him their kiak, or God; and in his letters to foreign princes, he arrogates to himſelf the title of King of kings, to whom all other kings ought to be ſubject. He is accounted near kinſman to all the gods in heaven and on earth; allied to all the planets; having the ſun for his brother, and the moon and ſtars for his couſins.

Ava, the capital, carries on a great trade in muſk and jewels, the latter are principally rubies and ſapphires. Every town in the dominions of the king of Ava hath a kind of ariſtocratical government. The ſubjects trade chiefly in muſk and jewels; and in moſt particulars reſemble thoſe of Pegu.

Arracan, which is called by ſome the empire of Mogo, is bounded, on the eaſt, by Ava; on the weſt, by the bay and country of Bengal; and, on the north, by Tipra: it extends about 400 miles in length; and contains a great number of places, many of which are uninhabited, from the numerous wild beaſts that infeſt the whole country.

This kingdom enjoys a very ſalutary air, and is prodigiouſly fertile and pleaſant; but, though ſituated in ſo warm a latitude, it freezes very intenſely when the wind blows from the north-eaſt.

The inhabitants are in general very robuſt, and have broad flat foreheads, which is eſteemed a beauty among them, large open noſtrils, ſmall quick eyes, and ears which hang down to their ſhoulders; the women

women are tolerably fair. Men of rank wear a veſt, or ſhirt, of fine white calico, which ſits cloſe to the body and arms. Over it they have a long gown of the ſame ſpecies of linen, which buttons round the arms, and is tied cloſe upon the breaſt with ribbons. They wear an apron which covers the belly and thighs before, with another piece of white calico, reſembling a bag, which, being gathered in ſeveral folds, is faſtened round the middle, and falls down behind, ſo that they look as if they carried a large bundle of cloth about them. Their hair, which they ſuffer to grow to a prodigious length, is tied in treſſes behind the head.

The women wear a kind of tranſparent flowered gauze, which, covering the boſom, paſſes over the ſhoulders. About their waiſts they faſten a quantity of very fine calico, which goes three or four times round them, and reaches down to their feet. Thoſe who can afford it wear a ſilk ſcarf over one of their arms, and their hair is curled in a very becoming manner. They put rings of glaſs, ſilver, &c. in their ears; and ſometimes they wear bracelets all the way up their arms to the elbows, and from the ancles to the calves of their legs; but the genteeler ſort content themſelves with a few, curiouſly japanned. They are, however, in general very oſtentatious, and uſually make an appearance beyond their abilities.

A man may marry ſeveral wives, beſides which, he is allowed as many concubines as he can maintain; but they are very indelicate in their amours, always preferring ſuch women as have been openly connected with the Dutch and other foreigners; and, it is ſaid, that thoſe who marry a virgin even hire theſe people to conſummate the nuptials.

Their conduct towards their ſick is equally ridiculous, being always attended by a number of ſuperſtitious ceremonies, performed by the prieſts and the relations of the patient: but when a perſon is ſeized with a diſeaſe, judged to be incurable, he is expoſed on the banks of a river, where he is either drowned or devoured by birds or beaſts of prey.

Theſe idolatrous people make their images of clay, which they bake in the ſun, and then worſhip them; and, it is ſaid, that ſome of their temples, which are built in form of a pyramid, contain no leſs than twenty thouſand of theſe idols. Beſides the temple idols, they have their domeſtic, or houſehold gods, the marks of which they wear branded on their arms, ſides, and ſhoulders. The prieſts are clothed in yellow, have their heads ſhaved, and all go uncovered, except thoſe called Pungrini, who, being ſuperior to the reſt, wear a yellow mitre. They are all obliged to live ſingle, and have very little communication with the reſt of the world. There are a number of hermits among them, called Talapoins, who inflict very rigorous penances on themſelves, and are for that reaſon held in very high eſteem by the people.

The navigation of Arracan extends no further than Bengal and Pegu, ſo that the inhabitants trade very little by ſea. Few of the natives attend at all to the foreign commerce which is carried on, it being chiefly conducted by the Mahometans, who are ſettled there in great numbers. Of theſe ſome trade in elephants, which they ſend to Orixa, the coaſt of Coromandal, Golconda, and Perſia, which they barter for calicoes, ſilks, and ſpices. They likewiſe carry on a traffic with the dominions of the Great Mogul, in timber for building, lead, tin, ſtick-lack, elephants teeth, diamonds, rubies, and other precious ſtones.

Arracan, the capital of this kingdom, is large and well fortified; it is ſituated in a valley, and is fifteen miles in circumference. It is encloſed by very high ſtone walls, and ſurrounded by a ridge of ſteep craggy mountains, ſo artificially formed as to render a penetration almoſt impracticable; beſides which, there is a caſtle within ſtrongly fortified. The city is well watered by a fine river that paſſes through it in different ſtreams, and at length forms two channels, which empty themſelves into the bay of Bengal. The number of inhabitants in this city are eſtimated at 160,000, excluſive of foreigners. The houſes in general are ſmall, and built of bamboos; but thoſe of the better ſort are ſpacious and handſome: in it are upwards of 600 idol temples, moſt of which are ſpacious buildings, elegantly ornamented. The palace is exceeding magnificent, being decorated with the moſt coſtly ornaments. The apartments are lined with various kinds of wood that diſcharge the moſt agreeable fragrance; and the roofs of thoſe belonging to the king are covered with plates of gold. In the centre of the palace is the grand hall, which contains a canopy ornamented with wedges of ſolid gold, reſembling ſugar-loaves.

The province of Pegu is ſituated between the 110th and 116th degrees of longitude, and between the 17th and 30th degrees of north latitude, being about 350 Engliſh miles in length, and almoſt the ſame in breadth. This kingdom is very ſalutary and fertile, the ſoil being enriched by the inundations of the river Ava; and it alſo abounds in elephants, buffaloes, goats, hogs, all ſorts of game, particularly ſtags, and exceeding fine poultry.

The inhabitants are of a tawny complexion; and the women, according to the character given of them by all travellers, ſtrangers to modeſty. This, however, renders them the more agreeable to their own countrymen, for, it is aſſerted, that no Peguan, from the king to the peaſant, will marry a woman who has not previouſly lived with an European. Fathers offer their daughters to ſtrangers for a certain term, and moſt of the foreigners who trade with them, marry a wife for the time of their ſtay. Their common drink is water, or a liquor diſtilled from the milk of the cocoa-nut; and rice, made into cakes, ſerves them inſtead of bread.

The prieſts of this country are called talapoins, who recommend charity and humanity as the greateſt of all virtues; and indeed theſe men do honour to human nature, if the accounts given of them be literally authentic. When the maſter of a veſſel happens to be ſhipwrecked on the coaſt, and he, by this calamity, becomes the ſlave of the ſovereign, the talapoins humanely intercede for him, and get him into their pious care and protection. In their temples theſe good men ſupply a diſtreſſed ſtranger with every thing he wants; and as they are phyſicians as well as prieſts, they tenderly take care of ſick perſons; and, after their recovery, give them letters of recommendation to ſome other convent on the road they travel.

The riches of the king, when an independent ſtate, were almoſt incredible; ſome of his idols, as big as life, being of maſſy gold and ſilver. His revenues aroſe from the rents of lands, of which he was ſole proprietor, and from duties on merchandize; ſo that ſome thought him to be the richeſt monarch in the world, except the Chineſe emperor. He was ſaid to be able to bring a million, and, on occaſion, a million and a half of ſoldiers, to the field, well clothed and armed; and to be maſter of eight hundred trained elephants, each with a caſtle on his back holding four ſoldiers.

The conſtitution of this empire is of the feudal kind, for the king aſſigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. In the year 1754, Pegu was reduced to the ſtate of a dependent province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade here.

Martaban, or Martavan, in the bay of Bengal, was once a kingdom, but is now only a Siameſe province. It is 300 miles long, 115 broad; and is ſo fertile as to have annually three harveſts, and is bleſſed with ſuch a pure air, that the inhabitants never are afflicted with the head-ach. It produces, beſides corn, oranges, lemons, figs, pears, cheſnuts, medicinal plants, oil of jeſſamy, gold, ſilver, ſteel, iron, lead, copper,

copper, rubies, laque, benzoin, &c. The people make a kind of black porcelain, with which they trade to Malacca.

The kingdom of Siam is about 834 Engliſh miles in length, and 400 in breadth where wideſt, but in ſome places it is not above half ſo much. It is ſurrounded by high mountains, which on the eaſt ſide ſeparate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the weſt, from Pegu; and on the north from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma; on the ſouth it is waſhed by the river Siam, and has the peninſula of Malacca, the north-weſt part whereof is under its dominion.

By the overflowing of the river Menan, in the month of March, annually, the country is entirely under water for 120 miles round. Theſe inundations leave a mud and ſlime behind them, which, together with the earth waſhed down from the mountains, render the land very fertile. The vegetable and animal productions, together with the minerals in this kingdom, are the ſame with thoſe already mentioned in Azem or Pegu, &c.

The inhabitants of both ſexes are more modeſt than any found in the reſt of this peninſula. They are of a good ſtature, ſeldom corpulent, and have tawny complexions. The faces of both men and women are broad, with high cheek bones, but their fore-heads and chins ſuddenly contract and terminate in a point. They have dark ſmall eyes, hollow jaws, large mouths, thick pale lips, ſhort noſes, large ears, and thick lank hair, which both men and women cut ſo ſhort, that it reaches no lower than their ears — The dreſs of the better ſort is much the ſame as that of the other kingdoms in this peninſula; but as to the common people, they go almoſt naked. The king wears a cap in the form of a ſugar-loaf, ending in a circle of precious ſtones; and thoſe of his officers have circles of gold, ſilver, or vermillion gilt, to diſtinguiſh their quality, which entirely depends upon the poſſeſſion of places, for there is no ſuch thing as nobility among them. The Siameſe, in their manners, are civil, courteous, and timorous; they have a ready and clear conception, and ſoon attain any art that is taught them; their rural ſports are fiſhing and hunting; they alſo act comedies by torch light, from evening till morning, and obſerve a great number of feſtivals.

As to religion, every Siameſe temple has its convent of friars annexed to it, and they are ſaid to have a proportionable number of nunneries. Beſides the images in their temples, whereof the elephant and the horſe are the chief, they worſhip almoſt every thing animate and inanimate; beaſts, birds, fiſhes, woods, mountains, rivers, &c. and like all the inhabitants of this peninſula, and many other parts of Aſia, &c. believe in the doctrine of tranſmigration. They have two languages, one termed Balli, which is the learned or ſacred language; the other which is ſpoke in common, is, in ſome reſpects, ſimilar to the Chineſe, but in others very different.

The king is the moſt haughty and deſpotic monarch upon earth, and the reſpect he demands from his ſubjects borders upon adoration. Even in council, which laſts ſometimes four hours, the miniſters of ſtate, and the mandarins, are continually proſtrated before him; they never ſpeak to him but on their knees, with their hands raiſed to their heads, making every moment profound reverences, and accompanying their diſcourſe with pompous phraſes, celebrating his power and his goodneſs. When he goes abroad, all are obliged to keep within doors: in ſhort, all his ſubjects are his ſlaves, who poſſeſs nothing but what belongs to him, and he commands their ſervice both in peace and war. His revenues ariſe from the lands of the crown, and a rent paid him in kind out of all the lands in his dominions, alſo by monopolies of almoſt every branch of trade; but he does not receive above ſix hundred thouſand pounds per annum in money.

They have a ſilver coin in Siam called a tycal, worth about three ſhillings and three halfpence, but they have neither gold nor copper money. Thoſe ſhells, called cowries, ſerve to buy trifles: they are current in all thoſe countries; and differ in value according to the plenty or ſcarcity of them: in Siam, 800 of them are equal to one penny.

The city of Siam is ten miles in circumference; and many navigable canals, whoſe ſources are in the river Menan, paſs through it. The walls are thick and high; built of ſtone and bricks, of both which materials ſome of the bridges are erected, though moſt are built of wood. The only public ſtructures worth notice are the palaces; and the temples, which are ſo gilded on the outſide that the effulgence of the ſunbeams reflect from them, and dazzle the eyes of the beholders. One of the latter, which is a ſquare building, contains 100 idols, placed in niches four feet from the ground: they are as big as life, ſit croſs-legged, and are all gilt.

The ſtreets are narrow, but regular; the houſes are built on raiſed ground, by reaſon of the frequent inundations; and the inhabitants in the rainy ſeaſons go about their buſineſs in boats. All the houſes are built of timber or cane, except one ſtreet, which contains 200 brick dwellings of only one ſtory.

The river will contain veſſels of 400 tons burthen, and divides the city into eight parts. The markets here are well ſtocked with cattle, wild and tame; rice, fruits, pulſe, roots, &c. and the trade conſiſts of the admirable gems of Pegu, ſilver bullion, manufactured iron, broad ſtammel cloth, looking-glaſſes, &c. China-wares are cheaper than at Bantam.

Bankok, which ſtands about eighteen leagues to the ſouth of Siam, is the only place towards the coaſt that is fortified with walls, batteries, and braſs cannon.

Malacca is a large country, and contains ſeveral kingdoms or provinces: but the Dutch are ſaid to be real maſters and ſovereigns of the whole peninſula, being in poſſeſſion of the capital city. The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the pureſt of any ſpoken in all the Indies. We are told by the lateſt travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants teeth, canes, and gums.— Some miſſionaries pretend it is the Golden Cherſoneſus, or peninſula of the ancients, and that the inhabitants uſed to meaſure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent ſituation of this country admits of a trade with China; ſo that when it was firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richeſt city in the eaſt, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, Japan, Moluccas, and Sunda trade.

The city of Malacca is an extenſive and populous place, ſurrounded with a ſtone wall and baſtions: many of the ſtreets are ſpacious and handſome, and are ſhaded with trees on both ſides: the houſes ſtand pretty cloſe to each other, and are built chiefly of bamboos, though ſome of them are of ſtone. The governor's houſe is handſome and commodious, and is ſituated in the fort, garriſoned by 200 Europeans. The harbour is one of the beſt and ſafeſt in that part of the globe, and receives veſſels from moſt parts of the Indies. When poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, the city was remarkably opulent, being a grand mart for precious ſtones and gold; and before the Dutch made Batavia the chief place of their commerce, it had all the rich commodities of Pegu, Coromandel, Siam, Banda, and other countries: but at preſent its commerce is not very conſiderable, which, as well as the degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an induſtrious people, is eaſily accounted for by the tyranny of the Dutch, whoſe intereſt it is that they

ſhould

ſhould never recover from their preſent ſtate of ſlavery and ignorance.

Here is a kind of ſmuggling trade carried on by the Engliſh in their country ſhips, from the coaſt of Coromandel, and the bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council, who little regard the orders of their ſuperiors, provided they can enrich themſelves from the profits ariſing by it.

The Malays are in general ſavages, and live after the manner of beaſts. They are extremely ſwarthy, and ſo deſirous of having children as white as the Europeans, that, as ſoon as they arrive on their coaſt, they offer them their wives and daughters, thinking by that means they ſhall obtain their wiſhes. It is however aſſerted, that there are another ſort of people in this country, who in ſhape, as well as complexion, reſemble the Europeans, having grey eyes, and yelloviſh hair, which reach to the women's hips; their feet turn inwards, and they can ſee only in the night, and therefore always ſleep till ſun-ſet.

The inland people, called Morakabos, delight ſo much in miſchief, that if the Malayans ſow grain in any ground but what is well fenced, they come down and burn it. Rice, or any other kind of grain, is very little cultivated; and in ſome of theſe parts the people ſubſiſt chiefly on ſago.

The articles for trade are gold, tin, pepper, elephants-teeth, roſe-wood, cinnamon, eagle and kalambak-woods, ſapan-wood, diamonds, gum-benjamin, rattans, and canes.

TONQUIN.

THE kingdom of Tonquin is bounded on the eaſt and north by the empire of China; on the weſt, by the two ſmall kingdoms of Laos and Bowes, bordering on Siam; and on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt by Cochin-China. It is about 400 miles in length, and 300 in the broadeſt part.

As to the climate of Tonquin, this country being ſituated under the tropic, the weather is extremely variable; however, their two chief diſtinctions with reſpect to this, are thoſe of the dry and rainy ſeaſons; the former of which is the more agreeable, and continues from September to March; during which time, the north-wind blows without intermiſſion, and the air is healthful, except in January and February, when the weather is frequently very ſevere. The rainy ſeaſon begins in April, and ends in Auguſt, the ſouth-wind blowing all the time; the three firſt months of this ſeaſon are very unhealthy. During the months of June, July, and Auguſt, the heat is very intenſe; nevertheleſs, the country, at this time, has a moſt pleaſing and beautiful appearance; the trees are loaded with fruit, and the plains covered with a rich harveſt. However, as the land moſtly lies low, particularly near the ſea, it is ſubject to frequent inundations; and when theſe are greater than uſual, the natives are conſiderable ſufferers.

The inhabitants are of a tawny colour, though not ſo deep as moſt other Indians. Their faces are oval, and generally flattiſh, notwithſtanding which they have a graceful appearance. Their hair is black, long, and lank, and both ſexes affect to have their teeth as black as ebony, white ones being eſteemed a great defect. The men are of a ſtrong, hardy conſtitution; and the higher claſs of women very modeſt and reſerved. They are dreſſed much in the ſame manner, wearing a ſtraight, long robe, cloſe at the neck, and reaching down to the heels, which is kept cloſe to the waiſt by a girdle of ſilk, or gold and ſilver tiſſue. The ladies cover their heads with a ſort of very broad hat, made of the leaves of a tree, and adorned with a net-work of thread curiouſly wrought: it is the cuſtom of the country to go barefooted all the year.

The Tonquineſe are indefatigable in whatever buſineſs they apply themſelves to: their judgment is juſt, their memory retentive, and they are capable of long application; but on the other hand, they are ſaid to poſſeſs a moſt unbounded love for gaming, and that the lower claſs are inſufferably indolent. They are, however, excellent mechanics, and fair traders; but greatly oppreſſed by their king and great lords. His majeſty engroſſes the trade, and his factors ſell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquineſe are fond of lacker-houſes, which are unwholeſome and poiſonous. The people in the ſouth are a ſavage race, and go almoſt naked, with large ſilver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or ſhell bracelets.

Silks, cottons, and lackered ware, are the principal manufactures of Tonquin The trade of it is carried on almoſt entirely in foreign bottoms, and the articles exported from thence are aloes, turpentine, muſk, rhubarb, and ſeveral other drugs, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, ſpices, &c.

In Cachao, the capital of this kingdom, the Engliſh have a very flouriſhing houſe, conveniently fitted up, with ſtorehouſes, offices, and noble apartments for the merchants, factors, and other officers belonging to the company. The chouah, or chief governor, generally reſides in this city, which is ſituated in the centre of the country. The bua's palace is a vaſt ſtructure, and has a fine arſenal.

The natives are all Pagans, and, among other animals, worſhip the elephant and horſe. They are exceedingly ſuperſtitious, great pretenders to aſtrology and the black-art, and ſtrict obſervers of times and ſeaſons.

Tonquin was originally under the Chineſe government; but having revolted, a civil war enſued, which continued ſome centuries: at laſt a compromiſe was effected between the contending parties, wherein it was agreed, that the repreſentative of Din, the firſt revolter, ſhould enjoy all the executive powers of the government, under the appellation of Chouah; and that the heir of the ancient kings ſhould retain the royal titles, with ſome other inconſiderable prerogatives, exerciſed within the limits of his own palace, from whence neither he, nor any of his family, ſtir but four times in a year, when they are allowed to ſtay out ſix days each time, being always attended by officers, or ſpies, appointed by the chouah. In the mean time, this bua, or real monarch, reigns with the utmoſt deſpotiſm: every ſubject is obliged to pay him a land-tax, according to his circumſtances, and the fertility of his lands; beſides which, they are bound to pay him a perſonal ſervice of ſix months in every year, for which he only allows them a bare ſubſiſtence, and even that is in his power to refuſe.

THE KINGDOM OF LAOS.

Boundaries, Produce, Inhabitants, &c.

THIS is a rich plentiful country, but is little viſited by Europeans. It is bounded on the eaſt by Cochin China and Tonquin; on the weſt, by Brama; on the north, by the lake Chamay; and on the ſouth, by Cambodia and Siam. Its extent cannot with certainty be aſcertained; but the general opinion is, that it reaches from the 15th to the 25th degree of north latitude.

The moſt valuable article produced in this country is gum benjamin, which is eſteemed the beſt in quality of any throughout the Indies; it grows in great abundance, and brings ſo conſiderable a revenue to the king, that the exportation of it is ſeverely prohibited. The gardens abound with a great variety of fruit, and they have rice in abundance, which, though different in taſte from that of any other country, is eſteemed the beſt in the eaſt. They have

a great plenty of honey, wax, cotton, amber, and muſk; and ivory is ſo little valued, from the great number of elephants with which the country abounds, that the teeth are uſed for fences to their fields and gardens. They have prodigious herds of beeves and buffaloes, and the rivers abound with all kinds of fiſh, ſome of which are of an immenſe ſize. In theſe rivers are found gold and ſilver duſt; and in ſeveral parts of the country are mines of iron, lead, and tin. Salt is alſo produced here in great abundance, and prodigious quantities of it are exported to foreign parts. It is formed by a white froth left on the rice-fields after harveſt, which afterwards becomes condenſed by the heat of the ſun.

The inhabitants of Laos called Langians, are naturally very affable in their diſpoſition; and though they envy ſuch as are in a more eligible ſituation than themſelves, yet they are ſtrictly honeſt, and appear to be utter ſtrangers to avaricious ſentiments. They are in general well-ſhaped, and though their complexion is of an olive caſt, yet they are much fairer than their neighbours; the women are very modeſt in their carriage, and in other reſpects little inferior to the women of Portugal.

Their food principally conſiſts of rice, the fleſh of the buffalo, and ſeveral kinds of pulſe: they eat four meals a day, and have very great appetites, notwithſtanding which, they are ſeldom afflicted with any diſeaſes. They ſometimes eat fowls, which they dreſs without plucking off the feathers; and they kill them by ſtriking them on the head with a ſtick, the ſhedding of blood being conſidered as one of the greateſt crimes.

Their employment principally conſiſts in huſbandry and fiſhing; but they are naturally of an indolent diſpoſition, nor will they attend buſineſs till they are reduced to it from abſolute neceſſity.

A robbery is here ſeldom heard of, but when ſuch circumſtances do happen, if the criminal cannot be found, the neighbours muſt make reſtitution to the parties injured.

Their marriage ceremonies conſiſt only in the parties promiſing before two who have been ſome years joined in wedlock, that they will be true to each other ſo long as they ſhall live; but they often part from the moſt trifling circumſtances, and this may be attributed to the inſignificancy of the mode by which they are joined together.

If a woman is found guilty of adultery, ſhe is deprived of her liberty, and for the reſt of her life is conſidered as an abſolute ſlave, and muſt be ſubject to ſuch ſevere treatment as her huſband ſhall think proper to inflict.

Fornication is permitted among the laity, but the talapoins, or prieſts, are prohibited from it under ſevere puniſhments. Polygamy is alſo allowed.

The talapoins, or prieſts, are under tuition from their childhood till they are twenty-three years of age, when they undergo an examination, and, if approved of, are immediately appointed to the order of prieſthood. In the exerciſe of their office, they are in general very indolent; and though they originate from the moſt humble ſtations, they afterwards aſſume an inſufferable arrogance.

The Langians profeſs the pagan religion. Thoſe who deny the tranſmigration of ſouls, affirm, that the wicked, after death, are irredeemably loſt; but that the good aſſume a body of air as light and pure as the ſun, and that after inſenſibly paſſing through ſixteen heavens, where they enjoy the moſt perfect felicity, they return to their natural ſhape, and enjoy a ſtate of conſummate felicity.

The king preſerves an unlimited power in all caſes, whether civil or eccleſiaſtical; and all honours and employments are ſolely at his diſpoſal; the private property of individuals is liable to be converted to ſuch purpoſes as he ſhall think proper; ſo that no family can be ſaid to enjoy their own poſſeſſions. The greateſt homage is paid by all ranks of people to the ſovereign, who conſiders himſelf as ſuperior to all other monarchs. The characteriſtic by which he denotes his ſuperiority over them, is from the length of his ears, which are ſo diſtended by weights as to hang upon his ſhoulders.

In order to impreſs his people with a due ſenſe of reſpect for him, he appears in public twice every year; and his ſubjects are ſo elated on this occaſion, that they teſtify their gladneſs by the moſt diſtinguiſhed rejoicings. Several tributary kings come to court, in order to pay their homage to the king of Laos, and they acknowledge their ſubmiſſion to him by magnificent preſents.

The metropolis of this kingdom is by ſome called Lanchang, and by others Lanjeng. It is ſituated in the interior part of the kingdom, in 18 deg. north lat. it is defended on one ſide by the great river Lao, and on the other by high walls, and broad ditches. The palace is very lofty and magnificent, and, with the offices and other buildings, extend more than two miles in circumference. The architecture is exceeding grand, and the apartments within are furniſhed in the moſt ſumptuous manner; the baſſo-relievo's in particular are ſo richly gilt, that they appear as if covered with panes inſtead of leaves of gold.

The houſes of the better ſort are built of wood, are very lofty and handſome, and elegantly furniſhed; but thoſe of the common ſort are very low and mean. The talapoins or prieſts only have liberty to build their houſes of brick or ſtone.

COCHIN, OR WESTERN CHINA.

Extent, Boundaries, Inhabitants, &c.

THIS country is about 500 miles in length, but much leſs extenſive in its breadth from eaſt to weſt. It is ſituated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to ſome, from the 8th to the 17th, and, according to others, from the 12th to the 18th deg. of north lat. being bounded on the eaſt by the Chineſe Sea; on the weſt, by Laos and Cambodia; and on the north, by Tonquin. It was originally a province of Tonquin, but has for upwards of 300 years formed a diſtinct kingdom, and is, like Tonquin, tributary to the Chineſe emperor.

The houſes are built of canes entwined together, ſo that the walls reſemble the ſides of a wicker baſket, and theſe they plaſter over with a kind of mortar made of dirt or lime.

The inhabitants of this kingdom reſemble the Siameſe in their ſtature and complexion, and the ſexes are ſcarce diſtinguiſhable by their dreſs, which conſiſts of a long gown, bound round them with a ſaſh: people of diſtinction uſually wear ſilk, but they prefer Engliſh broad-cloth, when it is to be purchaſed; the inferior ſort wear cotton cloth, dyed of a dark colour. They are excellent mechanics, and very fair dealers. Their chief food is rice, pulſe, and fiſh variouſly dreſſed and ſeaſoned. Their common drink is tea, and they have alſo ſome ſtrong liquors, brewed or diſtilled from rice. Their government is nearly the ſame as that of China.

The king has an abſolute power over the lives and fortunes of his ſubjects, and conducts all the affairs of his dominions in the moſt deſpotic manner, without conſulting his miniſters. His revenues, which are immenſe, ariſe from the ſale of odoriferous woods, gold duſt, and elephants teeth. One third of all the rice produced in the kingdom is his, and he receives yearly tributes of conſiderable value from all the provinces ſubject to him, beſides other prodigious taxes and advantages.

The religion, marriages, funeral ceremonies, &c. of the Cochin-Chineſe, are the ſame as thoſe of the Tonquineſe.

Cambodia, or Camboya, is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Gulf of Siam. Its greateſt length, from north to ſouth, is about 520 Engliſh miles; and its greateſt breadth, from weſt to eaſt, about 398 miles; being bounded, on the weſt, by Cochin-China; by the Indian-Ocean, on the ſouth; and by the kingdom of the Laos, and the Kemois mountains, on the north. The river Mecon, which is very ſpacious, runs through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its ſultry air, and the peſtiferous goats, ſerpents, and other noxious animals bred in the woods.

The ſoil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by ſea and land, are much the ſame with thoſe of the other kingdoms of this vaſt peninſula.

The betle (already noticed in the general account of this peninſula) is a plant of a particular flavour, and, as they ſay, an excellent remedy for all thoſe diſeaſes that are common to the inhabitants of the Eaſt-Indies, is the higheſt luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peaſant; but it is very unpalatable and diſagreeable to the Europeans.

The ſame barbarous magnificence, deſpotiſm, ignorance, and idolatry, prevail here as throughout the reſt of the peninſula.

Their capital, Cambodia, which is the only city here worth notice, is ſituated on the river Mecon, about 100 miles from the bar. It is built on a riſing ground, in order to avoid the annual overflowings of the river, and principally conſiſts of one large ſtreet. About the centre of it is a palace for the reſidence of the prince; it is a very inſignificant edifice, ſurrounded by a kind of wall, with ramparts, on which are ſeveral pieces of artillery.

Between Cambodia and Cochin-China lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chineſe, and ſeem therefore to be ſomewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

We ſhall cloſe our deſcription of this peninſula, with ſome account of the kingdom of Tipra, or Tipoura, which is bounded by the empire of Ava, and part of China, to the ſouth and eaſt; by Independent Tartary, to the north; by Arracan, to the ſouth-weſt; and by Indoſtan, to the weſt. Lying under the tropic of Cancer, it is exceedingly hot, the air is nevertheleſs pure and ſalubrious; but the water is ſo bad, that it occaſions the throats of the inhabitants to ſwell to a prodigious ſize.

The ſovereign of this country is tributary to the king of Arracan: he exports gold and ſilver to China in ingots, and in return receives ſilver, which is coined into two ſpecies of currency, at 20d. and 22d. value each: gold is coined into aſpers, which are worth about 5s. apiece.

CHAP. XII.

INDIA WITHIN THE GANGES.

Extent, Boundaries, Climate, Seas, Bays, Inhabitants, Produce, &c.

THIS extenſive empire (including the peninſula weſt of the Ganges) is 2000 miles in length, and 1500 in breadth; ſituated between 7 and 40 deg. north lat. and 66 and 92 deg. eaſt long. and occupies a ſpace of 870,910 ſquare miles. Its boundaries are Uſbeck Tartary, and Thibet, on the north; Thibet and the Bay of Bengal on the eaſt; the Indian Ocean, on the ſouth; and the ſame ſea, with Perſia, on the weſt: the Mogul empire, or Indoſtan, properly ſo called, being the main land.

The north-eaſt diviſion of India contains the provinces of Bengal Proper, Naugracut, Jeſuar, Patna, Necbal, Gore, Rotas; whoſe chief towns and places are Calcutta, Fort William, Hugly, Decca, belonging to the Engliſh; Malda, Engliſh and Dutch; Chatigan, Caſſumbazar, Naugracut, Rajapour, Patna, Necbal, Gore, Rotas.

The north-weſt diviſion on the frontiers of Perſia, and on the river Indus, contains the provinces of Soret, Jeſſelmere, Tata, or Sinda, Bucknor, Moultan, Haican, Cabul; the chief towns of which are, Jaganal, Jeſſelmere, Tata, Bucknor, Moultan, Haican, Cabul.

The middle diviſion contains the provinces of Candiſh, Berar, Chitor, Ratipor, Navar, Gualeor, Agra, Delhi, Lahor, or Pencah, Hendowns, Caſſimere, Jengapour, Aſmer, or Bando; their chief towns are Medipour, Berar, Chitor, Ratipor, Navar, Gualeor, Agra, Delhi, Lahor, Hendowns, Caſſimere, Jengapour, Aſmer.

In this climate, the winds generally blow for ſix months from the ſouth, and ſix from the north. In April, May, and the beginning of June, the weather is exceſſively hot, but there are refreſhing ſea-breezes; and in ſome dry ſeaſons, the hurricanes, which tear up the ſands, and let them fall in dry ſhowers, are exceſſively diſagreeable. The Engliſh, and the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indoſtan, are commonly ſeized with ſome illneſs, ſuch as flux or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy, eſpecially if the patients are abſtemious.

Indoſtan is ſurrounded on three ſides by mountains. The moſt remarkable are thoſe of Caucaſus and Naugracut, which divide India from Perſia, Uſbeck Tartary, and Thibet, and are inhabited by Marattas, Afghans, or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos. The mountains of Balegaut, which run almoſt the whole length of India from north to ſouth, and cut the peninſula of India in two, are ſo high, that they ſtop the weſtern monſoon, the rains beginning ſooner on the Malabar coaſt, than on the coaſt of Coromandel. Theſe mountains are only paſſable in certain places, through which roads have been made for the ſake of commerce.

The moſt remarkable rivers are the Indus and the Ganges. The Indus is by the natives called Sinde, or Sindeh, and is formed of about ten principal ſtreams, which deſcend from the Perſian and Tartarian mountains on the north-eaſt and north-weſt.

From the city of Attock down to Moultan, it is commonly ſtyled the River Attock; below Moultan, it is often named the Soor, until it divides itſelf into many channels near Tatta, where the principal branch takes the name of Mehran. Beſides thoſe famous rivers, many others water this country, as the Behat, or Chelum, the Hydaſpes of Alexander, the Jenau, or the ancient Aceſines, or Beah, Setlege, Jumna, and the Rauvee, formerly the Hydraotes, on the ſouth bank of which ſtands the city of Laher.

The Gentoos are perſuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kiſtna, and Indus, have the ſacred virtue of purifying from all pollutions and ſins, thoſe who bathe in them. This religious idea ſeems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to reſtrain the natives from emigrating into diſtant countries; for it is remarkable, that the ſacred rivers are ſo ſituated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of waſhing away their ſins, as they ſuppoſe.

The Ganges, which riſes in the mountains of Thibet with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcund, Agra, Delhi, and Lahoſe, being a courſe of about 3000 miles.—The Kiſtna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Viſiapore into the interior parts of the Decan. And the Indus, bounding the Guzarat

zarat provinces, ſeparates Indoſtan from the Perſian dominions.

The ſeas, bays, and capes, are as follow: the Indian Ocean, the Bay of Bengal, Capes Comorin and Diu, the Gulf of Cambaya, the Streights of Ramanakael.

With reſpect to the inhabitants, as we have already made a general review of this great empire, it is therefore neceſſary only to add, to what was ſaid of their religion and ſects, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, practiſing the greateſt auſterities; but many of them are impoſtors. Their number is ſaid to be 800,000. Another ſet of mendicants are the joghis, who are idolaters, and are ſuppoſed to be twelve millions in number, but all of them vagabonds, and have been impoſtors, who live by amuſing the credulous Gentoos with fooliſh fictions. The Banians profeſs the Gentoo religion, or ſomewhat like it: they ſerve as brokers, and take their name from their affected innocence of life.

There are likewiſe the Perſees, or Parſes, of Indoſtan, who are originally the Gaurs: they are a moſt induſtrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be poſſeſſed of the works of Zoroaſter, whom they call by various names, and which ſome of the Europeans ſuppoſe contain many particulars that would throw ſome light upon ancient hiſtory, both ſacred and profane. Though this opinion may be countenanced by the few parcels of thoſe books that have appeared in the world; nevertheleſs, ſome think that the whole is an impoſture, founded upon ſacred, traditional, and profane hiſtories, aided by religion. They are ſtyled worſhippers of fire, and are known as paying divine adoration to it; but, we are told, only as an emblem of the Divinity, and as his chief agent in the ſyſtem of the univerſe. They never, indeed, extinguiſh fire, but will ſtand for hours by their lamps, putting up their prayers to God, with folded hands, and their eyes turned towards heaven with great marks of devotion. They utter ejaculatory prayers all day long, and conſtantly mix buſineſs, and even common converſation, with devotion.

The Perſees have a ſuperſtitious veneration for cocks and dogs. They breed great numbers of dogs at their own houſes, and feed them regularly twice every day with rice and ghee. To all dogs, whether their own, or not, they are very hoſpitable. Whenever they ſee a dog, they preſently call him, and offer him food. If you walk abroad with a dog in any of their villages, you preſently hear the cry of Jo! Jo! at every turn, each ſtriving to be the firſt to entertain your dogs. Theſe animals are alſo ſacred in all the Turkiſh dominions.

The dogs on the iſland of Bombay, a few years ago, were many of them mad; whereupon an order was given by the governor, for killing all dogs without exception. When this order was known, the Perſees were greatly alarmed, met together, and entered into a ſolemn league and covenant in defence of their dogs, threatening to protect their lives at the riſque of their own. It was therefore thought prudent not to inſiſt on the execution of the decree that had been iſſued againſt thoſe faithful and affectionate domeſtics, but to ſuffer them to live.

Hunting with the bow, as well as the gun, is a common diverſion among the nobility and people of rank, who often train up leopards to the ſports of the field. Like other people in hot countries, they affect ſhady walks and cool fountains. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous muſic, both from wind and ſtringed inſtruments, and play at cards in their private parties.

Their houſes make no appearance, and thoſe of the commonalty are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them ſubject to fire; but the manufacturers chuſe to work in the open air; and the inſides of houſes belonging to principal perſons are many of them magnificent, and in general neat, commodious, and pleaſant.

With reſpect to trade and manufactures, it appears, from the moſt authentic accounts, that the empire of Indoſtan, particularly the kingdom or province of Bengal, from the mildneſs of its climate, the fertility of its ſoil, and the natural induſtry of the Hindoos, has been always remarkable for its commerce. Every village has its canal, every town its river, and the whole kingdom of the Ganges, which falling by various mouths into the Bay of Bengal, opens a noble communication with the ocean, for exporting the produce and manufactures of this famous country.

While the houſe of Tamerlane filled the throne of Indoſtan, the balance of trade was greatly in favour of Bengal. Senſible of the advantages they themſelves derived from a free commercial intercourſe between their ſubjects, they were invariably the protectors of merchants. The military ideas which they brought from Tartary, prevented the military ſervants of the crown from engaging in trade; and therefore monopolies of every kind were diſcouraged, and almoſt unknown. No government in Europe was ever more ſevere againſt foreſtalling and regrating, than that of the moguls in India.—A ſmall duty was paid to the crown, but this was amply repaid by the noble ſecurity given to the merchant.

The commerce of the Engliſh, Dutch, French, Danes, and Portugueſe, was principally carried on with bullion: and it appears from a very moderate computation, that no leſs than 917,500l. ſterling, in bullion, were thrown annually into that kingdom by the Europeans only. The exports of Bengal to the gulphs of Perſia and Arabia were very great, and brought home annually in gold into her coffers 375,000l. Her trade in opium and piece-goods to the peninſula beyond the Ganges, to the Malayan and Phillippine-Iſlands, brought yearly a ballance in her favour of 150,000l. The inland trade of Bengal, with the upper provinces of Indoſtan and Aſſam 250,000l. And the coaſting trade with the coaſts of Coromandel and Malabar, 160,000l. So that the annual balance of trade in favour of Bengal, was 1,852,500l. ſterling. Out of which take 1,250,000l. remitted annually to Delhi, and there remains 602,500l. yearly acquiſition. Bengal was at that period one of the richeſt, moſt populous, and beſt cultivated kingdoms in the world; but the troubles and civil wars which ſucceeded, have been attended with the moſt tragical events. The country has been depopulated, diſtreſs of every kind has ſucceeded to plenty and eaſe. Many of the principal cities have been rendered deſolate, the moſt fertile fields laid waſte, and near five millions of harmleſs and induſtrious people either expelled or deſtroyed. Theſe dreadful diſaſters have greatly impoveriſhed this once flouriſhing country, now become ſo highly intereſting to the ſubjects of Great Britain.

The Mahometan merchants in India carry on a great trade with Mecca, in Arabia, from the weſtern parts of this empire, up the Red Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular ſpecies of veſſels, called junks, the largeſt of which, we are told, beſides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahometan pilgrims to viſit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca, they meet with Abyſſian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they diſpoſe of their cargoes for gold and ſilver: ſo that a Mahometan junk is often worth 200,000l. on his return from his voyage.

Before we enter upon a deſcription of the provinces and cities of Indoſtan, it may be proper to obſerve, that the Britiſh nation poſſeſſes in full ſovereignty, the whole ſoubah of Bengal, and the greateſt part of Bahar. In Oriſſa, or Orixa, only the diſtricts of Midnapour. The whole poſſeſſions contain about

150,000 ſquare miles, and ten millions of inhabitants. With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy the whole navigable courſe of the Ganges, from its entry on the plains to the ſea, which is more than 1350 miles.

The only places worth mentioning, in the midland provinces of Indoſtan, are Agra and Delhi.

Agra is the capital of the province of that name; it was founded in the year 1566, by Eckbar, who called it Eckbarabat, and made it the metropolis of his empire. It is ſituated in 26 degrees north latitude, and in 79 degrees eaſt longitude from London: it lies on the river Gemma, about 700 miles north-eaſt of Surat, a journey which the caravans generally perform in nine weeks, and about 500 leagues north of Pondicherry, on the Coromandel coaſt. This is the greateſt city in all the Indies, containing forty large towns, and 340 villages. It ſtands in the middle of a ſandy plain, which greatly adds to the heat of the climate; it is about eight miles long, but not near ſo broad; and no part is fortified but the palace; there are, however, generally a great number of ſoldiers here.

The houſes are ſo ſituated, as to command an agreeable proſpect of the river, and, according to Tavernier, are at ſome diſtance from each other encompaſſed by lofty walls. The buildings of the omrahs and other great men are of ſtone, and elegantly conſtructed. The great numbers of moſques, caravanſeras, ſquares, baths, and reſervoirs, intermixed with gardens, trees, and flowers, render this place extremely pleaſant; and the royal palace is a magnificent ſtructure, ſituated in the form of a creſcent on the banks of the river, defended by a lofty ſtone wall mounted with cannon, and encompaſſed by a broad moat, acroſs which are draw-bridges; and there is a terrace garden cut through, with canals of running water, mixed with verdant plats and ſummer-houſes, forming a moſt pleaſing ſcene. The palace is divided from the city by a large noble ſquare, where the rajahs alternately mount guard at the two outer gates, facing the principal ſtreets of the city. On entering the firſt gate of the palace, a fine ſtone walk preſents itſelf, with canals on each ſide of it; and further on is ſeen a ſpacious ſquare, in which the omrahs aſſemble, and the Mahometan guards are muſtered. Still further on, the eye is preſented with another grand ſquare or court, which leads to the Durbar (another ſpacious court) originally the place of reſort for perſons who had audience of the emperor; during which interval a band of muſic always played, while the imperial monarch ſat on a throne of jewels.

In 1638, this city had no leſs than 70 moſques.—There are 800 purifying baths in it; and near it ſtands that grand piece of architecture the mauſoleum, which 20,000 men were twenty-two years in building. The Dutch have a factory here, but not the Engliſh.

Dehli, or Delhi, capital of the province of Dehli, ſituated in the heart of the empire, is in 78 degrees eaſt longitude from London, and in 26 degrees north latitude: it ſtands in the form of a creſcent on the river Gemma, which divides it; and it is diſtinguiſhed into three towns, lying within about 120 miles north of Agra, in a fine plentiful country, where the air is more cool and ſalubrious than at Agra.—The firſt town that was built, is ſaid to have had nine caſtles and fifty-two gates. At ſome diſtance is a ſtone bridge, and a delightful plantation of trees, leading to the ſecond town, which was taken from the Indians by the firſt Mogul conqueror, who afterwards demoliſhed it.

The city of Dehli is entered by a long ſtreet, with arches on each ſide of it, under which are the ſhops of the tradeſmen. This ſtreet leads directly to the palace. at the entrance of which are a couple of elephantic figures, on whoſe backs ride two famous rajahs, repreſentatives of two brothers, who loſt their lives in bravely defending certain towns laid ſiege to by Eckbar. The palace wall, which is of hewn ſtone, with battlements, and every tenth battlement having a tower, is not much leſs than two miles in circumference. The ditches encompaſſing the wall are full of water, and are likewiſe faced with hewn ſtone.

The houſes of the great, which are on the banks of the river, or in the ſuburbs, are ſpacious and airy, having large courts, cellars, gardens, groves, ponds, fountains, and enormous fans on each ſide, for cooling the air. The poorer ſort live in houſes built with clay, and thatched, which have convenient courts and gardens.

Here is a market for all ſorts of green and dry fruits, which are brought from Perſia and other countries; but they are in general exceeding dear; melons, in particular, have been ſold from 6s. to 8s. each.

In this city there are ſcarce any mechanics, not from want of ſkill in the people, but from the ill treatment of the omrahs, who, if they can meet with them, oblige them to work, and reward them according to their own diſcretion.

Tatta, the capital of the province of Sinda, is ſituated in a fine plain: it is about three miles in length, and about one and a half in breadth. Here is a palace for the nabob, and alſo a citadel. This city is famous for the manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repoſe when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a day; ten being generally hired, who uſually carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at firſt coſt, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten ſhillings a month each, out of which they maintain themſelves.

The citadel in Tatta, which ſtands at the weſt end of the town, has barracks and ſtables, capable of accommodating between 20 and 30,000 men and horſe. The Indus at Tatta is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Moultan is not a very fruitful province, yet it yields excellent iron and canes. Its capital is not very large, nor does it carry on any conſiderable trade, but is famous for the excellent bows made there, and its nimble dancers. It is, by the courſe of the river, about 800 miles from the ſea. The inhabitants, by their ſituation, are enabled to deal with the Perſians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horſes.

The province of Caſſimere is entirely ſurrounded by mountains, excepting two or three narrow paſſages, which conduct the traveller into its delightful plains. It is ſaid to contain an hundred thouſand villages ſtored with cattle and game, without any beaſts of prey; and the capital, which is called by ſome Caſſimere, and by others Sirenaker, is a very large city. It is ſituated near a fine lake, and ſo delightfully diverſified with canals and gardens, that the moguls give it the appellation of the Paradiſe of the Indies. The inhabitants, particularly the women, are as fair as the Europeans. They are celebrated for their wit and dexterity, and are exceeding ingenious in making curious toys, which they ſell in every part of the Indies. They likewiſe carry on a curious manufacture of ſhawls, which are made either of the wool of the country, being finer than that of Spain, or of hair, finer than beaver, taken from a wild goat, in Great Thibet. They are very light and warm, for which reaſon the Indians wear them round their heads in the winter.

Lahor is one of the largeſt and moſt fruitful provinces in the Indies, being well watered, and abounding in rice, corn, fruits, good wine, and the beſt ſugars in all Indoſtan. The capital alſo, called Lahor, was once no leſs than three leagues in length, but is now greatly decayed. The inhabitants carry on ſeveral manufactures, and all thoſe of India flouriſh in the different towns of this province.

The province of Aſmer, which lies ſouth-weſt of Dehli, and weſt of Agra, is divided into three leſſer provinces or diſtricts, called Bando, Jeſſelmere, and Soret. The capital city is Aſmer, which is tolerably large, and carries on a great trade in ſalt-petre. Pilgrims from all parts of India reſort to this city, in order to pay their devotions at the tomb of Khoja Mondi, a Mahometan ſaint.

The province of Kabul, or Kabuleſtan, is remarkable only for its productions of drugs, canes, and iron. In the two laſt articles a conſiderable trade is carried on with the Perſians and Tartars, who barter their horſes for them. This province, beſides Kabul, its capital, which is very large, contains a number of ſmall cities, towns, and villages.

Patna, ſituated in the Upper Ganges, is thought the moſt famous province in the univerſe for the cultivation of opium, but it is far inferior in ſtrength to that made in Syria and Perſia. The capital, of the ſame name, is one of the largeſt cities in India. The Engliſh and Dutch have factories here.

The province or ſoubahſhip of Malva, lying to the weſt of Bengal, we know little of; Sindia and Halkar divide the largeſt part of it. The capital of the former is Ougein; and of Halkar, the city of Indoor. It is as fertile as the other provinces.

Candiſh includes the province of Berar and part of Orixa: its capital is Brampur, or Burhanpoor, a flouriſhing city, and it carries on a vaſt trade in chintzes, calicoes, and embroidered ſtuffs. Cattack is the capital of Orixa, and lies in the only road between Bengal and the northern circars, and belongs to the Berar, Rajah, Moodajee Booſla, whoſe dominions are very extenſive. Of the five northern circars, Cicacole, Rajamundry, Ellore, Condapilly, and Gunton, the latter is in the hands of the Nizam, the reſt are in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh.

The province of Bengal gives name to the moſt conſiderable gulf in Aſia, divides the two peninſulas of the Indies, and is perhaps, of all the Indian provinces, the moſt intereſting to an Engliſh reader. It is upwards of 240 leagues from eaſt to weſt: and its natural ſituation (as deſcribed by Major Rennels, late ſurveyor-general in Bengal) is ſingularly happy with reſpect to ſecurity from the attack of foreign enemies. On the north and eaſt, it hath no warlike neighbours, and hath moreover a formidable barrier of mountains, rivers, or extenſive waſtes, towards thoſe quarters, ſhould an enemy ſtart up. On the ſouth is a ſea-coaſt guarded by ſhallows and impenetrable woods, and with only one port, which is difficult of acceſs in an extent of 300 miles. An enemy can only be apprehended on the weſt; but there the natural barrier is ſtrong, and with its population and reſources, and the uſual proportion of Britiſh troops, Bengal might bid defiance to any part of Indoſtan which was inclined to become its enemy. It is eſtimated to be the ſtore-houſe of the Eaſt Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its ſoil conſiſts of rice, ſugar-canes, corn, ſeſamum, ſmall mulberry, and other trees: here is likewiſe an herb, from which very beautiful ſtuffs and tapeſtry are made. Its calicoes, ſilks, ſalt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world; and proviſions here are in vaſt plenty, and incredibly cheap, eſpecially pullets, ducks, and geeſe. The country is interſected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and extends near one hundred leagues on both ſides the river, being full of cities, towns, villages, and caſtles. The Engliſh company's forces eſtabliſhed in Bengal are very conſiderable. The power is inveſted in Europeans, though the bulk of the army conſiſts of natives.

The worſhip of the Gentoos, in its greateſt purity, is practiſed in Bengal; and their ſacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples. The women are ſaid to be laſcivious and enticing, notwithſtanding their religion.

Calcutta is the principal Engliſh factory in Bengal: it is called Fort-William, and ſituated on the river Hugly, the moſt weſterly branch of the Ganges. The fort itſelf is ſaid to be irregular, and untenable againſt diſciplined troops; but the ſervants of the company have provided themſelves with an excellent houſe, and moſt convenient apartments for their accommodation. As the town itſelf has been in fact for ſome time in poſſeſſion of the company, an Engliſh civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the company.

Afterwards, in 1773, an act of parliament was paſſed, to regulate the affairs of the Eaſt India Company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act, the governor-general and four counſellors were appointed, and choſen by the parliament, with whom was veſted the whole military and civil government of the preſidency of Fort-William; and the ordering, management, and government of all the terreſtrial acquiſitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, ſo long as the company ſhould be in poſſeſſion of them.

The governor-general and council, ſo appointed, are inveſted with the power of ſuperintending and controlling the government and management of the preſidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen: they are likewiſe to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correſpond with them: and are empowered to eſtabliſh a court of judicature at Fort-William, to conſiſt of a chief juſtice, and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his majeſty: theſe are to exerciſe all criminal, admiralty, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction; to be a court of record, and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory of Fort-William, and its limits; and the factories ſubordinate thereto.

But the eſtabliſhment of this ſupreme court does not appear to have promoted either the intereſts of the Eaſt-India Company, or the felicity of the people of country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners and cuſtoms of the people; acts of great oppreſſion and injuſtice have been committed, and the ſupreme court has been a ſource of great diſſatisfaction, diſorder, and confuſion.

In 1757, the ſoubah of Bengal, whoſe indignation had been raiſed by ſome procedures of the company, inveſted Calcutta, which was then in a defenceleſs ſtate. The governor, and ſome of the principal perſons of the places, alarmed at the appearance of a very numerous army, threw themſelves, with their chief effects, on board the ſhips in the river; they who remained, for ſome hours, defended the fort; but their ammunition being expended, they ſurrendered upon terms. The ſoubah, a capricious unfeeling tyrant, inſtead of obſerving the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief ſervant, and 145 Britiſh ſubjects, into a little but ſecure priſon, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet ſquare, and ſhut up from all communication of free air. Their miſeries, during the night, were inexpreſſible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the reſt dying of ſuffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible frenzy, in conſequence of fevers, and an exceſſive thirſt occaſioned by the violent heat of the place. Among thoſe who ſurvived was Mr. Holwell himſelf, who tranſmitted to the company a moſt affecting account of the cataſtrophe.

The inſenſible Nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had rooted the Engliſh out of his dominions; but the ſeaſonable arrival of admiral Watſon, and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with ſome difficulty, in poſſeſſion of the place; and the war was ſoon concluded by the battle of Plaſſy, gained by the colonel, and

*

and the death of the Nabob Sura, Dowlaja, in whoſe place Mhir Jeffeir, one of his generals, and who had previouſly ſigned a ſecret treaty with Clive to deſert his maſter and amply reward the Engliſh, was advanced to the ſoubahſhip. After the unfortunate Mr. Holwell and his friends had obtained their diſcharge, they took boat, and arrived at Corcemadad, a Dutch ſettlement, whence they embarked and ſailed for England.

The Nabob of Bengal keeps his court at Muxadabad, or Moorſhedabad: Benares lying in the ſame province, is the Gentoo univerſity, and celebrated for its ſanctity. This zemindary, which includes alſo the circars of Gazypeur and Chunar, conſtituted a part of the dominions of Oude till 1744, when its tribute or quit-rent of twenty-four lacks, was transferred to the Engliſh.

The principal place poſſeſſed by the French in Bengal is Chandernagore, which lies higher up the river than Calcutta: but though ſtrongly fortified, furniſhed with a garriſon of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the Engliſh admirals Watſon and Pococke, and colonel Clive; and the ſame place was alſo obliged to ſurrender in the laſt war, but reſtored by the peace.

Hugly, which is fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richeſt of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well-fortified factory, erected in an open place, at a ſmall diſtance from the river.—The ſearch for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hugly, for about fifty miles further.

Dacca is ſaid to be the largeſt city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an Engliſh and a Dutch factory. The town is ſituated in 24 deg. north lat. the ſoil is fertile, the ſituation fine, and the richeſt commodities of India and Europe are brought to its market. It receives conſiderable advantages from its cottons, from which are produced ſtriped and worked muſlins, more valuable in their texture than thoſe made in any other parts of India. The beſt and fineſt embroideries in gold, ſilver, or ſilk, are manufactured here.

The other chief towns are Caſſumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagua, and Maldo; beſides a number of other places of leſs note, but all of them abounding in the manufactures of India.

The provinces deſcribed above, are thoſe which belong to the mogul's empire to the north of the peninſula within the Ganges. In our account of the peninſula itſelf, we ſhall take notice of the provinces that lie to the ſouthward.

HISTORY OF INDIA.

The famous Alexander of Macedon was the firſt invader, worthy to be noticed, of this extenſive and fruitful country. Where the fortreſs of Rotus now ſtands, on the banks of the Behat, he is ſuppoſed to have put in execution his ſtratagem for croſſing the river, whilſt the oppoſite ſhore was poſſeſſed by Porus, whom Alexander defeated, but afterwards reſtored to him his dominions, as a reward for his bravery in defending them. Zinghis Khan alſo directed his force there in 1221, and obliged the emperor to forſake his capital. The ſeat of government was indeed often changed, either by neceſſity or choice, as from Gaza to Delhi, to Lahor, Agra, and Canaſe. This laſt place was in the reign of Porus, and for ages, the capital of Indoſtan, but is now reduced to a middling town, though the ruins are of great extent: it is ſuppoſed to be the Palibrotha of the ancients. In the ſixth century it contained 30,000 ſhops, in which betle-nut was ſold, and there were alſo 60,000 bands of muſicians and ſingers, who paid a tax to government.

Tamerlane the Great was the next conqueror of India: he croſſed the Indus nearly at the ſame place with Alexander. But Mahometan princes had entered, made conqueſts, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in this country, long before Tamerlane. Valid the ſixth of the Caliphs, named Ommiades, who aſcended the throne in the 708th year of the Chriſtian æra, and in the 90th of the Hegira, made conqueſts in India; by which means the Koran was introduced here very early. Mahmoud, ſon of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazra, the capital of a province ſeparated by mountains from the north-weſt parts of India, and ſituated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the ſword into Indoſtan in the year 1000 or 1002 of the Chriſtian æra. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treaſures, demoliſhing temples, and murdering idolaters throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Indoſtan is repreſented to be immenſe.

The ſucceſſors of Mahmoud are called the dynaſty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themſelves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India, till the year 1155, or 1157, when Coſron Schah, the thirteenth and laſt prince of the Garnavide race, was depoſed by Kuſſain Gauri, who founded the dynaſty of the Gaurides, which furniſhed five princes, who poſſeſſed nearly the ſame countries as the Gaznavides, their predeceſſors.

Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predeceſſor Gaiatheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treaſures. But an Indian, who had been rendered deſperate by the pollutions and inſults to which he ſaw his gods and temples expoſed, made a vow to aſſaſſinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finiſhed in the year 1212, in the perſon of Mahmoud, ſucceſſor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was alſo cut off by the ſwords of aſſaſſins.

Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, who made his appearance in India at the end of the year 1398, deſcending more terrible than all its former inundations, from the centre of the northern part of the Indian Caucaſus. This invincible barbarian, ſecuring the northern provinces to himſelf, met with no reſiſtance ſufficient to juſtify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But after an immenſe ſlaughter of human victims, he at length rendered himſelf maſter, on uniting his conqueſts of the vaſt tract of territory from the coaſt of Smyrna to the borders of the Ganges. The hiſtory of Tamerlane's ſucceſſors, who reigned over Indoſtan, with little interruption, more than 350 years, has been variouſly repreſented; but all agree in the main, that they were powerful and deſpotic princes, reigned very magnificently, and committed their provinces to rapacious governors, or to their own ſons, whereby their empire was often miſerably torn in pieces.

It is highly worthy of remark, that the provinces of Indoſtan have ſeldom continued under one head during a period of twenty years, from the earlieſt hiſtory down to the reign of Akbar, who died in the year 1605, amidſt the tears of his ſubjects, who loved him as their father, admired him as their leader, and reverenced him as their prince. Bold, manly, and enterpriſing, he was an enemy to oppreſſion; and he hated cruelty, as he was a ſtranger to fear. This great prince took from his officers the power of oppreſſing the people. Severe in his juſtice, he never forgave extortion. He encouraged trade by the invariable protection given to merchants of all nations; regarding neither the religious opinions, nor the countries of men; all who entered his dominions

nions were his ſubjects, and they had a right to his juſtice.

In proceſs of time, Bengal, Guzarat, and other provinces, became independent, and ſometimes the empire of Indoſtan was confined within the proper limits of the province itſelf: ſo that the hiſtory of it furniſhes an excellent leſſon to princes, not to graſp at too much dominion; and to mankind, to circumſcribe the ambitious deſigns and undertakings of their rulers. Theſe obſervations will appear the more juſt, if we conſider, that ſome parts of the empire were 1000 miles diſtant from the ſeat of government: the Engliſh conqueſts in India met thoſe of Tamerlane in a point equidiſtant from the mouths of the Ganges and Indus, in the year 1744, for they cloſed their campaign that year at Saldong, 1100 miles from Calcutta.

The famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngeſt among many ſons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering his father, brothers, and nephews, mounted the throne of Indoſtan, and may be conſidered as the real founder and legiſlator of the Mogul empire. He was a great and politic prince, and the firſt who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the Peninſula within the Ganges, at preſent ſo well known to the Engliſh. He lived ſo late as the year 1707, and died in the 49th year of his reign, and 90th of his age. It is ſaid that ſome of his great officers of ſtate were alive in the year 1750.

From what has been already ſaid of this empire, Aurengzebe ſeems to have left too much power to the governors of his diſtant provinces, and to have been at no pains in preventing the effects of that dreadful deſpotiſm, which, while in his hands, preſerved the tranquillity of his empire; but when it devolved to his weak, indolent ſucceſſors, occaſioned its overthrow. Four of his grandſons, in 1713, diſputed the empire, which, after a bloody ſtruggle, fell to the eldeſt,

Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a ſlave to his pleaſures, and was governed by his miſtreſs ſo abſolutely, that his great omrahs conſpired againſt him, and raiſed to the throne one of his nephews, who ſtruck off his uncle's head.

Furrukhſir, the new emperor, was governed and at laſt enſlaved by two brothers of the name of Leyd, who abuſed his power ſo groſsly, that being afraid to puniſh them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately aſſaſſinated. They diſcovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, whom they alſo impriſoned, and afterwards ſtrangled.

The two brothers, after the death of Ferrukhſir, raiſed to the throne a grandſon of Aurengzebe, by his daughter. The young emperor, who was only ſeventeen years of age, proving diſagreeable to them, they inveſted with the ſovereignty his elder brother, who took the title of

Shah Jehan. On his acceſſion, the rajahs of Indoſtan, whoſe anceſtors had entered into ſtipulations, or what may be called "pacta conventa," when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field againſt the two brothers; but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in peaceable poſſeſſion of the empire, but died in 1719. He was ſucceeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of

Mahommed Shah. This monarch entered into private meaſures with his great rajahs for deſtroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nizamal Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals.—Nizam, it is ſaid, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himſelf, againſt the brothers, and to proclaim himſelf ſoubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was aſſaſſinated by the emperor's order, and who immediately advanced to Delhi, to deſtroy the other brother; but he no ſooner underſtood what had happened, than he proclaimed the Sultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle enſued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is ſaid to have uſed his conqueſt with great moderation, for he committed Ibrahim to the priſon from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewiſe a priſoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took poſſeſſion of his vaſt riches. Seyd did not long ſurvive his confinement; and, upon his death, the emperor abandoned himſelf to the ſame courſe of pleaſures that had been ſo fatal to his predeceſſors.

As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed againſt the Marattas, whom he defeated, when they had almoſt made themſelves maſters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his ſoubahſhip, and was conſidered as the firſt ſubject in the empire. Authors, however, are not agreed as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwiſe Kouli Khan, the Perſian monarch, to invade Indoſtan. It is thought that he had intelligence of a ſtrong party formed againſt him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have ſucceſs, and at firſt wanted to make himſelf uſeful by oppoſing him. The ſucceſs of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immenſe treaſure which he carried from Indoſtan in 1739. Beſides theſe treaſures, he obliged the mogul to ſurrender to him all the lands to the weſt of the rivers Attoch and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyſhor, Cabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almoſt equal in value to the crown of Perſia itſelf. This invaſion coſt the Gentoos 200,000 lives.

The plunder made by Nadir Shah is by ſome accounts, and thoſe ſtrongly authenticated, made to amount to the incredible ſum of two hundred and thirty-one millions ſterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of thoſe times. The moſt moderate ſay, that Nadir's own ſhare amounted to conſiderably above ſeventy millions. Be that as it will, the invaſion of Nadir Shah may be conſidered as putting a period to the greatneſs of the Mogul empire in the houſe of Tamerlane.

When Nadir Shah had raiſed all the money he could in Delhi, he reinſtated the mogul, Mohammed Shah, in the ſovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces ſoon after enſued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-weſt of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being aſſaſſinated in 1747, Achmet Abdalla, his treaſurer, an unprincipled man, but poſſeſſed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general confuſion occaſioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himſelf at the head of an army, and march againſt Delhi with 50,000 horſe. Thus was the wealth drawn from Delhi made the means of continuing thoſe miſeries of war which it had at firſt ſubjected them to. In this extremity, Prince Ahmed Shah, the mogul's eldeſt ſon, and the vizier, with other leading men, took the field, with 80,000 horſe, to oppoſe the invader. The war was carried on with various ſucceſs, and Mohammed Shah died before its termination. His ſon, Ahmed Shah then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which Kandahar is the capital, and the Indus is the general boundary to the eaſt.

Before the invaſion of Nadir Shah, the Marattas, a warlike nation, poſſeſſing the ſouth-weſtern peninſula of India, had exacted a chart or tribute from the empire, ariſing out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being with-held, in conſequence of the enfeebled ſtate of the empire, the Marattas became clamorous.

†

clamorous. The kingdom began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to jaghires and to diſtricts. The country was diſtracted by civil wars, and groaned under every ſpecies of domeſtic confuſion.

Ahmed Shah reigned only ſeven years, after which much greater diſſenſions and diſturbances prevailed in this country; whereby the people were involved in great calamities. After this, the imperial dignity of Indoſtan was veſted in Shah Allum, or Zadah, who is univerſally acknowledged to be a real deſcendant from the Tamerlane race. A perpetual commiſſion for the office of receiver-general of the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, was obtained from him for the company. In conſideration of this imperial mandate, which conferred the government of Bengal for ever on the company, Shah Allum was to receive an annual penſion of 325,000l. The annuity was moderate to the lineal ſucceſſor of Tamerlane. He was at the ſame time guaranteed in the poſſeſſion of the province of Allahabad; and thus a kind of proviſion was made for a prince who retained nothing of what belonged to his illuſtrious anceſtors, but the empty title of emperor of Indoſtan, ſince he depends upon the protection of the Engliſh, whoſe intereſt it is to ſupport him.

We ſhall now conclude the hiſtory of Indoſtan with ſome account of the Britiſh tranſactions in that part of the world, ſince 1765, when they were quietly ſettled in the poſſeſſion of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, not indeed as abſolute ſovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This ſtate of tranquillity, however, did not long continue, for in 1767, they found themſelves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ally, the ſovereign of Myſore.—This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the French camp; and in the year 1753, had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in their ſervice. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the army of Myſore, he depoſed his ſovereign, and uſurped the ſupreme authority, under the title of regent. In a ſhort time he extended his dominions on all ſides, except the Carnatic, until at laſt his dominions equalled the iſland of Great Britain in extent, with a revenue of not leſs than four millions ſterling annually. The diſcords which took place in various parts of Indoſtan, particularly among the Marattas, enabled him to aggrandiſe himſelf in ſuch a manner, that his power ſoon became formidable to his neighbours; and in 1767, he found himſelf in danger of being attacked on one ſide by the Marattas, and on the other by the Britiſh. The former were bought off with a ſum of money, and the latter were in conſequence obliged to retire. Having ſoon, however, aſſembled all their forces, ſeveral obſtinate engagements took place; and the Britiſh now, for the firſt time, found a ſteady oppoſition from an Indian prince. The war continued with various ſucceſs during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a ſtrong detachment of his army, paſſing by that of the Britiſh, advanced within a little diſtance of Madras, where he intimidated the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly loſt by an unfortunate war with the Marattas, from whom, in the year 1771, he received a moſt dreadful defeat, almoſt his whole army being killed or taken. Hyder was now reduced to the neceſſity of allowing his enemies to deſolate the country, till they retired of their own accord; after which he retrieved his affairs with incredible perſeverance and diligence, ſo that in a few years he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Marattas made ſome attempts to get poſſeſſion of the provinces of Corah, and ſome others, but were oppoſed by the Britiſh; who, next year, defeated and drove them acroſs the river Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occaſion the latter had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowla, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promiſed to pay forty lacks of rupees for the protection afforded them; but when the money came to be paid, it was, under various pretences, refuſed; the conſequence of which was, that the Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the Britiſh, as well as ſeveral other large tracts of territory; by which means the boundary of Oude was advanced, to the weſtward, within twenty-five miles of Agra; north-weſtward to the upper part of the navigable courſe of the Ganges; and ſouth-weſtward to the Jumna river.

In 1778, a new war commenced with the Marattas; on which occaſion a brigade, conſiſting of 7000 Indian troops, commanded by Britiſh officers, traverſed the whole empire of the Marattas, from the river Jumna to the weſtern ocean. About this time the war with France broke out, and Hyder Ally, probably expecting aſſiſtance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men. For ſome time he carried every thing before him; and having the good fortune to defeat, or rather deſtroy, a detachment of the Britiſh army, under colonel Baillie, it was generally imagined that the power of Britain in that part of the world would have ſoon been annihilated. By the happy exertions of ſir Eyre Coote, however, to whom the management of affairs was now committed, the progreſs of this formidable adverſary was ſtopped, and he ſoon became weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expence to himſelf, without any reaſonable proſpect of ſucceſs. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder Ally was ſincerely deſirous of peace, but died before it could be brought to a concluſion; and his rival, ſir Eyre Coote, did not ſurvive him above five months: a very remarkable circumſtance, that the commanders in chief of two armies, oppoſed to each other, ſhould both die natural deaths within ſo ſhort a ſpace of time.

To Hyder Ally ſucceeded his ſon, Tippoo Sultan, whoſe military proweſs is well known. Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo was the moſt formidable to the Britiſh government, and the moſt hoſtile to its authority. The peace of Mangalore, in 1784, had, it was ſuppoſed, ſecured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the ſplendid embaſſy which, not long after that event, he diſpatched to France, afforded much reaſon to apprehend that ſome plan was concerted between the old government of that country and the tyrant of Myſore, for the annoyance of Great Britain in its Indian poſſeſſions; but this plan was happily defeated by the French revolution.

The increaſing power of Tippoo was not leſs formidable to the Dutch than to the Engliſh; and the vicinity of Cochin, their moſt flouriſhing ſettlement on the continent of India, to the territories of that aſpiring monarch, made them tremble for its ſafety. That ſagacious people, however, have ſeldom been without their reſources. Beſides Cochin, the Dutch were poſſeſſed of two other forts, which were ſituated between Myſore and their favourite ſettlement; and one of them, Cranganore, had been taken by Hyder Ally in 1779, or 1780. When the war broke out in 1780 between Hyder and the Engliſh, he was obliged to evacuate his garriſons on the Malabar coaſt, to employ his force in the Carnatic; and Holland and France being ſoon after united with Hyder againſt the Engliſh, the Dutch embraced the opportunity of clandeſtinely taking poſſeſſion, and re-garriſoning the fort: a meaſure which greatly offended Hyder, and of which he loudly complained. By the mediation, however, of France, a compromiſe took place, but upon what terms is uncertain.

From the vicinity of Cranganore and Acottah to his boundary, and their ſituation within the territory of an acknowledged tributary to Myſore (the rajah of Cochin), the poſſeſſion of them was a moſt deſirable object with Tippoo. In the month of June, 1789, he

he marched a formidable force towards Cranganore, with a profeſſed intention of making himſelf maſter of it, upon a claim chiefly founded upon the tranſactions we have juſt related. Unable therefore to retain the poſſeſſion of the fort themſelves, and fearing for a ſettlement of much ſuperior value, the Dutch readily entered into a negotiation with the rajah of Travancore for the purchaſe of them. That politic people eaſily ſaw, that by placing them in his hands, they erected a moſt powerful barrier, no leſs than the whole force of Great Britain (who was bound by treaty to aſſiſt him), againſt the encroachments of their ambitious neighbour upon their ſettlement at Cochin. The imprudence of the rajah, in entering upon ſuch a purchaſe while the title was diſputed, drew down upon him the heavieſt cenſures from the government of Madras; and he was repeatedly cautioned both by ſir Archibald Campbell, and Mr. Holland, his ſucceſſor in the government, not to proceed in the negotiation. Such, however, was the ardour and temerity of the rajah in making this acquiſition, that he not only concluded the purchaſe with the Dutch, but even treated with the rajah of Cochin, without the privity of Tippoo, though he was the acknowledged tributary of that prince, for ſome adjacent territory. The bargain was concluded in July 1789, though it was not till the 4th of Auguſt that the rajah informed the Madras government, through their reſident Mr. Powney, that he was on the point of making the purchaſe.

It was not probable that Tippoo would remain an indifferent ſpectator of theſe tranſactions. He inſiſted on the claim which he retained over theſe forts, in conſequence of their being conquered by his father, and in conſequence of the ſubſequent compromiſe. He aſſerted, that, according to the feudal laws, no transfer of them could take place without his conſent, as ſovereign of Myſore; and on the 29th of December, he made with a conſiderable force a direct attack upon the lines of Travancore. On receiving a remonſtrance from the Britiſh government of Fort St. George, he deſiſted, and even apologiſed. From the 29th of December to the 1ſt of March, Tippoo Sultan remained perfectly quiet, ſtill aſſerting his claims to the feudal ſovereignty of the forts; but, it is confidently affirmed, offering to ſubmit the diſpute to an impartial arbitration.

On the 1ſt of March, 1790, the rajah's troops made an offenſive attack upon Tippoo, who had continued quiet within his lines from the 29th of December. An engagement took place; and the Britiſh government conceived themſelves bound to take an active part. No period appeared more favourable to humble Tippoo, if that was the object of the Britiſh adminiſtration. With all the other powers of India we were not only at peace, but treaties of alliance exiſted between Great Britain and the two moſt powerful ſtates of India, the Nizam and the Marattas; and both declared themſelves in perfect readineſs to exert their utmoſt force to cruſh the riſing power of Myſore.

We ſhall here preſent the reader with a brief account of the progreſs and termination of this war, by which the Britiſh power was more than ever eſtabliſhed on the continent of Aſia, from a narrative drawn up by major Dirom, from journals and authentic documents.

It ſhould be remembered, that the campaign here recorded was the third of our war with Tippoo Sultan. The firſt commenced in June, 1790, and concluded with that year. It was confined below the Ghauts. The ſecond campaign contained the capture of Bangalore, which fixed the ſeat of war in the enemy's country, and concluded with the retreat of lord Cornwallis from Seringapatam, towards the end of May 1791. The third commences almoſt from that point, and terminates in March 1792. Obſerving, however, as the author very properly ſtates, that, in the fine climate of Myſore, campaigns are regulated rather by plans of operations, than by ſeaſons.

The narrative commences with unfavourable circumſtances; the retreat of the two armies under general Abercromby and lord Cornwallis; the loſs of cannon in both; an epidemic diſtemper among the cattle; and a dreadful ſcarcity of grain. Theſe evils, however, vaniſhed by degrees; the junction of the Marattas afforded a ſupply of neceſſaries, and arrangements were made for obtaining in future the moſt ample and regular proviſion of bullocks and grain, and for replacing the battering guns. On the return of the army to the vicinity of Bangalore, the operations began, which were to ſecure the communication with the Carnatic, and reduce the power of the enemy in thoſe parts. The Britiſh force was immediately and ſucceſsfully employed to reduce Ouſſoor, Rayacotta, and the other hill forts commanding the Policode paſs. The next object was the forts to the north-eaſt of Bangalore, which interrupted the communication with the Nizam's army, and with the Carnatic, by that route. Theſe being ſoon reduced, Nundydroog, built on the ſummit of a mountain, about one thouſand ſeven hundred feet in height, a place of greater magnitude and ſtrength, was attacked, and after being beſieged from September 22, was carried by aſſault, on the 18th of October, in ſpite of obſtacles which might reaſonably have been deemed inſurmountable.

By means of diſpoſitions made for that purpoſe, ſupplies of all kinds now came in from the Carnatic. Penagra was taken at the end of October; and Kiſtdagheri attacked on the 7th of November; this was almoſt the only enterpriſe that was not completely ſucceſsful; the lower fort and pettah were taken; but the upper fort maintained its defence, and the attack was relinquiſhed. It ſeems that it could only have been carried by a *coup de main*, which unluckily failed. On the 2d of the ſame month, another inſtance of ill ſucceſs happened to us; the relief of Coimbetore having been prevented, that garriſon was obliged to capitulate to Cummer-ud-Deen Cawn, on terms which Tippoo did not afterwards fulfil.

Savendroog, or the Rock of Death, bore witneſs, in the month of December, to the ardour and perſeverance of the Britiſh troops. This fortreſs, ſtanding in the way between Bangalore and Seringapatam, is thus deſcribed: It is "a vaſt mountain of rock, and is reckoned to riſe above half a mile in perpendicular height, from a baſe of eight or ten miles in circumference. Embraced by walls on every ſide, and defended by croſs walls and barriers, wherever it was deemed acceſſible: this huge mountain had the farther advantage of being divided above by a chaſm which ſeparates the upper part into two hills, which, having each their defences, form two citadels capable of being maintained, independent of the lower works; and, affording a ſecure retreat, ſhould encourage the garriſon to hold out to the laſt extremity." It is no leſs famed for its noxious atmoſphere, occaſioned by the ſurrounding hills and woods, than for its wonderful ſize and ſtrength. Hence it derives its formidable name.

The ſultan is ſaid to have flattered himſelf, that before this place "half the Europeans would die of ſickneſs, the other half be killed in the attack;" he was, however, miſtaken. The garriſon, fortunately for us, truſted more to the ſtrength of the place than to their own exertions, and, on the 21ſt of December, only the eleventh day of the ſiege, this fortreſs, hitherto deemed impregnable, was taken by aſſault in leſs than an hour, in open day, without the loſs of a man, only one private ſoldier having been wounded.

Outredroog, and other forts, fell ſucceſſively after this brilliant ſucceſs. The forces of the allies were not equally fortunate during the ſame interval. The army of the Nizam, after a long ſiege of Gurramcondah,

condah, drew off to join our forces, and only left the place blockaded. To make amends for this failure, the Maratta army, under Purſeram Bhow, aſſiſted by our engineers, took Hooly Onore, Bankapoor, Simoga, and other places. By the latter end of January, 1792, the whole allied force, excepting the Bombay army, was aſſembled in the vicinity of Hooleadroog.

We come now to the operations againſt Seringapatam. On the 1ſt of February, 1792, the allies began their march, and by two o'clock on the 5th, were encamped acroſs the valley of Milgotah, only ſix miles from the poſition of Tippoo before Seringapatam. It could not well be expected by the ſultan that he ſhould receive ſo early an attack as lord Cornwallis deſtined for him. His camp was ſtrongly ſituated and fortified by a bound hedge, and ſeveral redoubts. Nevertheleſs, after cauſing his poſition to be reconnoitred in the morning of the 6th, the commander in chief iſſued orders for the attack that very evening. The army was to march at night in three diviſions, and without cannon. "The plan of attack," ſays major Dirom, "was indeed bold beyond the expectation of our army; but, like a diſcovery in ſcience, which excites admiration when diſcloſed, it had only to be known, to meet with general applauſe." The outlines of this great enterpriſe are generally known; the particulars cannot be detailed in this place, but are related with great clearneſs by the hiſtorian, and ſo illuſtrated by the attendant plans, that the circumſtances cannot be miſtaken.

The reſult of this operation was, that Tippoo was driven from his camp into Seringapatam, all his redoubts taken, and a lodgement eſtabliſhed on the iſland, in a ſtrong poſition, where lieutenant Stuart remained poſted. All poſſible preparations were made, from this time, for taking the capital by aſſault: and they were ſuch as probably would have been crowned with full ſucceſs. On the 16th of February, the Bombay army, under general Abercromby, after overcoming various obſtacles, joined the main army, and remained poſted to the northweſt of the city. On the 19th it was ſtationed on the ſouth ſide of the Cavery, in a ſituation that ſeemed to give the ſultan much uneaſineſs. However, after attacking the advanced poſt of this army on the night of the 21ſt, Tippoo made no farther effort; and on the 24th, when the preparations for the general aſſault were in great forwardneſs, it was announced that preliminaries of peace were ſettled. The conferences for this purpoſe had begun on the 15th; but the operations on both ſides continued till the 24th. After the ceſſation of arms, which then took place, the conduct of Tippoo Sultan was ſo equivocal and ſuſpicious, as to make it neceſſary on our part to renew the preparations for the ſiege. Overawed, at length, by the firmneſs and deciſion of lord Cornwallis, and probably alarmed by the diſcontent of his own people, the reluctant ſultan ſubmitted to all the terms propoſed; and on the 19th of March, the copies of the definitive treaty were delivered in form, by his ſons, to lord Cornwallis, and the agents of the allied princes. The Nizam's ſon, prince Secunder Jah, and the Maratta plenipotentiary, Hurry Punt, thought it beneath their dignity to be preſent on this occaſion in perſon, and were repreſented by their vakeels.

The ſubſtance of the treaty was: 1ſt. That Tippoo was to cede one half of his dominions to the allied powers. 2d. That he was to pay three crores and thirty lacks of rupees. 3d. That all priſoners were to be reſtored. 4th. That two of the ſultan's three eldeſt ſons were to become hoſtages for the due performance of the treaty.

Tippoo is ſaid to have been prevailed upon with infinite difficulty to ſubſcribe to the terms of peace: and now that all was ſettled, the uneaſineſs in the ſeraglio became extreme in parting with the boys, who were to be ſent out as hoſtages. The ſultan was again intreated to requeſt they might be allowed to ſtay another day, in order to make ſuitable preparations for their departure; and lord Cornwallis, who had diſpenſed with their coming at the time the treaty was ſent, had again the goodneſs to grant his requeſt.

When the princes left the fort, which appeared to be manned as they went out, and every where crowded with people, who, from curioſity or affection, had come to ſee them depart, the ſultan himſelf was on the rampart above the gateway. They were ſaluted by the fort on leaving it, and with twenty-one guns from the park as they approached our camp, where the part of the line they paſſed was turned out to meet them. The vakeels conducted them to the tents, which had been ſent from the fort for their accommodation, where they were met by ſir John Kennaway, the Maratta and Nizam's vakeels, and from thence accompanied by them to head quarters.

The princes were each mounted on an elephant richly capriſoned, and ſeated in a ſilver howder (a canopied ſeat), and were attended by their father's vakeels, and the perſons already mentioned, alſo on elephants. The proceſſion was led by ſeveral camel harcarras (meſſengers) and ſeven ſtandard-bearers, carrying ſmall green flags ſuſpended from rockets, i. e. rocket is a miſſile weapon, conſiſting of an iron tube of about a foot long, and an inch in diameter, fixed to a bamboo rod of ten or twelve feet long, followed by one hundred pikemen, with ſpears inlaid with ſilver. Their guard of two hundred ſepoys, and a party of horſe, brought up the rear. In this order they approached head quarters, where the battalion of Bengal ſepoys, commanded by captain Welch, appointed for their guard, formed a ſtreet to receive them.

Lord Cornwallis, attended by his ſtaff, and ſome of the principal officers of the army, met the princes at the door of his large tent, as they diſmounted from the elephants; and, after embracing them, led them in, one in each hand, to the tent; the eldeſt, Abdul Kalick, was about ten, the youngeſt, Mooza-ud-Deen, about eight years of age. When they were ſeated on each ſide of lord Cornwallis, Gullam Ally, the head vakeel, addreſſed his lordſhip as follows: "Theſe children were this morning the ſons of the ſultan, my maſter; their ſituation is now changed, and they muſt look up to your lordſhip as their father."

Lord Cornwallis, who had received the boys as if they had been his own ſons, anxiouſly aſſured the vakeel and the young princes themſelves, that every attention poſſible would be ſhewn to them, and the greateſt care taken of their perſons. Their little faces brightened up; the ſcene became highly intereſting; and not only their attendants, but all the ſpectators, were delighted to ſee that any fears they might have harboured were removed, and that they would ſoon be reconciled to their change of ſituation, and to their new friends.

The princes were dreſſed in long white muſlin gowns and red turbans. They had ſeveral rows of large pearls round their necks, from which was ſuſpended an ornament conſiſting of a ruby and an emerald of conſiderable ſize, ſurrounded by large brilliants; and in their turbans, each had a ſprig of rich pearls.—Bred up from their infancy with infinite care, and inſtructed in their manners to imitate the reſerve and politeneſs of age, it aſtoniſhed all preſent to ſee the correctneſs and propriety of their conduct.

Thus ended a war in which the advantages gained by us may be briefly ſtated thus:—1. Our moſt formidable enemy is ſo reduced by it, as to render our poſſeſſions in India both profitable and ſecure. 2. Madras is ſecured from invaſion by poſſeſſion of the paſſes, and covered by a territory defended by ſtrong forts. 3. The value of Bombay is greatly enhanced by poſ-

ſeſſions

ſeſſions gained on the Malabar coaſt, protected by Poligautcherry and the frontier of the Coorga Rajah. Theſe advantages, it may be preſumed, will far overbalance the expences of the war. By a ſtatement of major Dirom, it appears that Tippoo loſt in this war 67 forts, 801 cannons, and 49,340 men.

It would be unjuſt to with-hold our approbation from lord Cornwallis in every thing that reſpects the conduct of the concluding campaign. Nothing that ſound judgment could deviſe, or activity effect, appears to have been omitted. The humanity and goodneſs of his lordſhip were conſpicuous during the whole of the enterpriſe; and his moderation and ſound policy in the concluding ſcenes cannot be too highly extolled.

CHAP. XIII.

THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

European Settlements, Rivers, Mountains, &c.

THE ſouth-eaſt coaſt of India, ſituate on the bay of Bengal, uſually called the coaſt of Coromandel, compriſes the provinces of Madura, Tanjore, eaſt-ſide of Biſnagar, or Carnatic, Golconda, and Orixa. The chief towns in theſe provinces are, Madura, containing 16,400 ſquare miles; Tanjore, Tranquebar (Danes), Negapatam (Engliſh), Biſnagar, Porta Nova (Dutch), Fort St. David (Engliſh), Pondicherry, Conymere (French), Coblon, Sadraſpatan (Dutch), St. Thomas (Portugueſe), Fort St. George, or Madras (Engliſh), Pullicate (Dutch), containing 35,550 ſquare miles; Golconda, containing 62,100 ſquare miles; Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines; Maſſulipatam (Engliſh and Dutch), Viſagapatam (Engliſh), Bimlipatan (Dutch), Orixa, Ballaſore (Engliſh).

The ſouth-weſt coaſt of India, uſually called the coaſt of Malabar, compriſes the weſt ſide of Biſnager, or Carnatic; the provinces of Deccan, or Viſiapour; Cambaya, or Guzarat. The chief towns are, Tegapatam (Dutch), Anjengo (Engliſh), Cochin (Dutch), Callicut, Tellicherry (Engliſh), Canannore (Dutch), Mangalore, Barcelore (Dutch and Portugueſe), Radconda (diamond mines), Cawar (Engliſh), Goa (Portugueſe), Rajapore (French), Dabul (Engliſh), Dundee, Shoula (Portugueſe), Bombay (iſle and town, Engliſh), Baſſeen (Portugueſe), Salſette (Engliſh), Damon (Portugueſe), Surat, Swalley, Barak (Engliſh and Dutch), Amedabad, Cambaya, Dieu (Portugueſe).

The rivers in this peninſula are, the famous Kiſtna, a principal branch of which paſſes within 30 miles eaſt of Poonah, where it is named Beurah, and is eſteemed a ſacred river; the Puddar and Godaven, which laſt is alſo eſteemed as a ſacred river; the Cattack, or Mahanada, the mouths of which have never been traced; the Soane and Nerbudda.

A chain of mountains, which we have already taken notice of, run from north to ſouth of this part of India, and render it winter on one ſide of the Peninſula, while it is ſummer on the other. Towards the latter end of June, a ſouth-weſt wind begins to blow from the ſea, on the coaſt of Malabar, attended by prodigious and conſtant rains, which continue four months; during which time the weather is ſerene on the eaſtern ſide, known by the appellation of the coaſt of Coromandel. About the end of October, the rainy ſeaſon, and the change of the monſoon, begin on the Coromandel coaſt, which being entirely unprovided with good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ſhips to remain there, during that time; and to this are owing the periodical returns of the Engliſh ſhipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coaſt.

The air of this peninſula is naturally hot, but is refreſhed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the ſea, which laſt proves a great refreſhment to the inhabitants of the coaſt.

The ſoil is in general fruitful, and its productions are the ſame with thoſe already mentioned in the other parts of the Eaſt Indies. The like may be ſaid of their quadrupeds, fiſh, fowl, noxious creatures, and inſects.

There is great reaſon to ſuppoſe that the inhabitants of this part are the deſcendants of a colony which have migrated hither from Ethiopia, as their complexions are blacker than thoſe of the other peninſula of India. The greater part of them have but a faint notion of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Indoſtan, whoſe tribute from hence has been, ever ſince the invaſion of Nadir Shah, intercepted by their ſoubahs and nabobs, who now exerciſe an independent power in the government; but beſides theſe ſoubahs, and other imperial viceroys, many eſtates in this peninſula belong to rajahs or lords, who are the deſcendants of their old princes, and look upon themſelves as independent on the mogul and his authority.

As one ſoubah often engroſſes ſeveral provinces, and fixes the ſeat of his government according to his own conveniency; it would on theſe accounts be more conformable to the preſent ſtate of this peninſula to divide it into ſoubahſhips than into provinces; but the ancient diviſion into provinces is ſtill continued, and the whole country conſidered as compoſed of two principal parts, called the coaſt of Coromandel, and the coaſt of Malabar. Theſe are ſubdivided into provinces, and in theſe the greater part of the European factories in India are eſtabliſhed.

The province of Madura, which begins at Cape Comorin, the ſouthernmoſt part of the peninſula, is about as extenſive as the kingdom of Portugal, and is ſaid to be governed by a monarch, who has ſeventy tributary princes under him, each being independent in his own principality, only paying him a tax.—This province produces nothing valuable, except a pearl fiſhery, which is on its coaſt. The capital is alſo called Madura, and the other principal towns in it are Triſhirapalli, Manapar, where the Dutch have a factory, and Tutukurin, a large ſea-port, which, together with ſeveral ſmaller, belong to the Dutch.

To the eaſt of Madura lies the ſmall kingdom of Tanjore, the ſoil of which is exceedingly fertile, and its prince rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and ſome Britiſh ſubjects connected with him; the chief places in it are Tanjore, the capital, which is governed by a rajah under the Engliſh protection.

Negapatan, a Dutch colony and fortreſs, was taken from them during the laſt war, and confirmed to the Engliſh by the laſt treaty of peace; and Tranquebar, belonging to the Danes. The king's revenues are ſaid to be very conſiderable.

North of Tanjore lies the kingdom of Karnata, better known to us by the appellation of the Carnatic. It is bounded on the eaſt by the bay of Bengal, on the north by the river Kiſtna, which divides it from Golconda, on the weſt by Viſipour, and, on the ſouth, by the kingdoms of Meſſaur and Tanjore. It is about 345 miles in length, from ſouth to north, and 276 in breadth, from eaſt to weſt. This country is in general fertile, and contains a conſiderable number of cities and towns. The whole kingdom is divided into ſmall principalities, whoſe princes are all independent in their reſpective territories, but at the ſame time ſubordinate to the Great Mogul.

The

The moſt remarkable places on the ſea-coaſt, commonly called the Coromandel coaſt, are the following, viz. Porto Nova, where the Portugueſe are very numerous, and the Engliſh and Dutch have alſo ſome houſes.

Fort St. David's, which, with the diſtrict round it, belongs to the Engliſh, who purchaſed it in 1686, from a Maratta prince, for ninety thouſand pagodas. The fort is tolerably ſtrong, and the country, which extends eight miles every way, fertile and pleaſant.

Pondicherry, which lies about five leagues to the north of Fort St. David's, and was formerly the principal place belonging to the French in the Eaſt Indies. It has been repeatedly taken by the Engliſh, and as often reſtored by treaties of peace.

Madras, or Fort St. George, the capital of the Engliſh Eaſt India ſettlements, is divided into two parts, called the White and Black Towns. It ſtands fronting the ſea, and has a ſalt-water river on the land ſide, which prevents all freſh ſprings from being brought within a mile of the town, and, in the rainy ſeaſon, cauſes inundations on one ſide, while the ſea often threatens deſtruction on the other: ſo that its ſituation is far from being either ſafe or commodious, though it is both healthy and delightful.

The White Town, which is inhabited by Europeans, is walled quite round, and has ſeveral baſtions and bulwarks to defend it; beſides which it is ſecured by the ſea on one ſide, and a ſalt river on the other. It is about 400 paces long, and 150 broad. The ſtreets are in general regular, and in the centre of the town ſtands Fort St. George. The houſes are of brick, well built, with flat roofs, and ſpacious rooms. Here are two elegant churches, one for the Proteſtants, the other for the Roman Catholics, a good hoſpital, a mint for coining rupees and pagodas, and a town-hall, underneath which is a priſon for debtors. The town is a corporation, conſiſting of a mayor and aldermen, formerly choſen by the burghers, but at preſent by the governor and his council; in conſequence of which every thing is carried on as the governor's will directs, who can annul all deciſions in caſe of debt, or otherwiſe, made by the court, which is properly a court of conſcience. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badneſs of the ſituation of this town, which ſeems originally owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, that are but a week's journey diſtant. Theſe mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeaſurement, incloſing the contents by paliſadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. Religions of every kind are tolerated at Madras, every ſect having its reſpective place of worſhip.

Eighty thouſand inhabitants of various nations are ſaid to be dependent upon Madras; but its ſafety conſiſts in the ſuperiority of the Engliſh by ſea. It carries on a conſiderable trade with China, Perſia, and Mocha. The diſtrict belonging to Madras does not extend much more than forty miles round, and is of little value for its product.

Immenſe fortunes have been acquired by the Engliſh upon this coaſt within theſe forty years, but ſome of theſe fortunes appear to have been obtained by the moſt illicit practices. Some fundamental errors muſt therefore have crept into the conſtitution of the Eaſt India Company. The directors conſidered the riches acquired by their governors and other ſervants, as being plundered from the company, and accordingly ſent out ſuperintendants to control their governors and overgrown ſervants, and have from time to time changed their governors and members of the council there.

Through the diſtractions of the Mogul empire, the ſupport of our government, and the undaunted but fortunate efforts of their military officers, the Engliſh East India Company have acquired ſo amazing a property in this peninſula, and in Indoſtan, that it is ſuperior to the revenues of many crowned heads; and ſome of their own ſervants affirm, that, when all their expences are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions ſterling; out of which they were to pay 400,000l. annually to the government, while ſuffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it ariſes, is beſt known to the company: part of it, however, has been granted in property, and part of it is ſecured on mortgages, for diſcharging their expences in ſupporting the intereſts of their friends, the emperor, and the reſpective ſoubahs and nabobs, to whom they have afforded their aſſiſtance.

Many rights peculiar to ſovereignty, have been exerciſed by this company; ſuch as thoſe of holding forts, coining money, &c. Thoſe powers were thought incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and therefore the Engliſh miniſtry and parliament have repeatedly interfered: in order to regulate the affairs of the company, a board of control at home being at length eſtabliſhed.

The Gentoos are for the moſt part entirely paſſive in all the revolutions of their government. The Moors, or Mahometans, ignorant and treacherous as they are, appear to have no violent attachment to any religious principles, and are abject enough to live under any form of government. Theſe conſiderations manifeſt the wiſdom of not driving them into deſperate meaſures, and thereby affecting an union of their forces, which muſt prove fatal to the Britiſh intereſt there.

It is indeed much to be regretted, that as the government has thought proper to interfere in the affairs of the Eaſt India Company, it has not alſo taken ſome meaſures to puniſh thoſe many and infamous inſtances of oppreſſion, injuſtice, and cruelty, of which the ſervants of the company have been guilty, and which have been ſo loudly complained of both at home and in the Indies. The ſupreme court lately eſtabliſhed at Calcutta, has not anſwered the purpoſes for which it was appointed; it has been equally complained of by the ſervants of the company, and by the natives: many of the latter have been grievouſly haraſſed by it, who were not amenable to its juriſdiction; nor has that regard been paid to their manners and cuſtoms, which both juſtice and policy required. Theſe reflections, founded on indubitable facts, we hope will have their due weight with thoſe who have ability and inclination to rectify theſe enormous abuſes of delegated authority.

The Black Town is inhabited by Gentoos, Mahometans, Armenians, Portugueſe, and by the merchants of every nation in Aſia, together with negroes. It is about a mile and a half in circuit, almoſt encompaſſed by a river and the ſea; and has of late years been ſurrounded by a ſtone wall, with baſtions cannon proof. Here is an Armenian church, and ſeveral pagods, or Indian temples; but the houſes in general are nothing more than thatched cottages.—To the north of Madras lies Pullicate, belonging to the Dutch, who have a ſmall fort there, in which they keep a garriſon.

The kingdom of Golconda extends 260 miles along the bay of Bengal, in form of a creſcent, and is 200 in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The ſoil, which is very fertile, yields annually two crops of rice, and ſeveral other kinds of grain. Of the grapes, which are remarkably fine, and ripe in January, the inhabitants make a very good white-wine. The country alſo yields indigo, bezoar, mines of iron, ſteel, and ſalt, and ſeveral of diamonds (of which Raolconda is a very famous one) with other precious ſtones. Proviſions of all kinds are extraordinary cheap; a ſheep being bought for a ſhilling, a fowl for two-pence, and ſo in proportion. Golconda is ſubject to a prince called the Nizam, or ſoubah of the Deccan, who is tributary

tary to the Great Mogul, has vaſt revenues ariſing from lands, cuſtoms of merchandize, and proviſions, but principally from the diamond-mines and ſalt.—His army is ſaid to be very numerous, conſiſting generally of 100,000 horſe and foot, beſides 200 elephants. The inhabitants are many of them extremely rich, and the artificers are very ſkilful in the cotton manufactures, which they make ſo fine, and of ſuch lively colours, that many prefer them to ſilk. This kingdom contains ſeveral large cities, among which are Bagnagar, or Hyderabad, the capital; but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda, and compriſes the eaſtern part of Dowletabad.

Eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Golconda lies Maſulipatam, where the Engliſh and Dutch have factories. The Engliſh have alſo factories at Ganjam and Viſagapatam, on this coaſt; and the Dutch at Narſipore.

The province of Orixa, from whence the Engliſh company draw ſome part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from eaſt to weſt about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moodajee Booſlah, and his brother Bembajee, allies to the Marattas. In this province ſtands the idolatrous temple of Jagaryunt, which they ſay is attended by 500 prieſts. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black ſtone, of about 4 or 500 pounds weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to repreſent eyes, and the noſe and mouth painted with vermillion.

The Deccan is a very extenſive country, comprehending ſeveral large provinces. and ſome kingdoms; particularly thoſe of Barſana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Viſiapour. The names, dependencies, and governments of thoſe provinces are extremely unſettled, and have been ſubject to almoſt annual revolutions and alterations ſince their reduction by Aurengzebe, or his father; ſo that modern geographers are not agreed upon their exact ſituation and extent. The principal towns are Aurungabad, and Doltabad, or Dowlatabad; the latter is the ſtrongeſt place in all Indoſtan. In a plain of about two leagues ſquare, ſtand the famous pagods of Elora. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thouſand figures that ſurround it, are ſaid to be cut out of the natural rock, and to ſurpaſs all the other efforts of human art.

Telenga is ſituated on the eaſt of Golconda.—Beder, its capital, is a very large city, ſurrounded by brick walls, and garriſoned with 3000 horſe and foot. The inhabitants ſpeak a language peculiar to themſelves.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the gulf of Cambaya, and one of the fineſt in India, but inhabited by a fierce, rapacious people. It is ſaid to contain thirty-five cities. Amedabad is the capital of the province, where there is an Engliſh factory, and is ſaid to vie in wealth with the richeſt towns in Europe.

Surat, where the Engliſh have a factory, lies at the diſtance of about forty-three French leagues from Guzerat.

The kingdom of Viſiapour is very extenſive: the weſtern part of it is called Konkan, and is intermingled with the Portugueſe poſſeſſions. The rajah of Viſiapour is ſaid to have had a yearly revenue of ſix millions ſterling, and to bring into the field 150,000 horſe and foot. The capital is of the ſame name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coaſt are Daman, Baſſaim-Trapor, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajah-pur, Dabul-Rajah-pur, Gheriah, and Vingorla. The Portugueſe have loſt ſeveral valuable poſſeſſions on this coaſt, and thoſe which remain are on the decline.

There are alſo many iſlands on this coaſt, among which is that of Bombay, belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt India Company. It is about ſeven miles in length, and twenty in circumference. It originally belonged to the Portugueſe, and was given to Charles II. as part of the portion he received with the infanta of Portugal, who gave it to the Eaſt India Company; and the iſland is ſtill divided into three Roman Catholic pariſhes, inhabited by Portugueſe, and what are called Popiſh-meſtizo, and Canarins; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portugueſe, and the other the aborigines of the country. The Portugueſe gave it the appellation of Boonbay, from the excellency of its harbour, which, it is ſaid, will conveniently hold a thouſand ſail of ſhips. The chief town is near a mile long, but filled with very mean houſes, except a few belonging to the Portugueſe.—At a ſmall diſtance from it ſtands the fort, but not in the moſt advantageous ſituation. The ſoil of the iſland is in general ſterile, the principal produce of it being fine groves of cocoa-nut trees; and in the gardens are found ſeveral ſorts of Indian fruits. The air and climate are rather unhealthy, particularly to ſtrangers; and the beſt water to be had, is what the people catch in ciſterns during the great rains, for that contained in the wells has a brackiſh diſagreeable taſte. The inhabitants, who are a mixture of ſeveral nations, amount in all to near 60,000, and every one enjoys the practice of his religion unmoleſted. The poſts of the governor and council of Bombay, as well as thoſe of the officers under them, are lucrative; and the troops on the iſland are commanded by Engliſh officers. The natives, when formed into companies, and diſciplined, are here, and in every part of India, diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of Sepoys.

The Turks that reſort to this place on account of trade, are, like the reſt of their countrymen, ſtately, grave, and reſerved, and honeſt in their dealings, though merchants. The Perſians are more gay, lively, and converſible, but leſs honeſt in matters of trade than the ſaturnine Turks. The Arabians are all life and fire, and when they treat with you on any ſubject, will make you a fine oration in flowing numbers, and a muſical cadence, but they are the moſt diſhoneſt of all. The Armenians are generally handſome in their features, mild in their tempers, and in their nature kind and beneficent: they are a kind of Chriſtians, and an honour to that religion, beyond numbers that go from England.

Contiguous to Bombay are ſeveral other iſlands, one of which called Elephanta, contains one of the greateſt and moſt inexplicable antiquities in the world. A figure of an elephant, about ſeven feet high, rudely carved out of a black ſtone, is placed on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain, from whence an eaſy aſcent leads to a ſtupendous temple, hewn out of the ſolid rock eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is flat, is ſupported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, reſembling round cuſhions, as if preſſed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the further end of the temple are three gigantic figures, and round it are various others, and groups cut in ſtone, one of which bears a rude reſemblance to the judgment of Solomon. There is alſo a colonade, and a door of regular architecture: but when, or by whom this prodigious edifice was erected, ſtill is, and in all probability ever will remain a ſecret. It is certain that it was not built by the Hindoos, the aborigines of this country, as it has not the leaſt appearance of their manner.

South of Bombay lies the iſland and city of Goa, the chief ſettlements of the Portugueſe in the Eaſt Indies. The iſland is about twenty-ſeven miles in compaſs, and has one of the fineſt and ſtrongeſt ports of this part of the world. Formerly it was a moſt ſuperb ſettlement, but is now greatly gone to decay. The Jeſuits, before they were ſuppreſſed, had five houſes here, and it is ſaid their revenues were equal to thoſe of the crown of Portugal. The number of inhabitants are ſuppoſed to be about 20,000, of which the native Portugueſe form a very ſmall proportion. The natives are as black as jet, having long black hair,

hair, and many of them very fine features. The men are, in general, proud, jealous, revengeful, indolent, and indigent; and the women lazy and laſcivious. Goa, and all the Portugueſe ſettlements on this coaſt, are under a viceroy, who ſtill keeps up the remains of the ancient grandeur of the government, though the power and credit of it are in a manner loſt. The Peninſula of Salzete, with ſome other places, are dependent on Goa, but they are of very little conſequence, otherwiſe than as they ſupply that city with proviſions.

South of the Portugueſe territories lies Sunda, which is governed by a rajah, ſubject to the Great Mogul. The mountains in this country are ſaid to yield the fineſt pepper in the world. The only place worthy notice in it is Corwar, where the Engliſh have a factory, and it is the moſt pleaſant and healthy ſettlement belonging to the company on the Malabar coaſt. Their government here is under the direction of a chief and council, and the garriſon conſiſts of thirty Sepoys, beſides Engliſh.

About forty miles to the ſouth of Goa lies Canoree, which reaches as far as Calicut. It is a pleaſant country, and prodigiouſly fertile in rice, large quantities of which are imported into Europe, beſides ſupplying ſeveral parts of India. The Canorines are generally excellent ſoldiers and miners, and very attentive to commerce. Their language, which is termed Kanareyn, is ſpoken, with ſome variation of dialect, from the borders of Malabar to Surat. The principal places in it are Bedmur, Onar, Batakolo, Barſeloar, Bakkanor, Molkey, and Mangalore, which is the greateſt mart of trade in all the Canoree dominions.

The celebrated Hyder Ally, with whom the company formerly made a peace, but with whom their ſervants ſoon after embroiled them, and who in the late war made a violent irruption into the Carnatic, took many of its chief places, obtained great advantages over the company's troops, and brought his forces to the gates of Madras, but died before the concluſion of the war. He is ſaid to be a native of Myſore, which lies to the ſouth-weſt of the Carnatic. The Chriſtians of the apoſtle St. Thomas live at the foot of the Gatti mountains.

The dominions of Tippoo Saib, ſon of Hyder Ally, comprehended generally the provinces of Myſore, Bednore, Zaimbalore, Zanaree, and Dindigal, beſides his acquiſitions to the northward from the Marattas: they are at leaſt 400 miles in length, and in breadth from 290 to 130, ſo that he had the largeſt ſhare in the peninſula.

Malabar, which gives its name to the whole ſouth-weſt coaſt of the peninſula, taken in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, contains not only the country under that name to the weſt of Cape Comorin, but alſo thoſe to the eaſt, as far as Negapatan. But in the more contracted and modern ſenſe of the word, Malabar is now confined only to the country ſo called, lying on the weſt of Cape Comorin, and known by the appellation of the dominion of the Samorin. This country is about 350 miles in length, and from eighty to twenty in breadth. The air is exceeding good, and the ſoil as fertile as any in Aſia; uſually yielding two crops annually. Formerly Malabar was united under one emperor, called the Samorin; but it is now divided into a number of ſmall principalities, moſt of which are independent.

The moſt remarkable places in this country, are Cannanore, which contains a Dutch factory and fort: Tillicherry, where the Engliſh have a ſmall ſettlement, and keep a conſtant garriſon of thirty or forty ſoldiers. The chief trade conſiſts in pepper and cardamums: Burgara, Kota, Tikorey, Calicut, where the French and Portugueſe have ſmall factories; Tanmore, Pennancy, Chitiva, where the Dutch have a factory; Kranganor, where there is alſo a factory belonging to the Dutch; and Cochin. Among the inhabitants of the laſt, are ſeveral thouſand Jews, who have a ſynagogue about two miles from the city, in which are preſerved their records engraven on copper-plates, in Hebrew characters. They call themſelves a remnant of the tribe of Manaſſeh, a part whereof was, by order of Nebuchadnezzar, carried to the moſt eaſtern province of his extenſive empire, which it ſeems reached as far as Cape Comorin. The Dutch have a ſettlement, and a garriſon of 300 men at Cochin, the king being in fact only their vaſſal. In Porkey, Hoilkoiloan, and Koyloan, the Dutch have alſo factories; to which we may add Erwa, where the Danes have a ſmall factory; Anjengo, where the Engliſh have a ſmall fort and ſettlement, being the moſt ſoutherly poſſeſſion they have on the Malabar coaſt; Tegapatan, where the Dutch have a factory, and Holicha. All theſe towns are ſituated along the coaſt, but there are ſeveral within land, ſome of which are very conſiderable.

Cape Comorin, which is about three leagues in extent, forms the moſt ſouthern part of this peninſula. In this ſmall ſpace one has often the pleaſure of ſeeing ſummer and winter united; for the trees will be loaded with bloſſoms and fruit on one ſide of a garden, while on the other they are ſtripped of all their leaves. This phænomenon is owing to the mountains of Gatti, mentioned before, which traverſe the whole peninſula from ſouth to north. On the oppoſite ſides of the Cape, the winds are continually at variance; blowing from the weſt on the weſtern ſide, and from the eaſt on the eaſtern ſide.

CHAP. XIV.

PERSIA.

Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Name, Climate, Soil, Rivers, Chief Cities, Iſlands, &c.

MODERN Perſia is ſituated between the 44th and 70th deg. of eaſt longitude, and between the 25th and 44th deg. of north latitude. It is about 1300 miles in length, and 1100 in breadth; and contains 800,000 ſquare miles. It is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghiſtan, which ſeparate it from Circaſſian Tartary, on the north-weſt; by the Caſpian Sea, which divides it from Ruſſia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Uſbeck Tartary, on the north-eaſt; by India, on the eaſt; by Arabia and Turkey, on the weſt; and by the Indian Ocean, and the gulfs of Perſia and Ormus, on the ſouth.

Geographers in general divide this extenſive empire into the following provinces, viz. On the frontiers of India are Choraſan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Eſterabad; Sableuſtan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sigiſtan, the ancient Drangiana. The ſouthern diviſion contains Makeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedroſſia, and Farſiſtan, the ancient Perſia. The ſouth-weſt diviſion, on the frontiers of Perſia, contains the provinces of Churiſtan, the ancient Suſiana, and Irac-Agem, the ancient Parthia. The north-weſt diviſion, lying between the Caſpian Sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Aſia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media; Gangea, Daghiſtan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan, and Mazanderan.

With reſpect to its name, it is probable that the word Perſia is only a corruption of the word Parthia, and that the modern Perſians derive their name from their progenitors the Parthians, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The word itſelf implies a horſeman; the Perſians and Parthians having always been famed for their ſkill in horſemanſhip. The ancient poets

derived its name from Perſius, the ſon of Jupiter and Danae, which appears too fabulous to deſerve a preference.

The air of this vaſt kingdom varies prodigiouſly, according to the different ſituation of places. In the midland provinces of Perſia, it is ſerene, pure, and and exhilirating, but in the ſouthern provinces it is hot, and ſometimes communicates to the midland parts noxious blaſts, which are often ſo fatal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans. Thoſe provinces which are in the neighbourhood of Caucaſus and Daghiſtan, and the mountains near the Caſpian Sea, are piercing cold, which may be attributed to the ſnow with which the ſummits of theſe mountains are perpetually covered.

The ſoil and productions vary like the air. Towards Tartary and the Caſpian Sea, the ſoil is far from being luxuriant, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and other luxuries of life, is equalled by few others. It produces wine and oil in plenty, ſenna, rhubarb, and the fineſt of drugs. The fruits are delicious, eſpecially their dates, oranges, piſtachio-nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden ſtuff; not to mention vaſt quantities of excellent ſilk; and the gulf of Baſſora formerly furniſhed great part of Europe and Aſia with very fine pearls. Some parts near Iſpahan eſpecially, produce almoſt all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from ſome of them, the roſes eſpecially, they extract waters of a ſalubrious and odorific quality, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In ſhort, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Perſia, are of a moſt exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as ſome nations in Europe, by tranſplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Perſian aſſafœtida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum: ſome of it is white, and ſome black; but the former is ſo much valued, that the natives make very rich ſauces of it, and ſometimes eat it as a rarity. Tobacco grows all over Perſia, and ſaffron is cultivated in many parts of it.

There is no country in the world which contains more mountains than India, ſome of the chief of which form natural bulwarks to this extenſive empire. Among theſe are Caucaſus and Ararat, ſometimes called the mountains of Daghiſtan, which fill all the iſthmus between the Euxine and Caſpian Seas. This enormous ridge, together with its branches, run through the country from Natolia to India.

Moſt of theſe mountains yield iron, copper, braſs, and lead; as alſo ſulphur, ſalt-petre, and antimony. Turquoiſe-ſtones are found in Choraſſan; and quarries of red, white, and black marble, have been diſcovered near Taurus. Natural ſalt is produced in the province of Caramania.

There are few navigable rivers in Perſia. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which riſes in or near the mountains of Araxes, and, joining their ſtreams, fall into the Caſpian Sea. Some ſmall rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their ſtreams are ſo inconſiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated, even with boats. The Oxus can ſcarcely be called a Perſian river, though it divides Perſia from Uſbeck-Tartary. Perſia has the river Indus on the eaſt, and on the weſt, the Tigris and Euphrates.

The ſcarcity of rivers in Perſia is conſequently attended by a ſcarcity of water, which defect, however, is ſupplied in many places by aqueducts, canals, and reſervoirs. In the province of Tabriſton, or Maſanderan, the waters are ſo fetid, that by often overflowing part of the country, they change even the complexions of the inhabitants.

With reſpect to the Gaures, or ancient Perſians, they were homely, ill-ſhaped, and clumſy, with a rough ſkin, and olive complexion; but the modern Perſians, by the intermarriages of their anceſtors, for a ſeries of years, with the Georgian, Circaſſian, and other beautiful women, are of a good ſtature, ſhape, and complexion: the latter indeed differ according to the ſituation of provinces. The women are in general handſome and well-ſhaped.

The men ſhave their heads; thoſe only that are young indeed ſuffer a lock of hair to grow on each ſide, and the beard of their chins to reach up to their temples. The religious have long beards, and on their heads a ſquare cap, ten or twelve inches high. All wear turbans; and thoſe belonging to people of diſtinction are exceeding magnificent, being often interwoven with gold and ſilver. The reſt of their dreſs conſiſts of a calico ſhirt, the collar of which is open; then a veſt, which, reaching below the knee, is girt round the middle with a ſaſh, in which they place a dagger, and over that a looſe garment, ſomewhat ſhorter, and linen trowſers. Their clothes are uſually made of the richeſt furs, ſilks, muſlins, cottons, or ſome other fine and valuable ſtuffs, richly embroidered with gold and ſilver. They wear ſlippers on their feet, and pliant boots of yellow leather on their legs. The dreſs of the women does not differ materially from that of the men, only their veſts are longer, and they wear a ſtiffened cap on their heads, with their hair flowing looſe. Pearls and jewels of all kinds are diſpoſed about their heads and perſons with great taſte, and they omit no pains to heighten their natural beauty by waſhes and paints.

The Perſians, in their manners, are brave, ſenſible, lively, humane, and hoſpitable. Their only foibles ſeem to be profuſeneſs and vanity; for the richneſs of their cloths, their ſuperb equipages, and the amazing number of their ſervants, too often exceed their finances, and bring them into difficulties. They uſually breakfaſt on coffee, very early in the morning, and dine upon fruits, ſweetmeats, and milk, at eleven. Supper is their chief meal, which uſually conſiſts of a diſh of pilau. They never uſe either knives, forks, or ſpoons; neither do they eat pork, or any other animal prohibited to the Jews. All their meat is ſeaſoned very high with ſalt and ſpices, and they always dreſs it the ſame day it is killed: their bread, which is excellent, is baked into thin cakes, which ſaves them the trouble of cutting it. At their meals, the cloth is ſpread upon a carpet, and they all ſit croſs-legged upon the floor; but when Europeans viſit them, they are generally accommodated with ſtools. Their uſual drink is water and ſherbet, wine being prohibited: great quantities of it are, however, drank, particularly by the officers and ſoldiers, and none make any ſcruple of intoxicating themſelves with opium. They are immoderately fond of tobacco, which they ſmoke through a tube fixed in water, ſo as to be cool in the mouth; and they are ſo attached to this amuſement, that whenever it has been prohibited by their princes, many have been known to quit their country. The Perſians are not leſs jealous of their women than the Turks, and there is no country where they are more ſtrictly watched and confined, particularly in the harams of their princes, and great men. When the king's women remove, they are ſent away in covered litters, with a ſtrong guard; and on theſe occaſions, all men who reſide in the places through which they are to paſs, receive orders to quit their habitations, on pain of death; by which it appears, that they are not leſs jealous of their women than the Turks and other eaſtern nations.

The Perſians are fond of muſic, and take a pleaſure in converſing in large companies; but their chief diverſions are thoſe of the field, ſuch as hunting, hawking, horſemanſhip, and the exerciſe of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beaſts; and

and privately playing at games of chance, as theſe are prohibited by law, under ſevere penalties. They excel in archery, as their anceſtors, the ancient Parthians, did.

They write, like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their ſeals and materials for writing, and amazingly expeditious in the art. As no printing is allowed in Perſia, the number of people employed in their manuſcripts is incredible: their writing is beyond deſcription beautiful and correct: they write eight different hands, but eſteem that moſt in which the Koran is written: this hand is called the Neſky.

The Perſian marriages are uſually founded upon mercenary motives, the legal wife being conſidered as a ſuperintendant of the other women. They are indeed allowed by law to have four wives, and as many concubines as they pleaſe; but they ſeldom marry any more than one. If a man wants to part from his wife through mere whim, and wants to be divorced from her, though ſhe hath not committed any fault, he is obliged to pay the dowry contracted for at the marriage. We are told, that men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Perſia, as well as through all Tartary; and that travellers or merchants, who intend to ſtay ſome time in any city, commonly apply to the cadee, or judge, for a wife during the time he propoſes to ſtay. The cadee, for a ſtated gratuity, produces a number of girls whom he declares to be honeſt, and free from diſeaſes; and becomes ſurety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Ruſſian embaſſy to Perſia, declares, that, amongſt thouſands, there has not been one inſtance of their diſhoneſty during the time agreed upon.

The Perſians in general bury their dead; but the Gaurs expoſe them to be devoured by beaſts of prey, or other voracious creatures.

When a perſon is on the point of expiring, the Perſians kindle fires at the tops of their houſes, which ſerve as ſignals to their neighbours and travelling ſtrangers to offer up their prayers for the patient. The mollah or prieſt being ſent for, he exhorts the ſick perſon to repentance, who uſually ſays, *taube*, or, I do repent. The breath is no ſooner out of the body, than the ſurviving relations and friends ſet up a terrible ſcreaming, and make uſe of many affectionate expreſſions to the dead corpſe, bewailing his fate, and declaring their affliction to be paſt remedy. The coffin is wrapped in a kind of winding-ſheet, on which many paſſages of the Koran are ſtamped or written. The face of the dead perſon is laid towards Mecca, and an arch is built on that ſide near the grave.

The religion at preſent eſtabliſhed in Perſia, is that of Mahomet, but they differ from the Turks by following the ſect of Ali; for which reaſon, the Turks, who adhere to the ſucceſſion of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religious notions are, if poſſible, in ſome reſpects, more fantaſtical and ſenſual than thoſe of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with Bramin ſuperſtitions. When they are taxed by the Chriſtians with drinking ſtrong liquors, as many of them do, they retort upon them, very juſtly, "You Chriſtians whore and get drunk, though you know you are committing ſins, which is the very caſe with us." Reſpecting the Bramins, the compariſon between them and the Perſian Guebres, or Gaurs, who pretend to be the diſciples and ſucceſſors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroaſter, may well deſerve a learned diſquiſition: it may be eaſily proved, that both of them held originally pure and ſimple ideas of a Supreme Being; but the Indian Bramins and Parſees accuſe the Gaurs, who ſtill worſhip the fire, of having ſenſualized thoſe ideas, and introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combuſtible ground, about ten miles diſtant from Baku, is the ſcene of the Guebres devotions. It muſt be admitted, that the ground is impregnated with very ſurpriſing inflammatory qualities, and contains ſeveral old little temples, in one of which the Guebres pretend to preſerve the ſacred flame of the univerſal fire which riſes from the end, and a large hollow cane ſtuck in the ground, reſembling a lamp burning with very pure ſpirits. Their ſect is ſaid to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the Gaurs, who were baniſhed out of Perſia by Shah Abbas. The preſent race of Perſians are ſaid to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing chiefly to their late wars with the Turks.

The ancient Chriſtians ſeem to have been early driven into Perſia and the neighbouring countries, by the long wars between the Romans and Perſians: even to this day, many ſects are found that evidently have Chriſtianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Souffees, who are a kind of quietiſts, ſacrifice their paſſions to God, and profeſs the moral duties. The Sabean Chriſtians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaiſm and Mahometaniſm: they are numerous towards the Perſian Gulf. The Armenian and Georgian Chriſtians are alſo very numerous in Perſia.

The Perſian language is ſpoken in common throughout the whole empire, but more correctly in ſome provinces than others. The Turkiſh, however, is the polite, or court language. Many of the learned Perſians have written in the Arabic, and the higher claſs have adopted it as the modiſh language, as we do the French. The common people towards the ſouthern coaſts of the Caſpian Sea, ſpeak Turkiſh; and the Arabic probably was introduced into Perſia under the caliphates, when learning flouriſhed in thoſe countries. The pure Perſic is ſaid to be ſpoken in the ſouthern parts, on the coaſt of the Perſian Gulf, and in Iſpahan; but in many of the provinces they ſpeak a barbarous mixture of the Turkiſh, Ruſſian, and other languages.

The Perſian alphabet conſiſts of twenty-eight letters, none of which are vowels; their accent ſerves in lieu thereof, and points out how the voice is to be modulated, and the conſonants pronounced; they have no ſtops, but begin every ſentence with a capital letter; but in whatever language they write, always make uſe of Arabic characters; and, inſtead of quills, uſe reeds to make pens of.

In ancient times, the Perſians were famed for learning and learned men; and their poets were renowned all over the eaſt. A manuſcript at Oxford contains the lives of 135 of the fineſt Perſian poets: Ferduſi and Sadi were among the moſt celebrated. The former compriſed the hiſtory of Perſia in a ſeries of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are ſaid to be a glorious monument of eaſtern genius and learning. Sadi was a native of Schiras, flouriſhed in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces both in proſe and verſe. Shemſeddin was one of the moſt eminent Lyric poets that Aſia has produced; and Nakhſheb wrote in Perſian a book, called "The Tales of a Parrot," not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami, who flouriſhed in the middle of the fifteenth century, was a moſt animated and elegant poet: his beautiful compoſitions, on a great variety of ſubjects, are preſerved at Oxford, in twenty-two volumes. Hariri compoſed in a rich, elegant, and flowery ſtyle, a moral work, in fifty diſſertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interſperſed with a number of agreeable adventures, and ſeveral fine pieces of poetry.

Learning is now at a very low ebb among the Perſians. Their boaſted ſkill in aſtronomy is reduced to a mere ſmattering in that ſcience, and terminates in judicial aſtrology; ſo that no people in the world are more ſuperſtitious than the Perſians: they place an implicit confidence in their aſtrologers, who are all

all natives of Choraſſan, and pretend to be deſcended from the ancient Magi. Their almanacks are an abſurd mixture of aſtronomy and judicial aſtrology, morality and predictions; and they underſtand nothing more of arithmetic than the four fundamental rules. In ſhort, their genius is but little cultivated by education, and leſs by experience, as they never travel into foreign countries; and the ſameneſs of cuſtoms and manners in their own, does not afford a ſufficient variety for obſervation and improvement.

The learned profeſſion in greateſt eſteem among them, is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with aſtrology, becauſe every doſe muſt be in the lucky hour fixed by the aſtrologer, which often defeats the ends of the preſcription. It is ſaid, however, that the Perſian phyſicians are acute and ſagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no ſtrangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna.—Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country; many diſeaſes alſo are equally rare here, that are fatal in other places; ſuch as the gout, the ſtone, the ſmall-pox, conſumptions, and apoplexies. The Perſian practice of phyſic is therefore pretty much circumſcribed; and they are very ignorant in ſurgery, which is exerciſed by barbers, whoſe chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they truſt the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body. They are alſo totally unacquainted with anatomy.

The Perſians ſalute by an inclination of the head, and putting the right hand to the breaſt upon the heart. Before the ſovereign and great men, they bow with their faces three times towards the ground; but near relations and familiar companions ſalute thus: he who pays the compliment, preſſes one of the other perſons hands between both his own, and then gently raiſes it up to his forehead, which is expreſſive of the higheſt and moſt cordial eſteem.

The moſt magnificent remains of antiquity in Perſia are the ruins of Perſepolis, the ancient metropolis of that kingdom, conſiſting of ſuperb columns, ſpacious ſtair-caſes, grand portals, and beautiful pilaſters, adorned with figures in baſſo relievo. Accurate deſcriptions of theſe ſuperb remains of antiquity may be found in ſir John Chardin's and M. Le Brun's Travels, and in the fifth volume of the ancient part of the Univerſal Hiſtory. About a league diſtance from theſe ruins is a famous mountain, ſituated between two fine plains, to which the natives give the ſeveral appellations of Kabraſton Gauron, Nachs-Ruſtan, and Takt-Ruſtan. It is an entire rock, harder and capable of a better poliſh than marble. Having been levelled by art, its ſides are quite perpendicular, ſo that it has the appearance of a large wall; and upon it are a variety of figures, repreſented in baſs relief with great ſkill and beauty. At a ſmall diſtance from theſe figures are ſeveral tombs cut out of the rock, with two ſmall edifices, and ſeveral inſcriptions. Theſe are ſuppoſed to have been the burial-places of the ancient kings of Perſia, and many of the inſcriptions and figures are yet perfect; but others, through the brutal zeal of the Mahometans, who think it meritorious to deſtroy all kinds of images, and the injuries of time, are almoſt defaced. At Iſpahan is a pillar, erected by Shah Abbas, ſixty feet high, conſiſting of the ſkulls of beaſts. It is ſaid that ſome of his ſubjects having rebelled againſt him, he made a vow, that, on ſubduing them, he would erect ſuch a pillar of their ſkulls; but, upon their ſubmiſſion, he relented, and ſubſtituted thoſe of brutes, obliging each of the rebels to find one.

The river Mahmoudker, or the deafening river, is a very ſurpriſing natural curioſity. At ſome diſtance from Iſpahan there is a range of rocks, plain and even for a conſiderable ſpace, except that here and there they have openings, like the embraſures of baſtions; through theſe the winds paſs with amazing velocity. The river falls from theſe rocks into a noble baſon, partly wrought by the water itſelf, and partly by art. In aſcending the mountain the water is ſeen at the bottom of it like a ſleeping lake, interſperſed with rocks. It is ſuppoſed to be unfathomable, and, when ſtones are thrown into it, they cauſe a moſt amazing noiſe, which almoſt deafens the hearer, from which circumſtance it, in all probability, derives its name. Many are of opinion that this river does not derive its water from ſprings, but from the ſnow on the tops of the mountains, which, melting gradually, diſtills through the chinks of the rocks into this vaſt lake.

Near Gombroon are ſome baths, which, for the famous cures performed by them, juſtly merit a place among the natural curioſities of Perſia. The everlaſting fire at Baku has been already mentioned under the article religion.

The Perſian moſques are buildings ſet apart for public worſhip: they are of a ſquare form, and generally of ſtone; before the chief gate there is a ſquare court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whoſe roof is ſupported by marble pillars. Thoſe galleries ſerve for places of ablution, before the Mahometans go into the moſque. About every moſque there are ſix towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. Theſe towers, as well as the moſques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other embelliſhments; and from thence, inſtead of a bell, the people are called to pray by certain officers appointed for that purpoſe. At Sultania, once a noble city, but now greatly decayed, there is a prodigious large moſque, that contains the ſepulchre of Sultan Mahomet Chadabende, the founder of the city. This moſque hath three gates of fine poliſhed ſteel, which equal in bigneſs the gates of any church in Europe; the roof is of blue and white ſtones. At the entrance of it there is a beautiful fountain; the tower, which is of an octagonal form, is ſurrounded by eight other towers. Upon the whole, it is a ſtructure which aſtoniſhes the imagination, and gratifies the curioſity.

No woman is allowed to enter the moſque; nor can a man with his ſhoes or ſtockings on. Near moſt moſques is a place of entertainment for ſtrangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniences for reading the Koran, and praying. Near the moſque founded by Sha Iſmael, are the ruins of a triumphal arch built of free-ſtone.

The Perſian bagnios are uſually round, though ſome are ſquare. The roofs are covered with painted tiles, the walls are of a beautiful kind of white ſtone; each is covered with a dome. In the centre of the building is a large hall, floored with marble, and a capacious baſon to bathe, round which are the apartments to dreſs and undreſs in. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the firſt for dreſſing and undreſſing; the ſecond contains the water, and the third the bath.

When the baths are ready in the morning, a ſervant goes to the terrace on the top of the building, and blows a horn, to give public notice of the ſame. The men bathe in the morning, and the women in the afternoon about four o'clock. When the men have done bathing, the male attendants all withdraw, and are ſucceeded by the females, who are appointed to attend the women. No people of any very great conſideration, however, go to the public baths, as they generally have baths in their own houſes.

Bathing is not only enjoined to the Perſians by their religion, but it is particularly conducive to their health, on account of their never entirely undreſſing themſelves when they go to reſt. Add to this, they reckon it among their principal pleaſures.

Beſides being well rubbed by the attendants at the bagnios, the barbers ſhave them with incredible diſpatch

patch and eaſe, and there cut the nails both of their hands and feet, chafe the fleſh, and give them a very rough pull of both the arms, in order to ſtretch the nerves.

The Perſian harams, or ſeraglio's, which are appropriated for the women, are, from the moſt credible accounts of them, contrived according to the taſte and conveniency of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments; and as there is no country in the world where women are ſo ſtrictly guarded and confined as among the great men in Perſia, theſe rooms therefore are ſeldom or never entered by ſtrangers.

With reſpect to manufactures and commerce, it has been juſtly remarked, the Perſians equal, if not exceed all the manufacturers in the world in ſilk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in theſe join fancy, taſte, and elegance, to richneſs, neatneſs, and ſhew; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dyeing excels that of Europe. Their ſilver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preſerving their luſtre. Their embroideries and horſe-furniture are unequalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glaſs manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artiſts, which is ſaid to be owing to the ſcarcity of timber all over Perſia. Their jewellers and goldſmiths are clumſy workmen, and they are ignorant of lock-making and the manufacture of looking-glaſſes. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpreſſible hardſhips from the form of their government, which renders them ſlaves to their kings, who often engroſs either their labour or profits, as the exigencies of the ſtate, or other lucrative motives, may prompt them.

As the Perſians have little or no ſhipping, their trade is chiefly carried on in foreign bottoms. That between the Engliſh and other nations, by the gulph of Ormus, at Gombroon, was the moſt gainful they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great ſcheme of the Engliſh, in trading with the Perſians through Ruſſia, promiſed vaſt advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto anſwered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Peterſburgh is not fond of ſuffering the Engliſh to eſtabliſh themſelves upon the Caſpian Sea, the navigation of which is now poſſeſſed by the Ruſſians; but till the government of Perſia is in a more ſettled ſtate than at preſent, we can ſay nothing with certainty on that head.

The conſtitution and government of Perſia are extremely precarious, as reſting in the breaſt of a deſpotic and often capricious monarch. The Perſians, however, had ſome fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindneſs likewiſe was a diſqualification for the royal ſucceſſion. In other reſpects, the king's will was a law for the people. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counſellors, and the ſmalleſt diſobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Perſians have no degrees of nobility, ſo that the reſpect due to every man, on account of his high ſtation, expires with himſelf. The king has been known to prefer a younger ſon to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother. The inſtances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practiſed by the Mahometan kings of Perſia, are almoſt incredible, eſpecially during the two laſt centuries. The reaſon given to the chriſtian ambaſſadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their moſt celebrated princes, was, that the Perſians were ſuch brutes, and ſo inſenſible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exerciſe of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity.

No rank or condition of Perſians is exempted from ſevere taxations and ſervices. The crown claims one-third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his ſubjects, and likewiſe a third of ſilk and cotton. Even the water, that is let into fields and gardens, is ſubject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat per head. The governors of the provinces have particular lands aſſigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops, and the crown lands defray the expences of the court, king's houſehold, and great officers of ſtate. From the above ſtatement, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Perſian kings were prodigious; but, in the preſent diſtracted ſtate of that country, nothing can be ſaid with any certainty.

The military ſtrength of Perſia conſiſted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raiſed bodies of infantry. The troops are diſtinguiſhed into two bodies, called Kortſkies and Goulans: theſe are cavalry, and upon a peace-eſtabliſhment, the former amount to about 22,000, and the latter to about 8,000 men; they are generally well kept, and regularly paid. The kortſkies are the deſcendants of foreigners, and the goulans are made up of Georgian renegadoes, and ſlaves of all nations. The tangtchies or infantry are compoſed of the moſt hardy peaſants, and amount to about 50,000 men. The regular troops of horſe and foot brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; and according to the modern hiſtories of Perſia, they are eaſily recruited in caſe of a defeat.

The fortified towns and places in Perſia, are in general deſpicable, and they had no great naval power till the time of Kouli Khan, who built a royal fleet, in which was a man of war of eighty guns: but it is imagined that they are laid up in the ports, and rotten, as nothing hath been heard of them ſince the death of that uſurper. The arms of Perſia are a lion couchant looking at the ſun as he riſes over his back. The emperor's title of Shah, ſignifies diſpoſer of kingdoms. The Perſian monarch does not ſubſcribe his name to public inſtruments, but the deed runs in this ſtyle, viz. "This edict or act is given by him whom the univerſe obeys."

From the diſtracted ſtate of Perſia for many ſucceſſive years, the political diviſion of the provinces cannot be aſcertained; but the moſt remarkable places in the empire have been viſited of late years by ſeveral merchants and others, who went upon embaſſies; the moſt authentic and intereſting of whoſe accounts we ſhall blend for the information of our readers, by deſcribing ſome of their cities and principal towns.

Iſpahan, the capital of Perſia, is ſituated in a delightful and extenſive plain, ſurrounded by mountains, on the banks of the river Zenderoud, over which there are three fine bridges. The fertility of the ſoil, the mildneſs of the ſeaſons, and the fine temperature of the air, all conſpire to render this city one of the moſt inviting and deſirable in the world. The mountains with which it is ſurrounded, defend it equally from the ſultry heats of the ſummer, and the piercing winds of the winter ſeaſons; and the plain on which it ſtands, is watered by ſeveral rivers, which contribute both to its ornament and uſe; the water of theſe ſtreams being ſweet, pleaſant, and wholeſome, almoſt beyond compariſon.

The extent of Iſpahan is very great, not leſs, perhaps, than twenty miles within the walls, which are of earth, poorly built, and ſo covered with houſes and ſhaded with gardens, that in many places it is dfficult to diſcover them. The number of inhabitants were formerly computed at 650,000; but ſince the reign of Kouli Khan, who almoſt depopulated the city, the number is vaſtly decreaſed, not one third of the houſes being inhabited, and many of them levelled with the ground.

The ſtreets are in general long, narrow, crooked, and unpaved; but ſome of them are broad and handſome,

ſome, adorned with canals and fountains, and, on each ſide a row of lofty trees planted. As it ſeldom rains here, the city is rendered extremely diſagreeable in ſummer by the duſt; though the citizens, to remove this inconvenience as much as poſſible, frequently cauſe the ſtreets to be watered, during the intenſe heat.

Moſt of the public buildings are rather neat than magnificent, though here are ſome ſumptuous palaces, and handſome houſes. The royal palace is very ſpacious, being near a league and a half in compaſs, and contains ſome very grand apartments. The royal moſque, the Kayſerich, where all ſorts of foreign commodities are expoſed to ſale, and the mint, called Serraah Khoneh, where the current money of the kingdom is coined, are all noble ſtructures; and the royal ſquare, or Meidan Shah, is one of the fineſt in the world. There are in Iſpahan 160 moſques, 1800 caravanſeras, 260 public baths, and a prodigious number of fine ſquares.

This city has eight, or, as ſome ſay, ten gates, beſides poſterns; the ſuburbs are very large, and, beſides natives, Iſpahan formerly contained above 10,000 Indians, all ſupported by trade, 20,000 Georgians, Circaſſians, and Tartars: with a conſiderable number of Engliſh, Dutch, and Portugueſe, and a few French.

The bridge at Zulpha, one of the ſuburbs of Iſpahan, is eſteemed the fineſt ſtructure in Perſia. It is built of brick, with edgings of free-ſtone, and is almoſt level, the middle of it being not much higher than the ends. It is above 300 paces in length, and twenty in breadth, and ſupported by a great number of low ſtone arches. On each ſide is a gallery eight or nine feet broad, extending from one end to the other, raiſed ſeveral ſteps above the level of the bridge, with a number of apertures to let in the air and light, and give a proſpect of the river. Theſe galleries or covered walks are not entirely appropriated to foot paſſengers; they are frequently uſed by horſemen in winter, when the river overflows, and fills the middle paſſage of the bridge, which is properly deſigned for horſes. Over the galleries is a platform, but ſo much expoſed to the ſun that it is ſeldom frequented. The moſt remarkable part of this bridge is a paſſage along the bed of the river, when the water is low in ſummer, for the convenience of foot paſſengers in that hot ſeaſon; for the ſtones are ſo placed, that a perſon may ſtep from one to the other without wetting his ſhoes; and proper openings are made through the piers, from one end of the bridge to the other.

Gombroon, or, as the natives call it, Bander-Abaſſi, owes its preſent wealth and grandeur to the demolition of Ormus, and the deſtruction of the Portugueſe empire in the Eaſt Indies. It was built by the great Shah Abbas, and is now very juſtly eſteemed one of the chief marts in the Eaſt.

This city is large, and, from the extenſive commerce carried on in it, by the Engliſh and Dutch factories, as well as the natives, is extremely populous; but its ſituation is remarkably bad. It is defended on the land-ſide by a ſingle wall only; but towards the ſea are erected ſeveral ſmall forts, with a platform, two caſtles, and two ſtone baſtions, mounted with cannon, to ſecure it and the road from the attempts of an enemy.

The ſtreets are narrow, and the houſes in moſt of them ſo out of repair, ſome half ruined, and others entirely ſo, that a ſtranger would ſuppoſe the town had been ſacked and ravaged by an enemy, not a veſtige of the wealth really contained in the place appearing in view. The Banians, or ſhop-keepers, have moſt of them tolerable houſes; they are in general built of earth and lime, but the better ſort are of ſtone; moſt of them have ventilators on the top, which contributes greatly to the health of the inhabitants.

§

Gombroon is an unhealthy place; the moſt ſickly months are from April to October, during which time the genteel part of the inhabitants retire into the country, winter being the only time for commerce.

There are great plenty of ſheep, goats, hairs, pigeons, partridges, &c. and wheat in ſuch abundance, that the poor ſubſiſt chiefly on bread and dates. Rice is imported from India; and the adjacent country affords apricots, peaches, pomegranates, and other delicious fruits, in great abundance. But amidſt all theſe advantages there is the greateſt ſcarcity of freſh water; not a ſpring or well is found in the town, or nearer to it than Aſhen, from which place all the inhabitants of this city are ſupplied with water, though at the diſtance of ſeven miles; and perſons of condition keep a camel conſtantly employed in fetching freſh and wholeſome water.

About the year 1631, the Engliſh began to ſettle here, when, in conſideration of their ſervices againſt the Portugueſe, Shah Abbas granted them half the cuſtoms of that port. They enjoyed this lucrative donation, till they began to neglect the ſervices they had ſtipulated, when it was taken from them. They have ſtill a factory here, and at Aſhen they have a country-houſe with noble gardens, to which the factors repair for their amuſement. As the natives have no ſhips of their own, and are entirely ignorant of navigation, they ſend their goods to Surat, and other Indian marts, in Engliſh and Dutch bottoms, at an exorbitant price, ſo that great part of the company's profit ariſes from freights.

The commodities of the Gombroon market are, fine wines of different kinds, raiſins, almonds, prunellas, dates, piſtachio nuts, ginger, ſilks, carpets, leather, galbanum, ammoniac, aſſafœtida, tragacanth, with other gums, and a variety of drugs.

In 33 deg. 51 min. of north lat. lies the city of Katſchan, in the midſt of a fine fertile plain; this is one of the fineſt cities in Perſia, the houſes in general being handſome, and the public ſtructures ſuperior to thoſe of any other city; the country about it is ſo fruitful, that the very pooreſt inhabitants live luxuriouſly. The city is exceeding populous, not only from the great number of natives, but from the vaſt influx of foreigners, who flock thither from all parts, particularly from India, to carry on trade; the walls and fortifications are made of a kind of potter's clay. The Sophi hath a grand garden here, in the midſt of which is a ſummer palace, reputed to have a thouſand doors and windows. The greateſt inconvenience in Katſchan is the want of water, as they have not any but what is ill-taſted, thick, and muddy.

Reſched, which is in 31 deg. north lat. and in 50 deg. long. from London, is the capital of the province of Ghilan, which is one of the moſt fertile, rich, and pleaſant provinces in all Perſia. It is large and populous, but hath not the leaſt fortification. The ſtreets are agreeable and planted with trees; but the houſes in general are meaner than thoſe of any other city in the empire; they are all covered with tiles, or ſlates. The market-place is capacious, and contains many good ſhops; and all the neceſſaries of life are exceedingly cheap.

Derbent is ſituated in 41 deg. 15 min. north lat. and in 51 deg. eaſt long. it is about three miles in length, and near five hundred paces in breadth; the caſtle and wall are five feet thick, and it is ſuppoſed they were built by Alexander the Great. They appear to be built with free-ſtone, but in reality are a compoſition of pounded muſcle-ſhells, and pieces of free-ſtone beaten to powder, which being moulded into the form of bricks, are ſo excellently cemented together, that the whole compoſition becomes harder than any marble; a garriſon of five hundred ſoldiers is kept here.

Schiras,

Schiras, which lies about two hundred miles to the ſouthward of Iſpahan, is a place of conſiderable trade. The wines made here are the beſt in Perſia; the fruits and flowers are incomparable, and the ſurrounding country is a perfect paradiſe; but only about four thouſand of the houſes are at preſent inhabited: it is the capital of Pars, the ancient Perſia; and its college for the ſtudy of oriental literature, is one of the beſt in Perſia. Though the ſtreets are narrow, the buildings in general are ſuperb and elegant, and the moſques are innumerable.

HISTORY OF PERSIA.

Perſia has been inhabited from the moſt early times: it was peopled by Elam the ſon of Shem, ſoon after the confuſion at Babel. It conſtituted part of the firſt monarchy called the Aſſyrian empire, founded by Nimrod, Belus, or Baal, about 200 years after the flood. But the foundation of the empire of Perſia, ſingly conſidered, was laid by Cyrus about the year before Chriſt 556. This prince, in the firſt year of his reign, publiſhed the famous edict, by which the Jews were permitted to return to Jeruſalem; reſtoring at the ſame time all the veſſels of the temple, which Nebuchadnezzar had brought from Judea, and placed in the temple of Belus, his god. The empire continued in its luſtre about 227 years, when it terminated in the perſon of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander the Great.

On the death of that monarch, whoſe dominions were divided among his principal officers, Perſia, together with Babylonia and Syria, fell to the ſhare of Seleucus, the ſon of Antiochus. The Romans afterwards ſubdued all the territories poſſeſſed by the ſucceſſors of Alexander's generals, except Perſia, which ſtill continued to have princes of its own, who more than once defeated the Roman legions.

The Saracens, about the year 630, made a conqueſt of Perſia, and kept poſſeſſion of the throne during an interval of 70 years, when they were driven out by the Turks. About the year 1260, the Tartars and Scythians, under the conduct of two of the ſons of Zingis Khan, defeated the Turks, and took poſſeſſion of the empire. Tamerlane, after defeating Bajazet, reduced both Perſia and Turkey in Aſia. On his return to Samarcand, the capital of his dominions, with a great number of Perſian captives, Cheik Aider, a doctor of the Mahommedan law, highly eſteemed in that country, obtained the releaſe of moſt of theſe priſoners. This act of kindneſs greatly increaſed his reputation with his countrymen; and Tamerlane having appointed no governor of the weſtern provinces, the Cheik uſurped the office; and, pretending that he was lineally deſcended from Ali, the ſon-in-law and genuine ſucceſſor of Mahomet, took upon himſelf the title of Caliph, which includes both the ſpiritual and civil juriſdiction. This event happened in the year 1400. Iſmael Sophi ſucceeded his father, and being a brave ſucceſsful prince, was confirmed in his poſſeſſion of the throne by the unanimous voice of the people. At his death Shah Tahmas obtained the ſceptre of Perſia: but being a very cruel prince, he was depoſed by his ſubjects, and his brother Codabundi placed on the throne.

Codabundi deceaſed in 1585, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Shah Abbas, a virtuous and warlike prince. He recovered the province of Candahor from the emperor of Indoſtan, reduced the kingdoms of Lar and Ormus, and expelled the Turks from great part of Armenia and Georgia. He reigned forty years, and was by far the greateſt prince of the Sophi dynaſty. He was ſucceeded by his grandſon Shah Sophi, a cruel and tyrannical prince, an enemy to virtue, and a ſcandal to humanity. His ſucceſſors followed his ſteps, till the people, rouſed at laſt by their ſufferings, exerted the rights of human nature; and in the year 1701 depoſed Huſſein, a prince of the Sophi race, and put him to death; together with all his family, except Shah Tahmas, who eſcaped from the rebels, and took refuge in the northern parts of Perſia.—Mahmud, who headed the rebels, took poſſeſſion of the throne. He did not, however, long enjoy the imperial ſceptre, which he had purchaſed by the blood of his maſter; he was ſoon after murdered by Eſref, one of his general officers, who uſurped the throne. In the mean time prince Tahmas raiſed a powerful army, and was joined by a great number of royaliſts, and amongſt the reſt, by Kouli Khan, a famous partizan on the frontiers of Uſbec Tartary. Eſref, whoſe cruelty and injuſtice had rendered him obnoxious to the people, was defeated, taken priſoner, and put to death. Tahmas aſcended the throne of his anceſtors, and ſent Kouli Khan, at the head of a numerous army, againſt the Turks. The Perſians were victorious, and Kouli Khan recovered all the places the Othmans had taken on the frontiers of Perſia during the late troubles. Haughty by nature, and inſolent from ſucceſs, Kouli Khan beheld the honours conferred on him by the ſophi with contempt. He complained that his ſervices were neglected; but nurſed in ſilence the bloody deſign he had formed againſt his maſter. He courted popularity, and when his ſcheme was ripe for execution, he dropped the maſk that had hitherto concealed his intentions. He aſſumed the names of Tahmas Kouli Khan and Nadir Shah, rebelled againſt his ſovereign, took him priſoner, and put him ſecretly to death.

All oppoſition being thus removed, Shah Nadir mounted the Perſian throne. Cruel and fierce by nature, and happy only in the midſt of war and tumult, the uſurper turned his arms againſt the neighbouring princes. His expedition into Indoſtan, and the amazing treaſure he collected in that famous empire, have been already mentioned in the hiſtory of the Indies. Uſbeck Tartary next excited the ambition of Kouli Khan; he conquered that country, and thinking his arms invincible, attempted to reduce the Dagheſtan Tartars; but fortune, that had hitherto attended his ſtandards, now forſook him. He found difficulties which all his ferocious abilities could not remove. The precipices of Dagheſtan oppoſed his march, and his victorious army was cut off by Tartar detachments in the defiles of the mountains, without his being able to force the enemy to an engagement. The misfortunes of one campaign were not however ſufficient to intimidate Nadir; he led his forces againſt the Turks, and defeated them in ſeveral battles. He laid ſiege to Bagdat, but could not ſucceed, and was obliged, after many efforts, to abandon the enterprize. His next attempt (for his reſtleſs ſoul could never be idle) was againſt the religion of his country; he was determined to introduce the tenets of Omar, inſtead of thoſe of Ali, embraced by the Perſians; but ſoon found that it is much eaſier to conquer force than bigotry; the great principle of his government was terror, which was here exerted in vain. Exaſperated at an oppoſition he could not ſubdue, he became one of the moſt cruel tyrants that ever diſgraced mankind. He put his own ſon to death, and formed the deteſtable deſign of exterminating all his family and relations. Self-preſervation now oppoſed the diabolical purpoſe; his actions were thoſe of a madman, and his relations and chief officers aſſaſſinated him in his tent. This event happened in the year 1747. The cruelty of Nadir had deſtroyed all the immediate branches of the royal family, and the throne became the ſport of fortune. One pretender after another ſtarted up and fell, either by open force, or the ſecret machinations of treachery. Anarchy and deſtruction overſpread the whole empire; the fields were laid waſte, the cities were plundered, the inhabitants murdered, and every diſtrict exhibited a ſcene of horror and blood. Famine at laſt ſheathed

the ſword of deſtruction, and Kerim Khan was crowned at Tauris in the year 1763. Since that period the Perſians have enjoyed the happineſs of peace; but it is very probable that the miſeries and diſtreſs which have been introduced by rebellion, will not for a long time be removed: trade is ſtill in a languiſhing condition, great part of the country remains uncultivated, and poverty and toil have uſurped the place of affluence and eaſe.

CHAP. XV.

ARABIA.

Situation, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Soil, Produce, Inhabitants, Language, Religon, &c.

ARABIA is ſituated between the 35th and 60th deg. of eaſt longitude, and between the 12th and 30th of north latitude; extending about 3000 miles in length, and 1200 in breadth, and contains 700,000 ſquare miles. It is bounded by Turkey on the north; by Perſia and the gulphs of Baſſora and Ormus, on the eaſt; by the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the weſt; and by the Indian Ocean, on the ſouth.

This country is divided into, 1. Arabia Petræa, N. W. 2. Arabia Deſerta, in the middle. 3. Arabia Felix, S. E.

Arabia Petræa has for its chief town, Suez, eaſt long. 33 deg. 27 min. north lat. 29 deg. 50 min.

Arabia Deſerta is ſubdivided into Haggiaz or Mecca, and Tehama; whoſe chief towns are, Mecca, eaſt long. 43 deg. 30 min. lat. 21 deg. 20 min. Siden, Medina, and Dhafar.

Arabia Felix is ſubdivided into Mocha, Hadramut, Caſſeen, Segur, Oman or Muſcat, Jamama, and Bahara. The town of Sibet belongs to Mocha, and that of Elcalf to Bahara; the reſt are the ſame as the provinces.

This country has always preſerved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally ſaid, ſignifies a robber or free-booter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is ſaid to ſignify both a thief, and an inhabitant of the deſert. Theſe names juſtly belong to the Arabians, for they ſeldom let any merchandize paſs through the country without extorting ſomething from, if not robbing, the owners. Thus concerning the Arabians, who are the poſterity of Iſhmael, is the prediction in ſcripture, Gen. xvi. 12. fulfilled, where it is ſaid, "He will be a wild man; his hand will be againſt every man, and every man's hand againſt him: and he ſhall dwell in the preſence of all his brethren."

The principal mountains in Arabia are thoſe called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, and the mountains of Sinai and Horeb, in Arabia Petræa, eaſt of the Red Sea. The latter are ſituated on the north ſide of the deſert of Sinai, and very ſteep and high, but not proportionably broad; and though a road is cut all the way up to their ſummits, the aſcent is very difficult and fatiguing.

The principal rivers are the Euphrates, which waſhes the north-eaſt limits, and the Tigris; both which have been already mentioned in the deſcription of Turkey in Aſia. Beſides theſe, there are few rivers, fountains, or ſprings in this country, which is almoſt ſurrounded with ſeas; namely, the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Perſia and Ormus. Roſalgate and Muſſedon are the chief capes or promontories.

Arabia being ſituated between the 2d, 3d, 4th, and 5th climates, the longeſt day in the ſouth is about fourteen hours and an half, and in the north eighteen hours and a half. A conſiderable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer paſſes over Arabia Felix; ſo that the air is exceſſively dry and hot, and, in many places, very unſalutary, particularly near the coaſt.

The air is ſaid to be the moſt ſultry and dry in the northern parts, and the hot poiſonous winds, which blow there as well as in Perſia, often prove fatal to thoſe who breathe them. Towards the ſouth, the heat is ſomewhat alleviated by the prodigious dews which generally fall in the night, and refreſh the earth.

The heat of the climate is greatly increaſed by the nature of the ſoil, which, in a great meaſure, conſiſts of barren rocky mountains, or ſandy deſerts of prodigious extent, over which there is no beaten paths; ſo that the caravans, obliged by the exceſſive heat to travel in the night, and having no tracks, are guided, as at ſea, by a compaſs, or by the ſtars. "Here," ſays Dr. Shaw, "are no paſtures ſtored with flocks, nor vallies ſtanding thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a loneſome deſolate wilderneſs, no otherwiſe diverſified than by plains covered with ſands, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unleſs ſometimes at the equinoxes, refreſhed with rain; and the intenſeneſs of the cold in the night is almoſt equal to that of the heat in the day." This, however, is not to be underſtood of the ſouthern parts of Arabia, where the ſoil, refreſhed by the dews already mentioned, is in general exceeding fertile.

The cultivated lands in the ſouthern parts of Arabia Felix, which are chiefly about the towns near the ſea-coaſt, yield exceeding fine coffee, manna, myrrh, caſſia, aloes, balm of Gilead, frankincenſe, ſpikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, and cardamoms; oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, dates, and other fruits, with a ſmall quantity of corn and wine. At Betelfagui the coffee-tree is cultivated.

The Arabian horſes are held in the higheſt eſteem all over Europe for their ſwiftneſs and beauty, and preferred to thoſe of any other country for ſtallions; the breed of Engliſh horſes, particularly, have been much improved by them. The fineſt ſort is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, where Mocha is ſituated. But the moſt uſeful animals to the Arabs are their camels and dromedaries, which are fitted by nature for travelling in parched and ſandy deſerts, their ſtomachs being formed in ſuch a manner, that they can from thence throw the water up into their throats. This peculiarity enables them to travel ſeven or eight days without drinking. It is ſaid, that theſe animals can diſtinguiſh the ſcent of water at a conſiderable diſtance, and the inſtant they ſmell it ſet out on a ſwift trot, and never ſtop till they reach the ſpot where it is found. They uſually carry eight hundred weight upon their backs, which is never taken off during the longeſt journeys, for they naturally kneel down to reſt, and riſe again with their load.

Though the Arabs in general are a wandering people, and conſequently very little acquainted with commerce; there is, however, a conſiderable trade carried on from Mocha by the Engliſh and Dutch companies ſettled there, in coffee, olibanum, myrrh, aloes, liquid ſtorax, white and yellow arſenic, gum Arabic, balm of Gilead, and other drugs.

As to the inhabitants, they are, in common with moſt of the Aſiatics, of a ſwarthy complexion, middle ſtature, and thin, with black hair and eyes. They are ſaid to be a brave people, excellent horſemen, very ſwift of foot, expert at the bow and lance, and, ſince they became acquainted with fire-arms, good markſmen. Some of them reſide in cities and towns upon the ſea-coaſts, and apply themſelves to trade, and cultivate the ſciences; but the far greater part have no ſettled habitation, roving, with their flocks and herds, from place to place, for the conveniency of

of water and paſture; and, during their abode in any particular ſpot, they live in tents. Among themſelves, and towards ſuch ſtrangers as they receive as friends, they are honeſt, civil, and humane; but their general character is that of free-booters or robbers, which the word Arab is ſaid to imply. Their food is chiefly rice, fiſh, herbs, veniſon, fowl, and moſt kinds of fleſh; but they prefer that of camels. Like the Jews, they always drain the blood from every thing they eat, and abſtain from ſuch fiſh as have no ſcales. Their drink is chiefly water and ſherbet, for they have no ſtrong liquors.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue ſhirt, girt about them with a white ſaſh or girdle; and ſome of them have a veſt of fur or ſheep ſkins over it. They likewiſe wear drawers, and ſometimes ſlippers, but no ſtockings; and they have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them, however, go naked; but the women are ſo wrapped up, that no part of them can be ſeen but their eyes.

We ſhall now give ſome account of the caravans, and manner of travelling through the deſerts:—A caravan implies a company of merchants, travellers, or pilgrims, who, for their greater ſecurity, form a troop, in order to aſſiſt each other in travelling through the deſerts, which are infeſted by wild Arabs and other banditti. But no caravan can be formed without procuring the permiſſion in writing of the prince in whoſe dominions the caravan is formed, as well as that of thoſe through whoſe territories it is to paſs.—Theſe permiſſions always expreſs the number of perſons and carriages, and the quantity of merchandize, which are to compoſe the caravan, as well as the merchants to whom the goods belong. They alſo regulate every thing relating to its police and government, during the whole journey.

Caravans are generally diſtinguiſhed into four kinds; the heavy caravans, which are compoſed of elephants, camels, dromedaries, and horſes; the light caravans, in which there are but few elephants; the common caravans, in which there are none of thoſe unwieldy animals; and the horſe caravans, in which horſes only are uſed.

The heavy caravans are regulated by the following portions: when there are five hundred elephants, they add a thouſand camels, a thouſand dromedaries, and two thouſand horſes. The eſcort conſiſts of four thouſand cavalry. Two men are neceſſary for leading one elephant, ſeven men for eleven camels, and five men for three dromedaries. This multitude of ſervants, together with the officers and paſſengers, whoſe number is not limited, ſerve to ſupport the eſcort, in caſe of an attack; and therefore render the caravan at once more formidable and more ſecure.

The Arabian princes ſubſiſt principally in robbing; they traverſe the deſerts in troops, ſo that the caravans always travel with the greateſt precaution, being drawn up in a very regular manner. None ſtray from the caravan, nor deviate from the poſition aſſigned them at their firſt ſetting out. The wandering Arabs, as ſoon as they have intelligence of a caravan having entered the deſerts, ſend out ſpies to make the neceſſary obſervations on the number and force of the eſcort. If they find they are not able to attack the caravan in form, they hover round it, in order to pilfer from the merchants during the night; but, if they think themſelves able to defeat the eſcort, they approach boldly, and, begin the attack with the utmoſt fury. If the eſcort ſtand firm, the Arabs generally fly with the greateſt precipitation; for, being ſtrangers to military diſcipline, they hardly ever rally after being once repulſed; but, if the eſcort give way, the whole is thrown into confuſion, the caravan is plundered, and the whole convoy, except the foreign merchants, ſold for ſlaves. It is therefore no wonder if travellers of all kinds, and even pilgrims themſelves, who croſs theſe barren tracks from motives of devotion, are ſtruck with terror on entering the deſerts. Nor is even the moſt powerful caravan always ſecure, for they have more than once been attacked and plundered. In the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians, under the command of one of their princes, attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 16,000 perſons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though eſcorted by a Turkiſh army. On the ſea-coaſt they are mere pirates, and make prizes of every veſſel they can maſter, without diſtinction.

The whole commerce of the Indies was formerly carried on by caravans; but, ſince the diſcovery of a paſſage by the Cape of Good Hope, the caravan trade has been upon the decline. The dreadful wars carried on in the Leſſer Aſia and Egypt, whereby theſe rich countries were ſtripped of their wealth and inhabitants, increaſed the evil; and the exactions of the Turks, added to the late dreadful troubles in Perſia, have almoſt annihilated the whole. Few caravans now croſs the deſerts, except thoſe that paſs annually to Mecca on account of religion; and even theſe begin to decline, becauſe the merchants are no longer able to carry on their former trade with India. The roving Arabs raiſe a contribution on the caravans; thoſe which travel from Damas to Mecca procure an uninterrupted journey for the conſideration of 150,000 livres, to which the grand ſeignior is ſubjected.

Many of the wild Arabs are ſtill Pagans, but the people in general profeſs Mahometaniſm. Of this religion we ſhall give an account in the Hiſtory of Mahomet, their countryman.

Arabia was, in former ages, famous for learning and learned men, who were ſkilled in all the liberal arts; and many of the Arabian performances in phyſic, aſtronomy, and mathematics, ſhew the authors have been perſons of great genius and application; but there is ſcarcely a country at preſent where the people are ſo univerſally ignorant. The vulgar language uſed in the three Arabias is the Arabeſk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewiſe ſpoken, with ſome variation of dialect, over great part of the Eaſt, from Egypt to the court of the great mogul.

The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is ſaid to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and, by the people of the eaſt, accounted the richeſt, moſt energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their ſchools, as Greek and Latin is among Europeans, and uſed by Mahometans in their worſhip. The books which treat of it, ſay, they have no leſs than a thouſand terms to expreſs the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*. In this language the Koran was written, and they will not ſuffer it to be read in any other: they look upon it to have been the language of Paradiſe, and think no man can be maſter of it without a miracle, as conſiſting of ſeveral millions of words.

Sir William Jones has lately tranſlated into Engliſh ſeven Arabian poems, called the Moalakat, which are preſerved in the temple of Mecca, or ſuſpended on its walls or gates, and afford a fine ſpecimen of oriental poetry, as to the dramatic paſtoral. As a ſpecimen of theſe poems may ſerve to gratify the curioſity of our readers, and alſo diſplay a lively and entertaining view of the Arabian cuſtoms and modes of living, we have therefore tranſcribed from one of them the following ſtanzas:

1. "Deſolate are the manſions of the fair, the ſtations in Minia, where they reſted, and thoſe where they fixed their abodes! Wild are the hills of Goul; and deſerted is the ſummit of Rijaam."

2. "The canabs of Rayaan are deſtroyed: the remains of them are laid bare, and ſmoothed by the floods, like characters engraved on the ſolid rocks."

3. "Dear ruins! many a year has been cloſed, many a month, holy and unhallowed, has elapſed, ſince

ſince I exchanged tender vows with the fair inhabitants."

4. "The rainy conſtellations of ſpring have made their hills green and luxuriant: the drops from the thunder clouds have drenched them with profuſe as well as with gentle ſhowers."

5. "Showers from every nightly cloud, from every cloud veſting the horizon at day-break, and from every evening-cloud, reſponſive with hoarſe murmurs." (&c.)

6. "Here the wild eringo-plants raiſe their heads; here the antelopes bring forth their young by the ſides of the valley, and here the oſtriches drop their eggs."

7. "The large eyed wild cows lie ſuckling their young a few days old: their young, who will ſoon become a herd on the plain."

8. "The torrents have cleared the rubbiſh, and diſcloſed the traces of habitations, as the reeds of a writer reſtore efaced letters in a book;"

9. "Or as the black duſt, ſprinkled over the varied marks on a fair hand, brings to view, with a brighter tint, the blue ſtains of woad."

10. "I ſtood aſking news of the ruins concerning their lovely habitants; but what avail my queſtions to dreary rocks, who anſwer them only by their echo?"

11. "In the plains, which now are naked, a populous city once dwelled: but they decamped at early dawn, and nothing now remains but the canals, which encircled their tents; and the Thumaam plants, with which they were repaired."

12. "How were thy tender affections raiſed, when the damſels of the tribe departed; when they hid themſelves in carriages of cotton, like antelopes in their lair; and the tents, as they are ſtruck, gave a piercing ſound!"

13. "They were concealed in vehicles, whoſe ſides were well covered with awnings and carpets, with fine ſpun curtains and pictured veſts."

14. "A company of maidens were ſeated in them, with black eyes and graceful motions, like the wild heifers of Tudah, or the roes of Wegera, tenderly gazing on their young."

15. "They haſtened their camels till the ſultry vapour gradually ſtole them from thy ſight, and they ſeemed to paſs through a vale, wild with tamariſks, and rough with large ſtones, like the valley of Beiſha."

In theſe countries, time is meaſured by hour glaſſes; and, in ſome parts of Arabia Petræa, they have calendars that were left them by their anceſtors, which are rather curious, and in which the ſun's place, the ſemidiurnal and nocturnal arch, the length of the twilight, and the hours of prayer, are inſerted in their proper columns, and calculated to a moment.

They know nothing of algebra, or numerical arithmetic, though their anceſtors furniſhed us with the characters of the one, and with the name at leaſt of the other; yet they have a way of reckoning by putting their hands into each other's ſleeves, and touching one another with a certain joint or finger ſo expreſſively that, without even moving their lips, they can conclude bargains or agreements. They have, however, if you believe them, ſome wiſe men among them, who are ſo ſkilled in figures as to be able, by certain combinations of numbers, to form the moſt wonderful calculations. But Arabia is the boaſted ſeat of wonders!

The principal places and cities in Arabia come next under our conſideration.

The deſert of Sinai is a beautiful plain, near nine miles long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-eaſt, but, to the ſouthward, is cloſed by ſome of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make ſuch encroachments upon the plain as to divide it into two, each ſo capacious as to be ſufficient to receive the whole Iſraelitiſh camp.

Mount Horeb, where Moſes kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he ſaw the burning buſh, may be ſeen from Mount Sinai. On theſe mountains are many chapels and cells, poſſeſſed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jeruſalem, pretend to ſhew the very ſpot where every miracle or remarkable tranſaction recorded in Scripture, was performed.

There are few places worthy notice in Arabia. The principal cities are Mecca, Medina, Mocha, Aden, Muſchat, and Suez; and thoſe only will be deſcribed. The two former are the centre of the devotion of all Mahometans; and the four latter the principal places of trade.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and celebrated for being the birth-place of Mahomet, is ſituated forty-two miles to the eaſt of the Red Sea, in ſo barren a ſpot, that the country round it affords no ſuſtenance either for man or beaſt; ſo that the city is ſupplied with corn, &c. by two caravans, which arrive there, one in the ſummer, and the other in the winter, annually. All the water from the ſprings in the town is bitter and unfit to drink, which obliges the inhabitants to preſerve the rain water in ciſterns. There is indeed a well in the neighbourhood, called by the Arabs Zemzem, which they hold in the higheſt veneration, believing it to be the ſame which the angel pointed out to Hagar when her ſon Iſhmael was periſhing with thirſt. The pilgrims, who reſort to this city, always drink of the water of this well, to which they aſcribe a number of fabulous virtues. It is of a brackiſh taſte, and cauſes eruptions on the bodies of thoſe who drink it in any great quantity.

Hammam Faraun is the name of a hot ſpring, which riſes by two apertures out of a rock, at the foot of a high mountain. It is uſed in baths by the neighbouring ſick, who commonly ſtay forty days for cure, during which their only food is a fruit called Laſſaf, which grows here. The tradition that the Jews paſſed this way, and that Pharaoh's army was drowned here, has occaſioned this place to receive the name of Birket-el-Faraun. The Arabs imagine that Pharaoh is doing penance at the bottom of this well, and vomits up the ſulphurous vapour with which the water is impregnated.

The moſque in this city is eſteemed the moſt magnificent of any temple in the world. Its lofty roof, raiſed in form of a dome, and covered with gold, and the two beautiful towers, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a moſt ſuperb appearance, and are conſpicuous at a very great diſtance. This temple has an hundred gates, with a window over each; is three hundred and ſeventy cubits long, three hundred and fifteen broad, and ſupported by four hundred and thirty-four pillars. The Mahometans pretend that this moſque is erected on the very ſpot where Abraham built his dwelling-houſe, which has been preſerved ever ſince, and ſtands in the centre of the temple. They call it Al-Caabah, the Holy-Houſe, or chapel, and ſay, that it was firſt erected by Adam; but, being deſtroyed by the deluge, was, by the command of God, rebuilt by Abraham and Iſhmael. It is about fifteen feet long, twelve broad, and thirty high. The door is of ſilver; the walls are conſtantly covered with hangings of fine ſilk, beautifully wrought, and girt round with two belts of gold, one near the bottom, and the other near the top. In this houſe the Mahometans alſo affirm that their great prophet was born, and every Muſſulman is obliged, by his religion, to viſit it once in his life, or to ſend a deputy; ſo that the number of pilgrims who annually reſort thither is incredible.

Medina is ſituated about 250 miles north of Mecca, and fifty from the Red Sea. It is famous for being the place which Mahomet choſe for his reſidence when he was driven out of Mecca, and likewiſe that of his interment. The moſque, which contains his ſepulchre, is a ſtructure of vaſt magnificence, and

ſtyled the Moſt Holy. It is ſupported by 400 ſtately columns, and embelliſhed with 300 ſilver lamps, continually burning. The cupola, which is but ſmall, is covered with plates of ſilver, and under it is raiſed the prophet's tomb of white marble, encloſed in ſuch a manner that it can only be viewed through windows, made for that purpoſe, and latticed with ſilver. The inſide is enrched with ſtones of immenſe value, particularly that part which is over the head of the prophet. At the foot of the coffin is a golden creſcent, the workmanſhip of which is greatly admired, being curiouſly wrought, and adorned with precious ſtones. The coffin is covered with cloth of gold, and over it is a rich canopy of ſilver tiſſue, both which are renewed annually by the baſhaw of Egypt, according to the orders he receives, for this purpoſe, from the grand ſeignior. The camel which carries it derives a ſort of ſanctity from it, and is never to be uſed in any drudgery afterwards. The old pall and canopy are always cut to pieces, and ſold to the ſuperſtitious Mahometans as ſacred relics. The place where the coffin lies, is ſupported by black marble pillars, and encompaſſed by a baluſtrade of ſilver, hung with a number of lamps of the ſame metal, kept continually burning. Vaſt numbers of pilgrims reſort to this city, but not in ſuch multitudes as to Mecca; for this journey is not enjoined expreſsly by their religion, though ſuch as perform it are entitled to great privileges, and eſteemed ſaints ever after. Chriſtians are forbid approaching either Mecca or Medina within a limited diſtance, on pain of being burnt alive.

Mocha is a port town, ſituated on the Red Sea, and gives name to a kingdom of conſiderable extent along the ſouthern coaſt of Arabia. It has four gates and as many towers; the buildings are lofty, and tolerably regular: they are covered with a chinam or ſtucco, that gives a dazzling whiteneſs to them. The harbour is ſemicircular, the circumference of the wall is two miles, and there are ſeveral handſome moſques here. This city is now the emporium for the trade of all India to the Red Sea, and the coffee exported from thence is eſteemed ſuperior to that of any other place. It has already been obſerved, that the Engliſh and Dutch companies have houſes there, and carry on a conſiderable commerce. The only inconvenience they ſuſtain is from the violence and exactions of the Arabian princes; for the king's cuſtoms are eaſy, being fixed at three per cent. to all Europeans.

Aden is likewiſe a conſiderable place for trade, on the Indian Ocean, being ſituated in the kingdom, about 120 miles ſouth-eaſt of that city, and not far from the Streights of Babelmandel. It ſtands at the foot of ſeveral high mountains, on the ſummits of which the Arabians have erected five or ſix forts, with ſeveral fortifications, to guard the paſſes. This town is well ſupplied with good water, and contains about 6000 inhabitants.

Muſchat, or Moſcat, and Suez, were formerly places of conſiderable ſtrength; but they are now only remarkable for the trade carried on with the latter by the Turks, and with the former by the Portugueſe.

The city of Suez ſtands upon the weſtern ſide, but not juſt upon the weſtern extremity of the Arabian gulf. It is not ſurrounded with walls; but the houſes are built ſo cloſely together that there are only two paſſages into the city, of which that neareſt the ſea is open, the other ſhut by a very inſufficient gate. The houſes are very ſorry ſtructures; the kans being the only ſolid buildings in the city. Hardly any part now remains of the caſtle which the Turks built upon the ruins of the ancient Kolſum. Suez is very thinly inhabited: among its inhabitants are ſome Greeks, and a few families of Copts; but, about the time of the departure of the fleet, it is crowded with ſtrangers.

The ground lying round it is all one bed of rock, ſlightly covered with ſand; ſcarce a plant is to be ſeen any where in the neighbourhood; trees, gardens, meadows, and fields, are entirely unknown at Suez. Fiſh is the only article of proviſions plentiful here. All other neceſſaries of life, for both men and the domeſtic animals, are brought from afar, from Cairo, which is three days journey from Suez; Mount Sinai, at the diſtance of ſix days journey; or Ghaſſo, at the diſtance of ſeven. There is not a ſingle ſpring of water.

Ship-building is the chief employment of the inhabitants; although wood and iron, and all the other materials, are to be brought from Cairo upon camels, and are conſequently very dear. The ſhips built at Suez have a very awkward rudder, made of a large beam, the uſe of which is dangerous and inconvenient. The governor of Suez was a bey from Cairo; and he kept a very numerous houſehold. He was a Mahometan by birth, and the ſon of a ſugar-merchant.

Mr. Niebuhr, in his travels through Arabia, has given the following deſcription of the city of Loheia in that country. He tells us it has ſtood only for three centuries: that its founder and patron was a Mahometan ſaint, called Schiech Saled, who built a hut on the ſhore where Loheia now ſtands, and ſpent there the reſt of his days as a hermit. After his death, a kabbet, or houſe of prayer, was raiſed over his tomb; and it was afterwards, by degrees, embelliſhed and endowed. Some devout perſons, imagining that it would be a great happineſs to them to live near the remains of ſo holy a perſon, built huts for themſelves about his tomb. Nearly at the ſame time, the harbour of Marabea, a neighbouring city, in which a governor reſided, was filled up. The inhabitants, upon this, deſerted their city, and ſettled at Loheia, whither the ſeat of government was tranſferred.

The territory of Loheia is arid and barren. The harbour is ſo indifferent, that even the ſmalleſt veſſels are obliged to anchor at a great diſtance from the city; and when the tide is at ebb, laden boats cannot approach near it. Notwithſtanding this diſadvantage, a conſiderable trade in coffee is carried on from Loheia; the coffee is brought from the neighbouring hills, and expoſed in one large heap for ſale. This coffee is not reputed to be ſo good as that which comes from Beit el Fakih, and is ſhipped at Mocha and Hodeida: but coffee is to be purchaſed here upon more reaſonable terms, and the carriage to Jidda coſts leſs.

Loheia, although without walls, is not entirely defenceleſs. Twelve towers, guarded by ſoldiers, ſtand at equal diſtances round it. Theſe towers reſemble thoſe in ſome of the imperial cities of Germany: the height of its gates renders it neceſſary to climb up to them upon ladders. Only one of thoſe towers, and that newly built by Emir Farhan, is ſuch as to admit of being defended by cannons: the reſt are ſo ill built, that the Arabs of Haſchid, ſome time ſince, made their way through them, and ſet fire to the city.

Several of the houſes in Loheia are built of ſtone; but the greater part are huts conſtructed in that faſhion which is common among the Arabs. The walls are of mud, mixed with dung, and the roof is thatched with a ſort of graſs, which is very common there. Around the walls within, are a range of beds made of ſtraw, on which, notwithſtanding their ſimplicity, a perſon may either ſit or lie commodiouſly enough. Such a houſe is not large enough to be divided into ſeparate apartments; it has ſeldom windows, and its door is only a ſtraw mat. When an Arab has a family and cattle, he builds for their accommodation ſeveral ſuch huts, and encloſes the whole with a ſtrong wooden fence. The population of the cities of Arabia, therefore, cannot be proportionate to their extent. The water of Loheia is very

bad, and is brought from a diſtance: the beſt comes two leagues and a half from the city. The common people drink from a well, which is a league from the city. Within two leagues of Loheia, is a ſmall hill, which affords conſiderable quantities of mineral ſalt.

The city of Mocha, built about four centuries ſince, ſtands in a very dry and barren ſituation. Its fortifications are the walls that ſurround it, ſome towers on the way to Muſa, which are dignified with the name of caſtles, and two other caſtles of the ſame ſort upon the two arms of the harbour. The greateſt of theſe two caſtles is called Kalla Tojar, and the ſmalleſt Kalla Abdurrah, from the names of two ſaints, buried in theſe two places. They are provided with ſome few pieces of cannon.

The houſes in the city are built of ſtone, and ſome are handſome: however, there are others, both within and without the walls, no better than the huts common through all the Tehama. In the environs of this city are abundance of date trees, and many agreeable gardens.

The northern parts of Arabia being ſubject to the Turks, are governed by baſhas of their appointing. The inland country is under the juriſdiction of ſeveral petty princes, denominated Xeriſs and Imans, who, in ſpiritual as well as temporal affairs, ſeem to be abſolute, guiding themſelves by no other laws than thoſe found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The wandering Arabs are governed by ſheikhs and emirs. A ſheikh ſuperintends a particular collection of tents, which are called dow-wars; but an emir rules over a whole tribe, and, conſequently, their authority extends to many of theſe dow-wars. There is one diſtinguiſhed by the title of grand-emir, who is in ſome reſpect ſuperior to the reſt, though his authority is often diſputed.

The Arabs have no ſtanding regular militia, but their chief commands both the perſons and purſes of the ſubjects, as the neceſſity of affairs requires. The people are diſtributed into ſeveral clans; and the whole number of inhabitants are ſuppoſed to amount to about 2,000000.

THE HISTORY OF THE ARABS, AND OF MAHOMET, THEIR PROPHET.

THE Arabs, even from the earlieſt times, have been a free and independent people. It was foretold of their great anceſtor Iſhmael, that his hand ſhould be againſt every man, and every man's hand againſt him. This prediction has been remarkably fulfilled. The Arabs are ſtill wanderers in their native country. They owe no ſubjection to any but their emirs, the princes or chiefs of each itinerant tribe. Robbers by profeſſion, they conſider the property of every ſtranger as their own; and their ferocity, added to the inhoſpitable nature of their extenſive deſerts, has much tended to leſſen the trade carried on by caravans to India. In the remote ages of antiquity, the Arabs were indeed a great and warlike people; they had kings of their own, and to their aſſiſtance Ninus chiefly owed the conqueſt of Babylon: but inteſtine commotions, and civil wars, ſoon commenced among themſelves, and their different tribes have ever ſince continued under a kind of patriarchal government. Neither the Perſians under Cyrus, the Greeks under Alexander, the Romans under their moſt fortunate generals, the Tartars under Tamerlane, nor the Turks in their greateſt height of power, could make an entire conqueſt of Arabia. Part of that country was indeed ſubdued; but the greater number of theſe wandering tribes ſtill preſerved their independency, and bid defiance to all the force that could be ſent againſt them.

In the ſixth century, about the year 596, the great impoſtor Mahomet appeared, and changed, for a time, the greater part of the Arabian ſyſtem of government. He was born at Mecca, and deſcended from the tribe of the Coreiſchites, eſteemed the moſt ancient and illuſtrious in Arabia; but his parents were very poor. In the early part of his life, he was employed as a factor by his uncle, Abuteleb, and in that capacity travelled into Syria, Paleſtine, and Egypt. Subtle by nature, though deſtitute of learning, he made many obſervations on the different religions profeſſed in thoſe countries, and the various ſects into which they were divided. He perceived that moſt of the fundamental principles of theſe different ſects were the ſame, and that the conteſted tenets which had given riſe to ſuch dreadful animoſities, were trifling in themſelves, and thence imagined that it would be eaſy to form a religion which would unite them all, and remove thoſe heats and animoſities which had produced ſo many diſorders among mankind. But his poverty and want of learning were obſtacles which he was at firſt in no capacity to ſurmount.

In the mean time his uncle died, and Mahomet became a ſervant to a rich Syrian merchant, and for ſome time travelled with his caravans into different parts of Aſia-Minor. Cadija, the wife of Mahomet's maſter, often received her ſervant with pleaſure, and at his death, took him to her bed. This fortunate incident removed one of the obſtacles to Mahomet's ſcheme; he was now poſſeſſed of wealth ſufficient for his purpoſes, but learning was not to be purchaſed with money: time and aſſiduity alone could procure that valuable acquiſition; and thoſe were incompatible with the nature of his deſign. Enterpriſing by nature, and poſſeſſed of a ſpecies of ambition peculiar to himſelf, he conſidered every moment he delayed the execution of his ſcheme, as a loſs to the world as well as to himſelf. In this ſtate of perturbation he diſcovered, that a perſon among his own ſervants was poſſeſſed of the learning he ſo greatly wanted, and which had hitherto prevented him from attempting the work he was ſo deſirous to perform. This perſon was Sergius, a Neſtorian monk, a perſon of great parts and learning, but ſuch a libertine in his conduct, that he had been expelled the convent, and taken ſhelter among the Arabs. The monk cordially embraced the offers of Mahomet; but, at the ſame time, rightly obſerved, that it would be very difficult, perhaps impoſſible, to eſtabliſh a new religion, without pretending to a divine ſanction. Mahomet perceived the juſtneſs of the remark, and, ever fruitful in reſources, determined to turn a natural calamity to his own advantage. He had long been afflicted with epileptic fits, and pretended that theſe were only trances, into which he was thrown at the ſight of the angel Gabriel, who was often ſent from heaven to reveal the will of the Almighty, and which he was commanded to publiſh to the world. But leſt the truth of this ſtory ſhould be ſuſpected, he lived a very auſtere and abſtemious life, which ſoon procured him a character for ſanctity, far ſuperior to that of any of his neighbours. This gave a ſanction to his pretenſions; his followers increaſed daily both in number and enthuſiaſm, and Mahomet now thought proper to make an open declaration of his miſſion. He aſſerted, that he was a prophet ſent from God into the world to teach his law, and compel mankind to obſerve it. Alarmed at the pretenſions of this enthuſiaſtical impoſtor, and dreading the fatal conſequences generally attending popular inſurrections, the magiſtrates of Mecca determined to put a final period to the growing evil, by taking off the bigotted leader. But the requiſite ſecrecy was not obſerved: Mahomet was apprized of their intentions, and fled, with a few of his faithful followers, to Medina. This flight, which happened in the tenth year of his miniſtry, the Mahometans uſe as an epocha in the computation of time, calling it by the Arabic word Hegira, i. e. the flight.

The fame of Mahomet had reached Medina ſome years

years before he was obliged to take refuge in that city; ſo that the inhabitants received him with open arms. Aſſiſted by his faithful companion the monk, Mahomet now applied himſelf to form a ſyſtem of religion that ſhould extend to all the neighbouring nations, and be conformable to their different profeſſions. At the ſame time, he was very careful to render it agreeable to the prejudices of mankind. He knew that ſenſual enjoyments were much better adapted to the generality of the people, than ſpiritual; and therefore promiſed them every delight that human nature is capable of enjoying.

The fundamental principle on which Mahomet erected the ſuperſtructure of his religion was, that there has been from the beginning of the world but one true orthodox belief, which conſiſts in acknowledging one true God only, and obeying the precepts of ſuch miniſters and prophets as he ſhall, from time to time, ſend into the world, to reveal his will to mankind. Upon this foundation, *he* pretended to be a prophet ſent into the world to reform the abuſes crept into religion, and to reduce it to its original ſimplicity. He added, that as the endeavours of Moſes and Chriſt were rendered abortive, God had ſent him, as his laſt and greateſt prophet, with a more ample commiſſion than either Moſes or Chriſt were intruſted with. Their's were confined to perſuaſion only, but his extended to force. The ſword was to effect what preaching and miracles had endeavoured in vain: the divine law was to be propagated by force, and the throne of the faithful founded on the blood of unbelievers. The bounds of this kingdom were to be the ſame with thoſe of the world, and all the nations of the world were to be governed by the ſceptre of Mahomet. But as theſe conqueſts could not be made without danger, Mahomet promiſed, that thoſe who ventured their lives in eſtabliſhing his kingdom, ſhould enjoy the ſpoils and poſſeſſions of their enemies, as a reward in this life, and, after death, a paradiſe of all ſenſual enjoyments, eſpecially thoſe of love. He added, that thoſe who died in propagating the faith, would enjoy a diſtinguiſhed place in paradiſe, experience pleaſures peculiarly intenſe, and vaſtly ſuperior to the reſt of mankind. Theſe particulars, together with the doctrine of predeſtination, and a prohibition of drinking ſpirituous liquors, formed the principal articles of Mahomet's creed; and were written by the monk already mentioned, in a book called the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence above all other writings.

The Koran was no ſooner publiſhed, than Mahomet's followers increaſed in a very aſtoniſhing manner. His doctrine was ſoon propagated in diſtant countries. Arians, Jews, and Pagans abandoned their former religion, and became Mahometans. The contagion ſpread in a very rapid manner over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Perſia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful, impotent impoſtor, became one of the moſt powerful monarchs of his age. He died three years after his conqueſt of Mecca, in the ſixty-third year of his age, and in the year 629. His ſucceſſors purſued the plan of their prophet, and exerted themſelves in propagating his religion by the ſword.

The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia, under the names of Saracens and Moors, extended their conqueſts into various parts of Europe. They reduced great part of Spain, France, Italy, and the iſlands in the Mediterranean. The caliphs of Perſia turned their arms to the eaſt, and conquered ſeveral countries; the Tartars, under Tamerlane, carried their conqueſts into China and the Indies; and the Turks reduced the Greek empire, and made Conſtantinople the ſeat of their government.

In this rapid manner was the Mahometan religion propagated in various parts of the world; it is ſtill profeſſed by a conſiderable part of mankind, and eſtabliſhed in various countries.

CHAP. XVI.

THE ASIATIC, OR INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE EMPIRE OF JAPAN.

THE iſlands of which this extenſive and opulent empire is compoſed, are called Japan, or Niphon, Bongo, Tonſa, and Dezima. They are ſituated about 150 miles eaſt of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41ſt deg. of north lat. and from the 130th to the 147th deg. of eaſt long.

The inhabitants call this empire Niphon, the name of the chief iſland; the Chineſe term it Siphon; and the Europeans give it the general appellation of Japan. It was firſt diſcovered between the years 1535 and 1548, by the Portugueſe, who were afterwards expelled from this gainful trade by the Dutch.

Japan being ſituated between the fourth and ſeventh climates, the ſun riſes with them about eight hours before it does with us. The ſea breezes greatly mitigate the heat in ſummer, but they add to the exceſſive coldneſs in winter, and render the ſeaſons in general exceedingly unſettled. The rains in ſummer are very violent, and ſtorms of thunder and lightning, and dreadful hurricanes, frequently happen, to the great detriment of the country; earthquakes are alſo very common here.

The ſoil, and likewiſe the animal and vegetable productions of Japan, are much the ſame with thoſe in China. The earth yields Indian and other corn, fine rice, millet, and various other grain, beſides ſeveral kinds of fruits: likewiſe flowers and herbs, particularly excellent tea. The mountains, woods, and foreſts are well ſtocked with horſes, ſheep, oxen, hogs, elephants, wild beaſts, buffaloes, deer, &c.

The rivers, which afford plenty of fiſh, are generally exceeding rapid, and many dreadful cataracts fall from the mountains. The principal rivers are the Ujingava, whoſe waters are ſo furious, that no bridge can be built over it; the Corric, that takes its name from the province in which it riſes; and the Aſkagava, remarkable for its depth and perpetual fluctuation.

The chief lake, called Citz, is 100 miles in length, and twenty in breadth. It is formed by the conflux of ſeveral rivers, and diſembogues itſelf into the ſea on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the iſland.

The mountains in this empire are very numerous, moſt of the iſlands of which it is compoſed being ſurrounded by them; one in particular, in Niphon, is of ſuch a prodigious height, that though its diſtance from the ſhore is fifty-four miles, it may be diſcerned twice that diſtance by veſſels at ſea; and ſome authors are of opinion, that it is higher than the famous peak at Teneriffe. Indeed, this may with more propriety be called a cluſter of mountains, and among them are eight dreadful volcanoes, which burn with ſuch prodigious fury, that the country is often deſtroyed for ſeveral miles round. Some of the mountains yield mines of gold, ſilver, copper, tin, lead, iron, and various other metals; while others abound with ſeveral ſorts of marble and precious ſtones. The mountains in the iſland of Niphon alſo afford great variety of medicinal waters of different degrees of heat; one of which is ſaid to be as hot as burning-oil. Several rivers and brooks have their ſources among them, ſome of which fall in gentle caſcades, whilſt others form dreadful cataracts. The ſeas ſurrounding theſe iſlands produce great quantities of red and white coral,

and

and pearls of great value, with a profuſion of ſea-plants and beautiful ſhells. Many dangerous whirlpools are formed in theſe ſeas, which make a terrible noiſe, and, at low water, ſwallow up the largeſt veſſels, if they attempt to croſs them.

The complexions of the Japaneſe are in general yellowiſh, although ſome few, chiefly women, are almoſt white. Their narrow eyes, and high eyebrows, are like thoſe of the Chineſe and Tartars, and their noſes are ſhort and thick. Their hair is univerſally black.

They are very ingenious mechanics, and greatly excel the Chineſe in ſuch works as are common in both empires; particularly in the beauty, goodneſs, and variety of their ſilks, cottons, and other ſtuffs, and in the porcelain and lacquered wares. Both the temper and workmanſhip of their ſcimitars, ſwords, muſkets, &c. are ſuperior to any other made in theſe eaſtern parts. Their architecture is in the ſame ſtyle as that of China; but they affect rather uſefulneſs than grandeur in their houſes, which are built with upright poſts, croſſed and wattled with bamboo, plaſtered both without and within, and whitewaſhed: they generally have two ſtories; but the uppermoſt is low, and ſeldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made.—The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. They have no furniture in their rooms, not even beds.—They ſit down on their heels upon mats. Their victuals are ſerved up on a low board, near the floor, one diſh at a time. Their mirrors are not fixed up as ornamental furniture.

Their dreſs is ſimilar to that of the Chineſe, but more neat and elegant, and generally of ſilk or cotton. The women of faſhion, eſpecially the young ones, adorn themſelves with flowers, feathers, pearls, &c. but are ſeldom ſeen abroad, or even at home, by any except their own people, without a veil. Fans are uſed by both ſexes equally.

They are naturally cleanly; in their manners, civil and polite; obedient to parents, reſpectful to ſuperiors, and honeſt in their dealings; ſo that, though their penal laws are ſevere, puniſhments are ſeldom inflicted. Commerce, manufactures, and agriculture flouriſh here.

The forces of Japan, in time of war, amount to 400,000 foot, and 40,000 horſe; and the annual revenues have been computed at thirty-ſix millions ſterling. The government, like that of all the eaſtern nations, is deſpotic; but the power of the emperor is generally exerciſed with clemency.

The principal commodities exported from Japan, are rice, ſilk, and cotton; fine porcelain and lacquered wares, gold, ſilver, copper wrought and in bars, iron, ſteel, and other metals; rich furs, tea of all ſorts, much finer and better cured than that of China; a great variety of drugs, which as well as their tea are ſold genuine, well dried, and carefully preſerved: diamonds and other precious ſtones, pearls of exquiſite beauty, coral, ambergris, &c.

All trade with the Europeans, except the Dutch, is prohibited, and even the Hollanders are allowed to have only one factory, which is at Nagaſacci, in the iſland of Dezima, where there is an excellent harbour. Nor are they permitted to converſe with any of the inhabitants, but ſuch as are appointed by the governor, except the ſix weeks of open trade, when the Japaneſe reſort from all parts of the empire to Dezima, where they open booths furniſhed with the fineſt merchandize of their country.

In the city of Meaco, in 45 deg. 38 min. north lat. and 138 deg. 15 min. eaſt long. which was formerly the capital of Japan, is a Coloſſus of gilt copper, of prodigious dimenſions. It is ſeated in a chair eighty feet in breadth, and ſeventy in height. The thumb of this enormous ſtatue is fourteen inches in circumference, and the other parts in proportion; fifteen men can ſtand on its head. It is one of the principal idols of this empire.

Jeddo, Jedo, or Yeddo, is now the metropolis of the empire, and the moſt conſiderable city in Japan. It is large and populous, and contains the palace of the emperor, ten or twelve miles in circumference. This city is in 35 deg. 48 min. north lat. and 144 deg. 10 min. eaſt long.

Next to the above two, the moſt conſiderable city in Japan is Oſacco, which is ſituated at the mouth of the river Jedogawa, about fifteen leagues from Meaco, and in 35 deg. 15 min. north lat. and 137 deg. 20 min. eaſt long. It is deemed the principal ſea-port in the empire, and is filled with an incredible number of merchants, tradeſmen, mechanics, eccleſiaſtics, &c. It is near fifteen miles in circuit, contains many elegant houſes, ſome palaces belonging to the nobility, and is ſtrongly fortified.

The principal commodities of Japan have been already mentioned: and it may not be improper to add, that no people in the world equal the Japaneſe in the fairneſs of their dealings; no fraud of any kind is practiſed; their commodities are genuine, not the leaſt adulteration is uſed. Cautious and faithful themſelves, they expect the ſame treatment from others. All commodities are exported and imported duty free. But if contraband goods are found on board any trading veſſel, if the wares are either adulterated or damaged, and the injury concealed, or any fraud be diſcovered in the invoice, the offenders are always puniſhed in the ſevereſt manner.

At the ſeaſon when the Dutch fleet is expected, centinels are placed on the hills to give timely notice of the approach of any ſhips; and boats are immediately ſent off with proper officers, who take care that no trade of any kind be carried on with the natives, till the permiſſion to trade arrives from the emperor: even then the greateſt regularity is obſerved, ſix only of the ſeamen are permitted to go on ſhore at one time; and in this manner they ſucceed each other during the time the mart is open. By this wiſe conduct, all diſorders are unknown; trade is carried on in a fair and open manner; all frauds and deceptions, which generally reſult from hurry and confuſion, are prevented; and the whole is conducted in a manner that gives entire ſatisfaction to both parties.

Beſides the ſugars, ſpices, and manufactured goods which the Dutch ſend to Japan, they carry thither annually upwards of 200,000 doe-ſkins, and more than 100,000 hides, the greateſt part of which they get from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The merchandize they export from theſe iſlands, both for Bengal and Europe, conſiſts in 900 cheſts of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25 to 30,000 pounds weight of camphire. Their profits on imports and exports are valued at forty or forty-five per cent. As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they ſend an annual preſent to the emperor, conſiſting of cloths, chintz, ſuccoats, cottons, ſtuffs, and trinkets.

The Japaneſe are the groſſeſt of all idolaters; nor does it appear that they ever had any notion of a Supreme Being: they believe the world to have exiſted from all eternity; and that the gods they worſhip were once men, who lived upon earth ſeveral thouſand years, and were at laſt, as a reward for their piety, mortification, and voluntary death, raiſed to that height of power and dignity they now poſſeſs.—They are ſo irreconcileable to Chriſtianity, that it is commonly ſaid, the Dutch, who are the only Europeans with whom they now trade, pretend themſelves to be no Chriſtians, and humour the people in the moſt abſurd ſuperſtitions; inaſmuch as it is ſaid, that a ſtranger is not ſuffered to land in any part of the empire, unleſs he firſt publicly renounces the Chriſtian religion. But notwithſtanding this ſhameful compli-

ance

ance of the Dutch, the natives are very ſhy and rigorous in all their dealings with them.

The Japaneſe are not remarkable for uſeful learning, aſtrology being the art in general ſtudied among them. There are, however, a vaſt number of univerſities, in which the prieſts preſide, diſperſed all over the empire: they are finely ſituated, richly endowed, accommodated with all the conveniencies of life, and furniſhed with large libraries. Theſe people are much addicted to poetry, muſic, and painting; and are ſaid to excel in the firſt, both with regard to the ſtyle, imagery, and harmony of the cadence. They are better painters than the Chineſe, but greatly inferior to the European artiſts. Their language has ſome affinity to that of China, but appears, from its various dialects, to have been originally compounded of that and other languages, uſed by the various nations that firſt peopled theſe iſlands.

With reſpect to their hiſtory, the Japaneſe annals of early times are filled with ſuch inconſiſtent abſurdities, and ridiculous fables, that no dependence can be placed on them, till about 660 years before Chriſt, which is their common æra; and, according to which, our preſent year 1800, is with them the year 2460; it is likewiſe to be obſerved, that the Japaneſe year begins the neareſt new moon, which either precedes or follows the 5th day of February.

The hiſtories of Japan, written by the natives, take very little notice of the policy, virtues, vices, or tranſactions of their monarchs, but are filled with an account of their deſcent, names, birth, ſucceſſion, length of reign, &c.

The following chronicle of the more recent princes of Japan, is taken from their own hiſtorians:

1. Taycho. This monarch was of a very mean extraction, but in his youth raiſed himſelf to be butler to a tributary prince, and by dint of valour and merit was at length exalted to the cuboſhip. He was the firſt monarch who obliged the petty kings and great lords to attend upon him perſonally, and ſuffer their wives and kindred to reſide in his palace, as hoſtages for their fidelity; by which prudent policy he ſtruck at the very root of that rebellious ſpirit ſo common in Japan, and put an end to the poſſibility of raiſing inſurrections. He expelled the Portugueſe from Japan, prohibited their ever after trading with his ſubjects, and began the firſt perſecution againſt the Chriſtians. He died on the 6th of December, A. D. 1598. After his deceaſe he was deified, and called the *Second Mars of Japan.*

2. Quanbacundono, the nephew of Taycho, is accounted the thirtieth Cubo, as he reigned for ſome time in conjunction with his uncle; but having diſobliged that monarch, he was ordered to rip up his own bowels, the moſt honourable method of ſuffering death in Japan.

3. Fide-Jori, the ſon of Taycho, began his reign at ſix years of age; during his minority, the affairs of government were conducted by his father-in-law, Ijejas, for Fide-Jori had been contracted in his infancy to a daughter of that nobleman, who traiterouſly deprived him of his crown and life, after a reign of fourteen years.

4. Ijejas-Samma, having uſurped the throne, made the following articles the principal objects of his reign. 1. The total extirpation of the Portugueſe from Japan. 2. The prohibition of any of his ſubjects from leaving the empire, and recalling thoſe who were in foreign parts. 3. The publication of ſevere edicts againſt gaming, luxury, and duelling. 4. The granting a Dutch factory to be eſtabliſhed in Japan.

It may be proper to obſerve here, that the perſecution againſt the Chriſtians in Japan, both natives and foreigners, was carried on with ſuch horrid cruelty, that in the ſpace of the four firſt years of the reign of this monarch, 20,570 perſons were maſſacred. Notwithſtanding which, in the two ſucceeding years, after the churches had been ſhut, and the public profeſſing of Chriſtianity prohibited, the Jeſuits, by their private endeavours, made 12,000 proſelytes; and when any of theſe were detected, they not only abſolutely refuſed to abjure the Chriſtian faith, but readily ſubmitted to death, and ſuffered martyrdom with aſtoniſhing conſtancy. And indeed the perſecution continued forty years, reckoning from its commencement, in the reign of Taycho, with unremitting cruelty, before Chriſtianity could be totally exterminated. Ijejas reigned about five years after the death of Fide-Jori, and died at about ſeventy years of age.

5. Fide-Tada, the grandſon of the above monarch, as we have already inferred, continued the perſecution, till at length the Chriſtians, driven to the utmoſt deſpair, retired to the number of 37,000, to the caſtle of Simabara, in the iſland of Ximo, where they determined to defend themſelves to the laſt extremity. The Japaneſe army laid ſiege to the place, which held out for three months; but at length was compelled to ſurrender on the 12th of April, 1638, when the Chriſtians were all put to the ſword.

This monarch reigned eighteen years, and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

6. Ijemitz. This emperor reigned twenty-one years, and was ſucceeded by,

7. Ijetznako. This monarch, who was the ſon of the former, reigned thirty years, and left the crown to his ſon,

8. Tſinajos. This prince was the laſt Japan monarch that we have any authentic account of, and was upon the throne when the Dutch ambaſſador was at Japan, being then forty-three years of age, and having reigned thirteen years; he was a great philoſopher, a ſtrict obſerver of the laws, exceedingly humane and benevolent, and, in the true ſenſe of the word, the father of his people.

CHAP. XVII.

THE LADRONE ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands, which are about twenty in number, belong to the Spaniards, and were firſt diſcovered in 1521. They obtained the name of Marian-Iſlands, from Mary, Queen of Spain, who reigned at the time of their being firſt inhabited by her ſubjects. They are alſo known by the name of Thieves-Iſlands, which epithet was given to them by Ferdinand Magellan, the firſt perſon who diſcovered them, on account of the continual robberies for ſome time committed by the natives.

The Ladrone Iſlands lie about 600 leagues to the eaſt of Canton in China; 700 leagues eaſt from the Philippines, and 7300 weſt from Cape Corientes in America. The principal part of them have been for many years uninhabited, notwithſtanding they are all pleaſantly ſituated, and the ſoil in general is very fertile. The only one that can properly be ſaid to be now inhabited by the Spaniards is Guam, where a governor reſides, and where there is kept a very ſtrong garriſon. It is at this iſland that the Manilla regiſter-ſhip generally takes in freſh proviſions and waters, in her paſſage from Acapulco to the Philippines.

The iſlands of Tinian and Rota were once very populous; but the former is now quite uninhabited, and the latter contains only a few Indians, who are employed in cultivating rice for the inhabitants of Guam.

Guam is about forty miles in length, and ninety miles in circumference, and the number of inhabitants are eſtimated at 4000; out of which it is ſuppoſed 1000 live in the city of San Ignatio de Agona, where the governor uſually reſides. It is pleaſantly

ſituated, and affords a fine landſcape when viewed from the ſea. The ſoil being rather dry, it produces little rice; but they have ſeveral kinds of excellent fruit, particularly pine-apples, melons, and oranges. They have likewiſe plenty of cocoas, yams, and a fruit about the ſize of an apple, which, when baked, is exceeding good, and is uſed inſtead of bread.

The natives of this iſland are ſtrong and well-ſhaped, but of an olive complexion: they have thick lips, a long viſage, and a ſtern countenance: they wear long black hair, anoint themſelves with the oil of the cocoa-nut, and paint their teeth with red and black colours. Their houſes are chiefly built of ſtone and timber, and the tops of them are covered with tiles. Their food chiefly conſiſts of cocoa-nuts, bananas, fowls, fiſh, and pork; the latter of which is peculiarly ſweet in its taſte, the hogs being principally fed with cocoa-nuts, which grow here in the greateſt abundance.

The other iſlands here, though uninhabited, afford a great plenty of proviſions; but neither of them have any commodious harbour.

THE ISLANDS OF FORMOSA AND HAINAN.

Some parts of theſe iſlands belong to the Chineſe, to whom the natives are ſubject; but in the other parts they live independent, and are only ſubject to their own laws and government.

FORMOSA, which is the moſt fertile of theſe iſlands, is altogether a very fine country; and for that reaſon it obtained its name, the word Formoſa ſignifying *fair* or *beautiful*. It is ſituated nearly oppoſite to the province of Fo-kien in China, and is computed to be 216 miles in length from north to ſouth, and about 70 miles in the broadeſt part. Its longitude from Pekin is from 3 deg. 20 min. to 5 deg. 40 min. eaſt; ſo that when the ſun is almoſt vertical over it, the climate is rather hot; but this is far from being diſagreeable, as the violence of the heat is greatly mitigated by the ſituation of the iſland, which is ſo elevated, as to receive the moſt agreeable advantages from the cooling breezes of the ſea.

That part of the iſland poſſeſſed by the Chineſe is particularly fertile, and produces great quantities of different kinds of grain, eſpecially rice; and its fertility is greatly accelerated by the numerous rivers, whoſe ſtreams glide conveniently through it.

This iſland likewiſe produces as great a variety of fruits as are to be found in any other parts of the Indies; particularly oranges, cocoas, bananas, ananas, guyavas, papayas, &c. alſo ſeveral kinds of thoſe produced in Europe, as peaches, apricots, figs, grapes, and cheſnuts. They have likewiſe a ſort of melon, which is of an oblong form, and much larger than thoſe in Europe: they conſiſt of a white or red pulp, and are full of a fine juice, which is exceeding grateful to the taſte. Sugar and tobacco alſo grow here to the greateſt perfection; and the trees that produce theſe are ſo agreeably arranged, that they appear as if calculated to embelliſh the moſt beautiful garden.

The wild beaſts of this iſland are but few, and thoſe ſeldom ſeen, as they chiefly inhabit the diſtant parts of it, which are exceeding mountainous, and ſeldom reſorted to by the inhabitants. They have ſome horſes, ſheep, oxen, goats, and hogs. They have but few birds, the principal of which is the pheaſant; but the rivers produce great plenty of various kinds of fiſh.

The coaſts about this iſland are very high and rocky, and have neither havens nor ſea-ports, ſo that it is almoſt impoſſible to effect an invaſion. Teovang, or Tyowang, is the only bay in the whole iſland, where ſhips of any bulk can approach; and this is ſituated at the mouth of a river ſo narrow, and defended by ſuch high rocks and forts on each ſide, that no enemy could poſſibly enter it, without being repulſed.

The inhabitants of thoſe parts of the iſland belonging to the Chineſe, have the ſame manners and cuſtoms, and are under the ſame government as thoſe of China; ſo that a repetition of them would be here unneceſſary; we ſhall therefore only deſcribe the perſons, manners, and cuſtoms of the natives.

The natives of this iſland, who are ſubject to the Chineſe, are divided into forty-five boroughs, or towns, thirty-ſix of which are in the northern part, and nine in the ſouthern. They are in general of a low ſtature, have a large mouth, and are very ſwarthy in complexion: they have a very high forehead, and are altogether greatly diſproportioned, for the body is very ſhort. the neck ſmall, and the arms and legs remarkably long.

Their weapons are bows and arrows, which they uſe with ſuch dexterity, that they will kill a pheaſant flying at the diſtance of 400 yards. They have little ceremony in their marriages; nor do they purchaſe their wives as in China.

Some writers have deſcribed the Formoſans as being mere infidels, which we can aſſign no other reaſon for, but from their being conſidered ſo by the Chineſe. This, however, is a falſe aſſertion: they believe in one Supreme Being, and ſeem to entertain wiſer notions than the inhabitants of many eaſtern countries. The Chineſe acknowledge that they are not ſubject to cheat, thieve, or quarrel; but, on the contrary, that they practiſe all the duties of equity and mutual benevolence. They worſhip idols as in China, to whom they offer ſacrifices of hogs, rice, &c.

Their manner of treating the dead before interment is very ſingular. When a perſon dies they lay him on a kind of ſcaffold made of bamboo, which they place over a ſlow fire for nine days; after which they wrap the corpſe in a mat, and lay it on a higher ſcaffold, covered with a pavilion, made of ſhreds of ſilk, cloth, &c. Here it remains for two years, at the expiration of which, they dig a large hole in the ground, and bury it. Each of theſe ceremonies is accompanied with feaſting, muſic, dancing, &c.

One cuſtom is almoſt univerſal among them, namely, if a perſon is exceeding ill, or afflicted with any painful diſorder, which is not likely to be removed, they think it a kindneſs to diſpatch him.

The government of each town or borough is confined to itſelf. Three or four of the moſt ancient, who are known to be men of integrity, are appointed as judges over the reſt, who determine all differences; and he who refuſes to ſubmit to the deciſion, is baniſhed the town, nor can he either return, or be admitted into any of the others, ſo that he is obliged to finiſh his days, without ever again participatiag of the natural enjoyments of ſociety.

An annual tribute is paid by the inhabitants to the Chineſe, which conſiſts of certain quantities of grain, the tails and ſkins of ſtags, and other productions of the country. In order to gather this tribute, a perſon is appointed to each town, who learns the language of the natives, and diſcharges the office of interpreter between them and the mandarins of China. There were formerly twelve boroughs in the ſouthern part of the iſland that paid tribute to the Chineſe; but, from the tyrannic conduct of their interpreter, or gatherer of the tax, they revolted, drove the interpreter out of the town, and no longer continued to pay tribute to China.

The capital city of Formoſa is called Tai-ouan-fou. It is large and populous, and carries on ſo extenſive a trade, that it is little inferior to ſome of the moſt opulent in China. It is plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of proviſions, either of its own product, or commodities brought from other countries, as rice, cotton, ſugar, wine, tobacco, and dried veniſon, the latter of which

which is greatly admired by the Chineſe, and conſidered as the moſt delicious food. They have likewiſe all kinds of fruits, medicinal herbs, roots, gems, &c. with plenty of linen, ſilk, and cotton of various ſorts.

The ſtreets are long and ſpacious, the houſes very ſmall, built of clay, and covered with thatch; the buildings have awnings on each ſide, that join in ſuch a manner as to cover the ſtreet; but theſe are only uſed during the hot months, to keep off the exceſſive heat of the ſun. Some of the ſtreets are near three miles in length, and between thirty and forty feet broad: theſe ſtreets are chiefly occupied by dealers, whoſe ſhops are furniſhed with all kinds of goods, ranged and diſplayed to the greateſt advantage. Theſe ſhops appear very brilliant, and many people walk in the ſtreets merely to gratify themſelves with the ſight of ſo great a variety of the richeſt commodities.

Though this city is not defended either by walls or fortifications, it has a good garriſon of horſe and foot, conſiſting of 10,000 men, who are principally Tartars. Theſe are commanded by a lieutenant-general, two major-generals, and a number of inferior officers, who are at liberty to relinquiſh their ſituation after having ſerved three years, or ſooner, if occaſion ſhould require. The harbour is tolerably good, and ſheltered from the winds; but the entrance to it is dangerous for ſhips of burthen, the bottom of it being rocky, and the water not above ten feet deep at the higheſt tides.

The moſt authentic hiſtorians inform us, that the iſland of Formoſa was firſt inhabited by the Japaneſe about the beginning of the laſt century. Theſe people were ſo pleaſed with the appearance of the country, that they built ſeveral ſmall towns, and ſoon ſettled a colony: however, they were but a ſhort time on the iſland before they were interrupted by the Dutch, a ſhip belonging to whom being accidentally forced into the harbour, the people landed on the iſland, in order to obtain refreſhments, and repair the damage the veſſel had ſuſtained by the ſtorm. Pleaſed with the apparent fertility of the country, and the wholeſomeneſs of the climate, they formed a plan of circumventing the Japaneſe, by taking the iſland into their own poſſeſſion. Fearful, however, of offending them, leſt it might be injurious to their trade, they were very cautious in what manner they proceeded; and though they were the moſt powerful, yet they were rather deſirous of obtaining their wiſhes by artful than violent meaſures. To effect this, they earneſtly intreated the Japaneſe, that they would permit them to build a houſe near the ſea ſide, which, they alleged, would be of the greateſt utility to them in their paſſage to and from Japan. This requeſt was refuſed, which produced a ſecond ſolicitation that met with no better ſucceſs. Unwilling, however, to give up any endeavours they could project, they again renewed their ſolicitations, and preſſed them to give conſent, aſſuring them that they deſired no more ground than what might be encompaſſed by the hide of an ox. The modeſty, as well as oddity, of this requeſt, had the wiſhed-for effect, and the Japaneſe at length gave their conſent.

Having now made an opening into their future intentions, the Dutch immediately diſcovered a piece of cunning, little thought of by the Japaneſe. They got a large hide, which they cut into a number of ſlips, and, faſtening the whole together, covered a very extenſive piece of ground, on which, inſtead of a ſingle building, they erected ſeveral ſpacious habitations. The Japaneſe were at firſt greatly vexed at this ſtratagem, but, from the ſingularity of it, they were at length pacified; and were ſo far from either envying the Dutch, or being any way apprehenſive of danger from them, that they permitted them to do whatever they thought proper; and of this indulgence the Dutch were not deficient in taking the greateſt advantages, for they ſoon erected ſeveral ſtrong buildings, particularly a caſtle, which they called Zealand, ſituated on ſo advantageous a ſpot, that it was impoſſible for any ſhip to enter it, of whatever force, without being repulſed. But in proceſs of time, the Japaneſe, being either offended at the great progreſs the Dutch had made, or not finding the advantages they expected, ſoon quitted the iſland, and left the Dutch in ſole poſſeſſion of it; after which the latter erected other fortifications oppoſite to their new fort, and raiſed ſuch other defences, as made them complete maſters of the iſland, which however continued but a few years in their poſſeſſion. One of the Chineſe generals (a man of an enterpriſing genius) being defeated by the Tartars, who were then at war with the Chineſe, fixed his views on Formoſa, forming a reſolution of ouſting the Dutch, and eſtabliſhing a new kingdom on the iſland. Accordingly he ſailed from China with a very conſiderable fleet, and arriving near the mouth of the harbour, he landed ſome of his men, and began to attack the fort of Zealand. The Dutch, not being apprehenſive of any danger, were ill provided to attack ſo powerful an enemy; they had only four ſhips in the harbour, and not above twenty men in the fort, excluſive of the natives; notwithſtanding which they made ſo forcible an oppoſition, that the ſiege laſted upwards of three months. The Chineſe general was ſo enraged at being thus diſappointed, that he at length had recourſe to a very deſperate effort, which had the deſired effect. He converted ſeveral of his veſſels into fire-ſhips, and the wind happening to be high and favourable, drove them into the harbour, when three of the Dutch ſhips were entirely deſtroyed. Thus ſituated, the Dutch could not make any further reſiſtance, and the Chineſe general offering them liberty to depart with their effects in caſe they would ſurrender, they readily accepted the offer; and putting all their valuables on board the ſhip that was left, they departed, and left the Chineſe general ſole poſſeſſor of the iſland. The general immediately acknowledged ſubmiſſion to the emperor, and ſeveral other towns were ſoon built on different parts of the iſland, the inhabitants of which have ever ſince been ſubject to the government of China, and, as hath been before obſerved, teſtify their ſubmiſſion by an annual tribute.

Hainan, the other iſland, (the principal part of which alſo belongs to the Chineſe) is of conſiderable extent, and ſome of the towns are very populous. It is ſituated between 107 and 110 deg. eaſt long. and between 18 and 20 deg. north lat. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Chineſe ſea; on the weſt by the coaſt of Cochin-China; on the north by part of the province of Quang-tong, to which it belongs; and on the ſouth by the channel of Paracel, which joins the eaſtern coaſt of Cochin-China. It is about 200 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, near 150 in breadth, and about 400 in circumference.

Kian-tcheou is the principal city; and is ſo ſituated, that ſhips lie at anchor cloſe to its walls with the greateſt ſecurity. The ſtreets are very uniform, and ſome of them at leaſt a mile in length, but the houſes in general are low mean buildings. But, beſides the capital, there are ſeveral other conſiderable cities on the iſland, all of which are ſituated near the ſea-ſide, and ſubject to the juriſdiction of Kian-tcheou, which is governed by mandarins of two orders, namely, thoſe of learning, and thoſe of arms.

On the ſouthern part of the iſland there is a fine port, the bay of which is near twenty feet deep. There is alſo another very convenient port on the northern part, the entrance to which is defended by two ſmall forts, though the depth of water does not exceed twelve feet. Here the barks frequently come from Canton with various commodities, in exchange for which they take ſeveral kinds of minerals, the natural produce of the country; for in ſome parts of

of the iſland there are gold and ſilver mines, as alſo mines that produce the lapis-lazuli, which the natives of Canton uſe in painting the blue porcelain. Between the two forts that defend the entrance of the northern port, is a large plain, on which are ſeveral handſome Chineſe ſepulchres.

The climate of this iſland is in general very unhealthy, particularly the northern part, though the ſoil is tolerably fertile. The ſouthern and eaſtern parts are exceeding mountainous; but the vallies beneath are rich, and produce great plenty of rice. Here are likewiſe ſeveral ſorts of very valuable trees, particularly the roſe, or violet-tree, which is ſo fragrant in its ſcent, that it is purchaſed at a very high price for the ſole uſe of the emperor. There is alſo another tree, little inferior to this; it produces a kind of liquid, which by the natives is called dragon's blood, and, if thrown into the fire, diffuſes a ſcent of the moſt agreeable nature. Indigo grows very plentifully on this iſland, as alſo ſugar, tobacco, and cotton; and they have a great variety of the moſt delicious fruits.

Horſes, ſheep, cows, and hogs, are the chief animals here. On the mountains, and in the woods, are prodigious numbers of apes, ſome of which are very large, of a black colour, and the features of their faces ſo diſtinct, as to reſemble the human ſpecies with greater niceneſs than any others to be found in the univerſe; but theſe are very ſeldom ſeen; and though the natives have often endeavoured to catch them, yet they are ſo cunning and alert, that they have baffled every machination they could project. Theſe apes appear to be of the ſame ſpecies with two ſent ſome years ago in a coaſting veſſel, as a preſent from a merchant of the rajah of the Carnatic dominions to the governor of Bombay, a particular deſcription of which is thus given by Mr. Groſe, in his *Voyage to the Eaſt Indies*: "They were," ſays he, "ſcarcely two feet high, walked erect, and had perfectly an human form. They were of a ſallow white, without any hair, except in thoſe parts that is cuſtomary for mankind to have it. By their melancholy, they ſeemed to have a rational ſenſe of their captivity, and had many of the human actions. They made their bed very orderly in the cage in which they were ſent, and, on being viewed, would endeavour to conceal with their hands thoſe parts that modeſty forbids manifeſting. The joints of their knees were not re-entering like thoſe of monkies, but ſaliant like thoſe of men; a circumſtance they have in common with the Oran-outangs in the eaſtern parts of India, particularly in Sumatra, Java, and the Spice Iſlands, of which theſe ſeem to be the diminutives, though with nearer approaches of reſemblance to the human ſpecies. But though the navigation from the Carnatic coaſt to Bombay is of a very ſhort run, of not above ſix or ſeven degrees, whether the ſea air did not agree with them, or that they could not brook their confinement, or that the captain had not properly conſulted their proviſion, the female ſickening firſt, died, and the male giving all the demonſtrations of grief, ſeemed to take it to heart ſo, that he refuſed to eat, and in two days after followed her. The captain, on his return to Bombay, reporting this to the governor, was by him aſked, What he had done with the bodies? He ſaid, he had flung them overboard. Being further aſked, Why he did not keep them in ſpirits? He replied, that he did not think of it. On this the governor wrote afreſh to the merchant, deſiring him to procure another couple, at any rate, as he ſhould grudge no expence to be maſter of ſuch a curioſity. The merchant's anſwer was, He would very willingly oblige him, but that he was afraid it would not be in his power: that theſe creatures came from a foreſt about 70 leagues up the country, where the inhabitants would ſometimes catch them on the ſkirts of it; but that they were ſo exquiſitely cunning and ſhy, that this ſcarcely happened once in a century."

Hainan alſo abounds with various kinds of game, particularly deer and hares; alſo a great plenty of birds, as partridges, woodcocks, ſnipes, turtle-doves, and moſt ſorts of water-fowl, all which are little inferior to thoſe in Europe. They have likewiſe moſt ſorts of fiſh in great abundance; among theſe is a blue fiſh found among the rocks, which is ſo beautiful as to be eſteemed of greater value than the golden fiſh; but they will live only a few days out of their natural element.

The natives of this iſland are ſhort in ſtature, of a reddiſh complexion, and ſome of them greatly deformed. The men wear only a looſe garment, reaching from the waiſt to the knees: it is made of calico, and the colour is either a deep blue, or quite black. The women wear a garment made of the ſame ſtuff, though different in form: it ſomewhat reſembles a waiſtcoat, and reaches from the ſhoulders to the knees: and they are further diſtinguiſhed from the men, by ſtreaks made on their faces with indigo. Both ſexes braid their hair, and ornament their ears with rings; and their hats, which tie under the chin, are made of ſtraw or rattan. Their chief weapons are bows and arrows, in the uſe of which they are not ſo expert as the inhabitants of Formoſa. They have alſo a kind of hanger faſtened with a girdle to their waiſt, which they generally uſe to clear the way in foreſts, or other woody places. They occupy the centre part of the iſland, which is very mountainous; and here they live independent, being ſubject only to their own laws and modes of government.

The natives are ſeldom ſeen by the Chineſe, except when they make an attempt to ſurpriſe any of the neighbouring villages. This, however, ſeldom happens, and when it does, they are naturally ſuch cowards, that half a dozen Chineſe will defeat at leaſt an hundred of them. Many of them are in the ſervice of the Chineſe, who employ them to cultivate their lands, and take care of their cattle. Others of them are allowed to poſſeſs villages on the plain; and the principal part, as in Formoſa, pay an annual tribute to the emperor of China.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Theſe iſlands, which are numerous, were diſcovered by Magellan in 1519. They lie from 5 to 10 deg. north latitude, and from the 114th to the 130th deg. of eaſt longitude, being ſituated in the Pacific Ocean, 300 miles to the ſouth-eaſt of China. In general they abound with every delicacy, and the ſoil is inconceivably fertile; but the exceſſive heat, from their vicinity to the line; the innumerable noxious inſects, and venemous reptiles; the dreadful earthquakes, and the frequent eruptions from many of their mountains, which are volcanos; the great number of poiſonous herbs and flowers, from which the moſt pernicious vapours exhale; and the terrible ſtorms of thunder, lightning, and rain, which ſpread ſhocking devaſtations around, combine to render them neither ſafe or deſirable.

The principal of theſe iſlands are the following:

Luconia, or Manila. This iſland is the largeſt of the Philippines, being near 400 miles in length, and about 180 in breadth, is ſituated in 15 deg. north lat. and deemed more healthy than either of the others. It has many mountains, which contain gold, fertile plains, fine paſtures, and ſprings of the moſt excellent water in the univerſe. It produces buffaloes, ſheep, hogs, goats, horſes, fruit, &c.

The city of Manila lies upon an excellent bay, which is circular, and near 60 miles in circumference; the port is of courſe remarkably good, and well ſituated for the Chineſe and Eaſt India trade. It contains about 3000 inhabitants; and, during the war of 1762, was taken by Admiral Corniſh and Sir William

liam Draper. It was, however, ſtipulated to be ranſomed: but the ranſom money has never yet been entirely diſcharged. It is a handſome city, containing ſeveral ſpacious ſtreets, good houſes, elegant churches, decent convents, and tolerable colleges. The ſeat of the ſpaniſh government is here. The Indians pay a poll-tax; and a conſiderable ſum of money is annually allowed for the ſupport of female orphans, born of Spaniſh and Indian parents. To this iſland the Spaniards bring divers commodities; ſuch as ſilver from New Spain, Mexico, and Peru; diamonds from Golconda; ſilks, teas, Japan, and China ware, and gold-duſt, from China and Japan. The Spaniards ſend two large ſhips every year from hence to Acapulo in Mexico, with merchandize, and return back with ſilver.

St. John lies between 7 and 8 deg. north lat. is above 110 miles in length, and about 70 miles over in the broadeſt part. The ſoil is fertile; but, with the other iſlands, it partakes of the general inconveniences before recited. The inhabitants are good-natured and humane, but exceedingly ignorant. Their marriage ceremony is nothing more than putting earth upon the head of the woman, in token of her ſubordinate ſtate, and the neceſſity of implicit obedience to her huſband. They call themſelves Chriſtians. They wear only a looſe robe of cotton or calico, which hangs to their feet: the men throw it over their ſhoulders, and wrap it round their waiſts; the women cover their heads with it like a hood, and cloſe it at their breaſt; but the men go bareheaded, and the children naked. In this iſland there is only one town, which is erected upon poſts, but it is both inconſiderable and mean, and the furniture of the houſes deſpicable.

Mindanao is 180 miles in length, and about 130 in breadth: the hills are ſtony, but produce many trees; the vallies are fertile, and well watered; and the inhabitants are plentifully ſupplied with all the neceſſaries, and many of the luxuries of life.

This iſland is governed by a ſultan, ſubordinate to whom are ſeveral petty ſovereigns, who rule over various diſtricts. The monarch when he goes abroad, is carried in a palanquin, and has a ſtrong guard to attend him, who are armed with lances, ſwords, and bayonets.

The chief trade of this iſland is to Manila and Borneo; and the Dutch come from the Moluccas to purchaſe of them rice, tobacco, bees-wax, &c. The common people are always boaſting of their honeſty, but practiſe roguery: they ſteal whatever they can lay their hands on; and the magiſtrates, inſtead of puniſhing the delinquents, will protect them, in order to partake of the booty.

The inhabitants of the various diſtricts, or ſubjects of the ſeveral petty kings, ſpeak different languages, but have a general reſemblance in perſons and features. They are ſhort of ſtature, have tawny complexions, ſmall eyes, little noſes, wide mouths, thin lips, black teeth, and lank hair. They are ingenious, yet indolent; active, yet lazy; and good humoured though revengeful. They live on the fleſh of buffaloes, moſt kinds of fowls, all ſorts of fiſh that their ſeas and rivers afford, with rice and ſago. They are, however, but ſlovenly in their cookery, and eat without either knives, forks, or ſpoons.

Some ſettlements in this iſland formerly belonged to the Spaniards, but they were driven from hence by the natives, who have been ever ſince extremely jealous of any foreigners making ſettlements among them.

The inhabitants in general are Mahometans. Thoſe who reſide in the interior parts of the country are called Hilanoons, and poſſeſs ſeveral gold mines. The people of the north-weſt part of the iſland are the moſt ſavage, and in making war, neither give or take quarter. They allow of poligamy. The diſeaſes they are ſubject to are fluxes, agues, cholics, and the ſcurvy.

Mindanao, the capital, is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, in 6 deg. 20 min. north lat. and 123 deg. 15 min. eaſt long. It is watered by a ſmall river, that will not admit of ſhips of any conſiderable burthen; and thoſe that do come up to the city, are greatly in danger of having their bottoms deſtroyed by worms, which abound in that river, unleſs they are well ſheathed. The city is ſquare, being about a mile each way: the houſes are built upon poſts near twenty feet high, with ladders to aſcend them, according to the uſual faſhion of building in the Philippine Iſlands: they conſiſt but of one floor, but are divided by partitions into many apartments. The ſultan's palace is ſupported by 150 wooden pillars, or rather poſts, and is much higher than any other houſe in the city, having iron cannon in the hall, and a broad fixed ſtair-caſe to aſcend it. The Malayan, as well as the language proper to the iſland, is ſpoken in this city. All the floors of the houſes are matted, upon which the people ſit croſs-legged. The principal trades are ſhip builders, goldſmiths, and blackſmiths.

Bohol is ſituated to the north of Mindanao, being about 120 miles in circumference: it produces cattle, fiſh, roots, rice, and gold.

Layta is about 270 miles in circumference, and is ſituated about 20 leagues north of Mindanao: a chain of mountains runs through the middle, and occaſions ſuch a ſingular variety in the climate, that while the northern ſide is benumbed with chilling blaſts of winter, the ſouthern parts are cheared with the genial warmth of ſummer. The ſoil is in general fertile, and the people tolerably civilized.

Paragon, by ſome called Little Borneo, lies between 9 and 11 deg. north lat. and 114 and 118 deg. eaſt long. and is the remoteſt of the Philippine Iſlands to the ſouth-weſt: it is 240 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. Different parts of it have different maſters: the interior diſtricts belong to the native Indians, the north-eaſt parts to the Spaniards, and the ſouth-weſt to the ſovereign of Borneo. The Indian inhabitants are Mahometans, and poſſeſs the greateſt military ſpirit of any people who are natives of the Philippines. It produces prodigious large figs, a ſmaller ſort which is ſuperior in quality, and plenty of rice.

Three inconſiderable iſlands, called Calamines, lie to the north and north-eaſt of Paragon, which are not remarkable for any thing but plenty of wild birds.

Mindora is about 60 miles long and 36 broad, and extends from 12 to 13 deg. north lat. and from 119 to 120 eaſt long. It produces gold and pepper, and is divided from Lucconia by the Straits of Mindora.

Tandaya is one of the moſt eaſterly of the Philippines; it is ſeparated from Manila by a narrow ſtrait, and is 125 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. On the northern coaſt there is a volcano, which throws out fire and flames.

Philippina was the firſt that was diſcovered of this cluſter of iſlands, and conſequently gave name to the reſt. It lies between 12 and 14 deg. 30 min. north lat. and is the moſt fertile and pleaſant of all the Philippines, exhibiting a ſcene of perpetual verdure; for here the ſun is powerful without being diſagreeable.

Sebu, ſouth-weſt of Layta, is 60 miles long, and 38 broad. On the eaſt ſide of it is the town of Nombre de Dios. The Spaniſh Standard was firſt ſet up here by Magellan, the primitive circumnavigator of the world, who was afterwards murdered in this iſland by the natives. The town of Nombre de Dios is guarded by a conſiderable garriſon, defended by a ſtrong fort, and has a good haven. The iſland produces cotton, bees-wax, garlick, onions, and the abaca plant, of which cordage and packthread are made.

Panay lies between 10 and 11 deg. north lat. and 120 and 121 deg. eaſt long. and is about 300 miles

in circumference, and has the name of being the moſt populous of all the Philippines. It is watered by many rivers, and is exceeding fruitful, particularly in rice, of which it produces about 100,000 buſhels annually above what the natives conſume. Almoſt adjoining to this is the little iſland of Imavas, which is not remarkable for any thing but producing a conſiderable quantity of ſarſaparilla.

Negroes Iſland lies between 9 and 11 deg. north latitude, and is about 300 miles in circumference. The natives are the moſt black of any of the inhabitants of the Philippines, from which circumſtance the iſland is called Negroes Iſland. Bees-wax and cocoa nuts are the only produce of the place. The bees are remarkably fine and large, and the people uncommonly ſkilful in managing them; but in other reſpects, the natives are rude, brutiſh, and ignorant, which has given riſe to this proverbial expreſſion: *Negroes Iſland is inhabited by blacks and bees; but the winged natives are wiſer and better governed than the walking natives.* Indeed, the prudence, decorum, and various regulations of theſe ſagacious little inſects are truly aſtoniſhing.

Xolo is the moſt ſouth-weſterly of all the Philippines, and is governed by a ſovereign prince of its own. It produces great quantities of rice, and elephants teeth, and, indeed, is the only iſland among the Philippines in which elephants are bred. The air in this iſland is tolerable, being refreſhed by frequent rains. The ſea yields pearls; and great quantities of ambergris are found upon the ſhores. The ſoil is fertile in fruits, rice, and pepper; and numerous herds of cattle graze in the paſtures.

Maſbate, which lies almoſt in the center of the Philippines, is 93 miles in circumference, and abounds in gold, civet, bees-wax, and ſalt.

Theſe iſlands produce great quantities of gold and other metals, pearls, ambergris, loadſtones, ivory, pepper, bees-wax, and an excellent fruit called tanter, of which a moſt delicious pickle is made; mangos, durians, oranges, which are both larger and better than thoſe of Europe; lemons both ſour and ſweet; palm trees, of which there are forty ſpecies, the principal being the ſago; tamarinds, plantains, bananas, the caſſia-tree, and ebony, moſt of the common timber trees, ſugar-canes, tobacco, indigo; odoriferous and medicinal herbs, admirable flowers, and culinary vegetables, particularly potatoes, &c.

There is a ſingular ſpecies of cane-trees about the mountains of theſe iſlands, which being cut, yield water in great plenty. Theſe canes afford great relief and refreſhment to the natives, who would otherwiſe be parched with thirſt, as no running ſtreams or ſprings are found in any of the mountains where they grow.

They have one plant that has all the properties of, and is uſed as a ſubſtitute for, opium; of this the natives are very fond, and frequently intoxicate themſelves with it.

The camondog tree is of ſuch a poiſonous nature, that death inſtantly ſeizes any living creature who taſtes either its fruit or leaves. It ſuffers no verdure to grow beneath its ſhade, and if tranſplanted, poiſons all vegetables that are near it, except a ſhrub, which is an antidote to it. The natives make an inciſſion in this tree, from whence a liquor flows, into which they dip the points of their arrows and darts, in order to poiſon them; after which, a wound received from any of thoſe weapons proves mortal. Beſides this tree, there are many poiſonous herbs and flowers.

The Philippines likewiſe abound in cattle of all kinds; wild beaſts, whoſe fleſh and ſkins are valuable articles; horſes, ſheep, civet-cats, game-fowls, fiſh, &c.

Aligators here are very dangerous; and the ignana, a kind of land aligator, does a great deal of miſchief. Here are an abundance of ſnakes, ſcorpions, centipedes, &c. The peacocks, parrots, cocatoos, and turtle-doves, are very beautiful: the Zolo bird eats like a turkey; the camboxa is a well taſted fowl, peculiar to theſe iſlands; and they have another kind of fowl, whoſe fleſh and bones are quite black, but are, nevertheleſs, delicious food. The herrero, or carpenter, is a fine large green bird. It is called carpenter, becauſe its beak is ſo hard, that it digs a hole in the trunk, or ſome large branch of a tree, in order to build its neſt. The tavan, a ſea-fowl, lays its eggs in the ſand, to be hatched by the heat of the ſun.

Monkies and baboons here are very ſagacious. During the ſeaſon, when there is no fruit to be got, they go down to the ſea-ſide to catch oyſters. That the fiſh may not pinch their paws, they put a ſtone between the ſhells to prevent their ſhutting cloſe.

In general the natives of theſe iſlands are compoſed of native blacks and tawnies; Chineſe or the poſteriry of Chineſe, who have long ſettled among them; Malayans, Portugueſe, Spaniards, other Europeans; and a mongrel breed from the whole: the make, features, complexions and manners of the people, conſequently vary from each other.

Rice, fiſh, and fruit, are the common food of the natives, who eat very little fleſh. They drink water, palm wine, and ſpirits diſtilled from cocoa and palm trees. The Spaniards, however, live luxurioufly, eating fleſh at noon, and fiſh at night, and indulging themſelves with all manner of Aſiatic delicacies. Spaniards, as well as natives, ſmoak tobacco; but the latter chew betel and areka.

Swimming, bathing, dancing, muſic, and dramatic performances, are their amuſements. Their weapons are bows, arrows, lances, daggers, and darts; and they defend themſeves with helmets, ſhields, and breaſt-plates.

Poligamy is permitted among ſome of the Indian nations, but in others it is not allowed, except in caſes of barrenneſs. They admit of divorces, which frequently happen. The huſband buys the wife from her father, or neareſt relation; a beaſt is ſacrificed, an entertainment made of the fleſh, and the bride and bridegroom having eat together out of the ſame trencher, are deemed lawfully married.

Children are either named after herbs or flowers, or from ſome accidental circumſtance that occurs at the time of their birth: but as ſoon as they marry they chuſe new names, and their parents are obliged to make uſe of their old ones.

The bodies of the dead are waſhed and perfumed, wrapped in ſilk, and put in a cloſe coffin, near which a cheſt is placed, that contains the arms of a man, or domeſtic utenſils of a woman. Mourners are hired to aſſiſt in making a diſmal noiſe; but as ſoon as the body is buried an entertainment is made, and all is converted into mirth and feſtivity. In general they mourn in black garments, and ſhave their heads and eye-brows. The real natives are exceedingly ſuperſtitious, profeſs the moſt groſs idolatry, and their religious tenets are a jumble of ideas ridiculous and abſurd.

The only accounts we have of the Caroline or New Philippine Iſlands, are thoſe written by two prieſts, Father Clan and Father Gobien, which were compoſed at Manila, and founded on a deſcription of them given by ſome of the natives, who were driven by ſtreſs of weather upon the iſland of Tandaya.

Theſe accounts place thoſe iſlands between 6 and 12 deg. north lat. and 127 and 138 deg. eaſt long. Thoſe gentlemen inform us, that they are exceeding populous, and governed by a king, who reſides in one of them, named Lamaree; that the natives reſemble the Malayans, go almoſt naked, paint their bodies, ſpeak a language ſomewhat like the Arabic, are without any form of worſhip, make no ſet meals, live temperately, &c. They have a few fowls, plenty of fiſh, and fertile lands; but they are without

out quadrupeds of any kind. The women adorn themſelves with necklaces, bracelets, and rings, all made of tortoiſe-ſhell. They are of ſo placid a diſpoſition, that no quarrel ever happens among them, and war is totally unknown.

We may conclude, from this brief account, that theſe are the moſt happy people that have ever yet fallen under our obſervation. They have no foes to fight, quarrels to decide, beaſts to hunt, or game to kill; but each ſucceeding day enjoy the bounties of Providence without bodily labour, and inſenſible of any anxiety of mind.

The Moluccas, or Spice Islands, are called Moluccas, from the word Moloc, ſignifying *head*, and referring to their ſituation at the head or entrance of the Archipelago of St. Lazarus. They are denominated Spice Iſlands, from their abounding in ſpices, particularly nutmegs and cloves, which grow in no other countries in the known world. They lie between 5 deg. north, and 7 deg. ſouth lat. and from 121 to 130 deg. eaſt long.

The principal of theſe iſlands are the following, viz. Banda, Pulloway, Pulorin, Nera, Gumanpi, and Gulialen, all of which produce nutmegs, and are diſtinguiſhed under the name of the Banda Iſlands; Ternate, Tidore, or Tidor, Motir, Machian, Bachian, Amboyna, Buoro, Celam, Gilolo, and Bouton, moſtly produce cloves, &c.

The ſpices of theſe iſlands were known to the Europeans long before the paſſage to the Eaſt Indies, by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, had been found out, being brought to the Mediterranean by the way of the Red Sea, or ſometimes through Perſia and Turkey. But the Portugueſe diſcovering the beforementioned paſſage, and penetrating, to theſe iſlands, in 1511, the emperor Charles V. claimed them as his own; but the Portugueſe would not give them up: they were, however, driven out by the Dutch, who are at preſent in poſſeſſion of them, and deſtroy great quantities of the ſpices annually, in order to keep up the price, and not glut the markets.

The nutmeg reſembles a peach, and the clove a laurel-tree, only the leaves are ſmaller than either: the fruit of the former is both nutmeg and mace, the nutmeg being the kernel, and the mace a kind of leaf, that incloſes the nutmeg-ſhell, and the whole is contained in a large coat, like that of a walnut: but the cloves appear in cluſters: the bloſſoms change gradually from white to green, red, and brown, which latter is the characteriſtic of its ripeneſs; but, when dried in the ſun, it receives a blackiſh hue. The clove is gathered from September to February, and the nutmeg in April, Auguſt, and December. The April crop is, however, deemed the beſt; and the nutmegs, when gathered, are boiled in lime, to prevent their being worm-eaten.

The Banda Iſlands, or thoſe which produce the nutmegs, lie near each other. Banda, the principal of them, is about 20 miles long, and 10 broad. Beſides the large foreſts of nutmeg and clove-trees, which grow ſpontaneouſly, and require not the leaſt trouble, the ſoil is fertile in a variety of delicious fruits. The iſland is in the ſhape of a creſcent, and the concavity of it forms an excellent bay, near which ſtands the principal town. Several brooks, which flow from a ſmall mountain, water the whole country, and render it exceeding pleaſant.

The natives are ſtrong in their perſons, diſagreeable in their features, malicious in their tempers, and melancholy in their diſpoſitions.

The iſland of Banda is divided into three diſtricts: the religions are Mahometaniſm and Paganiſm. The natives have ſhips of ſome force, containing a few cannon in each, and uſe bucklers, back and breaſt plates, as defenſive, and carbines, darts, lances, ſcymetars, &c. as offenſive weapons. The men are very idle, and oblige the women not only to do all the domeſtic drudgery, but to cultivate the land. They have three harveſts in the year, but make fruit a principal part of their diet.

The Dutch have a fort at the weſtern part of the iſland, erected upon the top of a mountain, and aſcended to by 324 ſtone ſteps. At the foot of the mountain ſtands a negro town, the principal factory of the Dutch being at Nera, which is well fortified, as are all the landing-places in the iſland; and the whole are under the direction and ſuperintendance of a governor and council.

The imports into this and the other Banda iſlands, are gold chains, gold coins, enamelled and damaſked ſword-blades, ſilver cups gilt, guns, China ware, broad cloth, velvets, damaſks, flannels, &c. The exports are ſpices and fruits.

Nothing can be ſaid of the other Little Banda iſlands, but what is included in the above general deſcription of Banda.

Ternate is not above 24 miles in circumference; but, though inferior in ſize to ſome of the other Moluccas, it is deemed the principal, both by the Dutch and natives, as the Dutch make it the head ſeat of their government, and the chief prince of theſe iſlands the place of his reſidence.

This iſland produces cloves in great abundance, admirable almonds, delicious fruits, a few goats, and ſome poultry, but not rice, or any other grain; for the exceſſive heat which is requiſite to ripen ſpices, and meliorate fruit, parches the earth ſo, as to render it incapable of bearing wheat, barley, or rice: for, here the ſun is ſeen in all his ſplendour and power, and his influence is ſo greatly felt, that his rays penetrate through the pores of the earth, and warm the ſoil to a conſiderable depth beneath the ſurface.

The natives have a ſubſtitute for bread, which makes the moſt wholeſome and exquiſite cakes in the univerſe; that is, the pith of a tree called Sago, whoſe ſalubrious qualities are well known in Europe.—This excellent tree is not only of utility with reſpect to its medicinal virtues, and for yielding them bread, but it affords them likewiſe drink, clothing, and ſhelter; for, by inciſion, a liquor is drawn from it that exceeds moſt wines; the leaves being a kind of cotton, the ſmaller are converted into garments, and the latter uſed to thatch their houſes. This bread contributes to the longevity of the natives, moſt of whom live to an hundred years of age.

All the Moluccas are ſubject to a king, who receives tribute from every one of the iſlands. The natives ſtruggled againſt the encroachments of foreigners many years, but were totally ſubdued by the Dutch in 1680, and the latter have, at preſent, ſo many forts, and ſuch ſtrong garriſons, that the former do not entertain the leaſt idea of driving them from their country.

The houſes in general are built of cane; ſome few of the better ſort, indeed, have wooden houſes.—With reſpect to their furniture, a mat ſerves them inſtead of a bed, chair, and table, for they lie on it, eat and drink on it, and ſit on it. This, and a pot to dreſs their victuals, a hatchet to cut their wood, and a calibaſh to hold their water, make the whole catalogue of their houſehold utenſils: their windows are not glazed, nor are their doors ſecured by locks. They wear ſilk or calico, and all perſons make their own garments, the king and grandees excepted.—Their fuel is odoriferous woods, and even their ſmiths uſe nothing in their forges but almond-ſhells. The king reſides at Malaya, a little town, fortified with a mud wall; but the ſuburbs, in which the Dutch factory have a fine garden, are pretty large, and well inhabited by blacks. The palace is but a trivial building, but the gardens belonging to it are very pleaſant, and contain an aviary, filled with a great variety of beautiful birds, whoſe harmonious notes are delightful to the ear.

The waters in this iſland are remarkably clear, and the fiſh very delicious.

Ternate

Ternate produces parrots, which are handſomer, and ſpeak more diſtinctly than thoſe of the Weſt Indies; but the moſt remarkable of the feathered race in this iſland, is the bird of Paradiſe, which is juſtly deemed the moſt beautiful bird in the univerſe. The head is like that of a ſwallow, but the bill conſiderably longer; the body is ſmall, but the plumage diſplays ſuch admirable colours, as are inconceivably pleaſing to behold.

There is a volcano in this iſland, which caſts out a ſulphurous fire three months in the year, and ſometimes does great miſchief. We have the following recent account of its dreadful devaſtations, in a letter from a merchant at Batavia, dated Oct. 18, 1776:

"On the 4th of June, 1775, there were more than one hundred ſhocks of earthquakes felt here, ſome of which were ſo violent, that they ſeemed to threaten the deſtruction of the whole iſland. About the 20th of Auguſt they were felt again, and the burning mountain, after a dreadful exploſion, threw out hot ſtones, cinders, and lava in abundance; and, on the 5th of November, the earth was never ſtill for three hours; the mountain ſeemed all on fire, and the moſt dreadful ſtorm of thunder and lightning fell in every part of the iſland, which threw the inhabitants into ſuch a conſternation, that they ran from one part to another for ſhelter, but none was to be found: the ſea was ſo dreadfully boiſterous, that deſtruction was there inevitable: and, on the land, the earth opened and trembled under them, as if the whole iſland was going to be annihilated; but, by the providence of the Almighty, a calm was reſtored, and the inhabitants had time to ſee what damage had been done, when it appeared that the Dutch ſettlement had ſuffered but little, but it will be ſome years before the iſlanders recover their loſs. The king has made a report, that a large track of land, on the north ſide of the iſland, in the diſtrict of Xulla Tacory, had been ſwallowed up, by which ſixteen plantations have been totally deſtroyed, and 141 perſons either burnt, or drowned in the ſea, where many of them took refuge in their boats. This report has been confirmed by about thirty of the unfortunate inhabitants, who are rendered dreadful objects, by wounds and burns, in this ſhocking event, On the 5th and 6th of November, the earthquakes and effuſions of fire, ſtone, and ſulphurous ſmoke, from the mountain, began as bad as ever, but no lives were loſt. The horrors of this night are not to be deſcribed; for the thunder, lightning, and moſt ſhocking earthquakes continued without interruption for twelve hours, with the moſt terrible violence: from this dreadful night, there were no more earthquakes till July 1, 1776, when they were again felt for two hours, but not violent."

The iſlands of Tidor, Motir, Machian, and Bachian, are remarkable only for producing nutmegs and cloves.

Amboyna, which is better than 70 miles to the northward of Banda, is about 72 miles in circumference, and lies in 3 deg. 8 min. ſouth lat. and 127 deg. 10 min. eaſt long. It contains at preſent above 50 proteſtant churches, and many of the natives, who have been ſent over to Holland for education, officiate as clergymen and miſſionaries, by which means proſelytes are exceeding numerous. The ſoil is very fertile, producing, in abundance, nutmegs, cloves, oranges, lemons, citrons, potatoes, millet, tobacco, ſugar, bamboos, &c. but the air is unwholeſome: there is a good bay, which penetrates very far into the land, and, by that means, forms a commodious harbour. The people extract a ſpirituous liquor, and a kind of oil, from green cloves, which are both good in paralytic caſes. The men wear only a piece of cloth about their waiſts, and are mighty proud of having large whiſkers. They purchaſe their wives, but, in caſe of barrenneſs, divorce them. The women are both of a looſe and malicious diſpoſition. On account of the earthquakes, the houſes are all built very low. The ſtrong and important fortreſs, called Fort Victory, is the ſtaple of the Dutch East India Company in thoſe parts. It is defended by four bulwarks, a broad ditch, and a garriſon of 800 men. The Engliſh had formerly factories here as well as the Dutch; but, in 1623, the latter maſſacred the former, and uſurped the dominion of the Spice Iſlands, which had been ceded to the Engliſh by the natives themſelves. In putting the Engliſh and ſome Japaneſe to death, they uſed the moſt horrid cruelties, in order to extort confeſſions concerning a pretended plot, which they accuſed them of having formed: and to the ſhame of king James I. and king Charles I. no ſatisfaction was obtained for the villainous barbarity. Oliver Cromwell was not, however, ſo eaſy about the matter; for he frightened the Dutch into the payment of 300,000l. as ſome kind of retribution. There are ſeveral populous villages in the iſland, in the churches and chapels of which religious ſervice is performed both in the Dutch and Malayan tongues. It contains likewiſe many mountains, with ſprings of excellent water.

Bouro, in 2 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. and 125 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. is about 75 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The Dutch have a ſtrong fort here; though the iſland is perfectly ſecure, from the ſingularity of its coaſt, which riſes in a high ridge, and encompaſſes the whole as with a wall. It contains ſome prodigious high mountains, but is, nevertheleſs, very fertile, producing cloves, nutmegs, cocoa-trees, bananas, piany, green ebony, beans, peas, potatoes, tobacco, Indian wheat, lime-trees, herbs, flowers, &c. Among the beaſts are the civet-cat, and a ſingular kind of roe-buck, whoſe fleſh is very delicate. The natives are black, and go entirely naked till they are twelve years of age, at which period they tie a piece of cloth round their waiſts, and never wear any other garment. They are Mahometans and Pagans, but, upon the whole, have very little ſenſe of religion. When a relation dies, they appear very ſad till the corpſe is in the ground, and then they ſeem merry to an exceſs; but do not forget to make a kind of ſepulchre of ſtone and clay, to cover the grave of the defunct. The next day after the women are delivered of children, in this iſland, they go about their ordinary work, while the men indulge themſelves in bed, and pretend to be vaſtly ill. Inſtead of a cradle, they put their infants in a kind of network hammock, which they hang upon a peg, whenever they are too buſy to dandle it in the arms.

Ceram is in 2 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. and in 127 deg. eaſt long. and produces cloves and nutmegs, but is woody and mountainous. The Dutch factory, called Ambay, is defended by a ſtrong fort and good garriſon. The inhabitants, who are Pagans and Mahometans, own the king of Ternate as their ſovereign, though they have a prince of their own, who dwells at Cambello.

Gilolo extends from 1 deg. ſouth, to 2 deg. north latitude; and from 125 to 128 deg. eaſt longitude; and is 190 miles long, and 110 broad. The air is unhealthy, and the ſoil produces rice and ſago, but no ſpices. The inhabitants are ſtrong and tall, but barbarous and cruel, and have an independent ſovereign of their own.

Bouton lies between 4 and 5 deg. ſouth lat. and in 121 deg. 30 min. eaſt longitude. It is 75 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. It has a good harbour, and contains a large town with tolerable houſes, built in the manner of thoſe of Mindano. This town is encloſed by a ſtone wall, and ſurrounded by groves of cocoa trees. The natives are governed by a prince of their own, ſpeak the Malayan language, and profeſs the Mahometan religion.

The CELEBES, or Iſland of MACASSAR, lies under the equator, is divided from Borneo by the ſtreights of Macaſſar, as it is by the ocean from the Molucca Iſlands on the eaſt, and the Philippines on the north. Its

Its extent from north to ſouth is upwards of 300 miles, and in the broadeſt part it is near 240. It is divided into ſix petty kingdoms or provinces, the principal of which are, the Celebes on the north-weſt, and Macaſſar, the latter of which takes in all the ſouthern part of the iſland. But as all the other provinces are ſubject to theſe two, the iſland is ſometimes called by the name of one, and ſometimes by the other.

As the climate is both hot and moiſt, it is therefore unhealthy, except at the times of the northern monſoons. The weſtern part lies low and flat but the ſouthern part is very high. In the rivers here is found gold duſt, which is waſhed down in the ſands from the neighbouring hills by the great torrents of water that ſometimes fall after exceſſive rains.

Here is great plenty of various kinds of vegetables, all excellent in their qualities; the rice in particular is ſaid to be much ſuperior to that cultivated in any other part of the Indies. The fruits and flowers are much the ſame as thoſe in the Philippines. They have pepper, ſugar, betel, and areka, with the beſt cotton and opium; and their cattle are much larger and finer than any to be met with in other eaſtern countries. Their oxen and buffaloes are uſed only for draught, and they have very ſmall horſes for riding; but the natives uſe no other ſaddle than a painted cloth, without ſtirrups or bridle, having only a cord faſtened to a bit made of wood. Theſe horſes having very hard hoofs are never ſhod.

There are prodigious numbers of monkies and baboons in the woods and foreſts which are ſo large, and go together in ſuch conſiderable bodies, that they are very dangerous to travellers; but they have one enemy by whom they are ſometimes conquered, namely, ſerpents, which are here of a moſt extraordinary ſize, and have ſuch agility and ſtrength, that they will purſue them to the very tops of trees and frequently deſtroy them.

There is but one large river in the iſland, and that is dangerous, by reaſon of its being greatly infeſted with crocodiles. It runs from north to ſouth into the bay of Macaſſar, where it is about half a league broad, and waſhes the walls of the city of that name: its channel is deep enough in ſome places to admit the largeſt veſſels, but in others it is very ſhallow.

The natives are rather ſhort in ſtature, and of a light olive complexion: they are particularly fond of having flat noſes, inſomuch that they practiſe methods in their infancy to obtain that diſtinguiſhed form, with as much labour and attention as the Chineſe women do to acquire ſmall feet. Neither men or women wear any covering on their heads; but their hair, which is of a fine ſhining black, is ingeniouſly tied up, and from it hangs curls that lay gracefully on the neck and ſhoulders. The men ornament their hair with jewels, but the women do not: the latter only wear a gold chain round their necks. Both ſexes, however, dye their nails red, and their teeth either black or red, both of which they conſider as very material ornaments.

The lower ſort of people wear a looſe garment made of cotton, which reaches below the knees; but none uſe either ſhoes or ſtockings. The women have a garment made of muſlin with ſtraight ſleeves that button at the wriſts; beſides which they wear a kind of drawers made of cotton, that are faſtened round the waiſt, and reach to the ancles. The garments of the better ſort are made of ſcarlet cloth, or brocaded ſilk, with large buttons of ſolid gold. They have likewiſe a very handſome ſaſh made of ſilk, and embroidered, which contains their dagger and purſe.

The diet of the common people conſiſts principally of rice, herbs, roots and fiſh; and their uſual drink is water or tea: the better ſort eat fleſh and poultry, the former being generally beef or kid, which are both exceeding fine; and they drink tea, coffee, and chocolate, the latter of which they get from the Spaniards in the Philippine Iſlands: they alſo uſe palm wine, arrack, and other ſpiritous liquors. They have but two meals a day, one in the morning and the other about ſunſet, the latter of which is the principal: in the intermediate ſpace they refreſh themſelves by chewing betel and areka, or ſmoaking tobacco intermixed with opium. They ſit croſs-legged on the floor at their meals, and have very low tables for their proviſions, which are ſet on them in plates or diſhes made of wood; but they uſe neither kives or ſpoons.

Their houſes, which are ſmall, but very neat, are chiefly built of ebony, and other wood of variegated colours. They have but little furniture, except the neceſſary utenſils for dreſſing their proviſions; but what they have is always kept exceeding clean; and to prevent the houſe being made filthy, they have veſſels to ſpit in when they chew betel or ſmoak tobacco.

In general the men are very robuſt, and naturally ſo courageous, that they are eſteemed the beſt ſoldiers in India; for which reaſon they are frequently hired into the ſervices of other princes. Their arms are ſabres and daggers, the latter of which they often infect with poiſon; and they have trunks from which they blow poiſoned darts; theſe darts are pointed with the tooth of a fiſh dipped in the venomous juice of certain drugs that grow in the country, and it is ſaid they will ſtrike a mark with them at near 100 yards diſtance.

Theſe courageous iſlanders were the laſt enſlaved by the Dutch, who, however, could not effect a conqueſt till after a very long and expenſive war, in which were employed almoſt all the forces they had at that time in India. The Dutch firſt joined the natives to oppoſe the Portugueſe, who made an attempt to ſubdue this iſland; but the latter being ſoon conquered, the Dutch immediately took ſole poſſeſſion of it, and have preſerved an abſolute dominion over it ever ſince.

The Portugueſe, and after them the Dutch, endeavoured to ſubdue this iſland, becauſe it is ſituated near the Molucca and Banda iſlands, which produce ſuch great plenty of cloves and nutmegs, the poſſeſſion of which they could not have ſecured without being maſters of this iſland.

The natives, if well uſed, are loving and faithful in their diſpoſition; but, if ill treated, will not be ſatisfied till they have had revenge on the party by whom they were injured. They are haſty and paſſionate, but have ſuch juſt notions of honour, that when they diſcover themſelves to be wrong, they will condemn their own conduct, and be glad to comply with any ſubmiſſion that may be thought neceſſary, as a recompenſe for the offence committed.

The women of this iſland are obliged to be very circumſpect in their carriage, and very careful not to be ſeen in company with any other man than their huſband. When this happens to be the caſe, the huſband is indemnified if he kills the man he finds with his wife. On the contrary, the huſband is permitted to have as many wives and concubines as he thinks proper; and the more children he has, the greater he is conſidered as being uſeful to ſociety.

Both ſexes are rendered active by a cuſtom practiſed during their infancy. Every day their nurſes rub them with oil, or water juſt warm; and theſe unctions encourage nature to exert herſelf with the moſt extenſive freedom. Male infants are taken from the breaſt when a year old, their parents having an opinion that if they ſuckled longer, it would greatly prejudice their underſtandings. When they are five or ſix years old, children of any diſtinction are entruſted to the care of ſome relation or friend, that their courage may not be weakened by the careſſes of their mothers, and a habit of reciprocal tenderneſs. They do not return to their parents till they arrive at the age of fifteen or ſixteen, when the law allows them to marry: but this is a liberty they ſeldom uſe, till they are

thoroughly verſed in the exerciſe of arms. The boys are ſent to ſchool to the prieſts, who teach them reading, writing, arithmetic, and the precepts of the Koran; for though they retain many Chineſe ceremonies, they are profeſſed Mahometans. The girls are taught to read and write, to ſpin, cook, and make cloaths; for as there are not any taylors here, the women not only make their own cloaths, but alſo thoſe worn by the men: and ſome of them are ſo induſtrious and expert, that they will obtain very handſome fortunes by that profeſſion.

Theſe people are ſo little addicted to infamous practices, or litigious diſputes, that they have neither lawyers, attornies, or bailiffs. If any differences ariſe, the parties apply perſonally to the judge, who determines the matter with expedition and equity. In ſome matters of a criminal nature they are permitted to do juſtice to themſelves. If a man detects another in the commiſſion of adultery, murder, or robbery, he has a right to execute juſtice himſelf, by deſtroying the culprit.

The huſband, on marriage, receives no other portion with his wife than the preſents ſhe received before the ceremony, which, as ſoon as the prieſt has performed, the new married couple are confined in an apartment by themſelves for three ſucceſſive days, having only a ſervant to bring them ſuch neceſſaries as they may have occaſion for; during which time their friends and acquaintances are entertained, and great rejoicings made at the houſe of the bride's father. At the expiration of the three days the parties are ſet at liberty, and receive the congratulations of their friends; after which the bridegroom conducts his wife home, and each apply themſelves to buſineſs; he to his accuſtomed profeſſion, and ſhe to the duties of houſewifery.

Theſe iſlanders are all of the Mahometan religion. Many of them are great pretenders to magic, and carry charms about them, on a ſuppoſition of their ſecuring them from every danger.

Funeral ceremonies are performed here with great decency; to ſecure which, the meaneſt perſons make proviſion while in health, by aſſigning a certain ſum to defray the incidental expences. As ſoon as a perſon is dead the body is waſhed, and being clothed in a white robe, is placed in a room hung with white, which is ſcented with the ſtrongeſt perfumes. Here it continues for three days, and on the fourth it is carried on a palanquin to the grave, preceded by the friends and relations, and followed by the prieſts, who have attendants that carry incenſe and perfumes, which are burnt all the way from the houſe to the grave. The body is interred without a coffin, there being only a plank at the bottom of the grave for it to lie on, and another to cover it; and when this laſt is placed, the earth is thrown in, and the grave filled up. If the perſon is of diſtinguiſhed quality, a handſome tomb is immediately placed over the grave, adorned with flowers; and the relations burn incenſe and other perfumes for forty ſucceſſive days.

This iſland was formerly under monarchial government; and in order to prevent the crown falling on an infant, the eldeſt brother ſucceeded after the death of the king. All places of truſt in the civil government were diſpoſed of by the prime miniſters: but the officers of the revenue, and of the houſhold, were appointed by the ſovereign. The king's forces, when out of actual ſervice, were not allowed any pay, but only their cloaths, arms, and amunition. It is ſaid, that in ſome former wars he has brought into the field 12,000 horſe, and 80,000 foot.

Aſſemblies are held at particular times on affairs that concern the general intereſt, and the reſult of their determinations becomes a law to each ſtate. When any conteſt ariſes, it is decided by the governor of the Dutch colony, who preſides at this diet. He holds a watchful eye over theſe different ſovereigns, and keeps them in perfect equality with each other, to prevent any one from agrandizing himſelf to the prejudice of the company. The Dutch have diſarmed them all, under pretence of hindering them from injuring each other; but, in reality, with a view only to keep them in a ſtate of ſubjection.

The only foreigners permitted to come to this iſland are the Chineſe, who bring hither tobacco, gold-wire, china, and unwrought ſilks; in return for which they take opium; ſpirituous liquors, gum, and linens. They get but little gold from hence, but great quantities of rice, wax, ſlaves, and tripam, a ſpecies of muſhroom, which the rounder and blacker, the more excellent it is eſteemed. The cuſtoms bring in upwards of 80,000 livres to the company: but they obtain a much larger profit from their trade, and the tenth part of the territory, which they hold in full right of ſovereignty.

The chief city, Macaſſar, is ſituated on the banks of a river of the ſame name, near the ſouth-weſt corner of the iſland. Here the Dutch have a very ſtrong fort, mounted with a great number of cannon, and the garriſon conſiſts of 800 men.

In general, the ſtreets of the city are very long and ſpacious, and are planted on each ſide with trees; but there are not any of them paved. The moſques and houſes of the quality are built with ſtone; but thoſe of the common people are of wood, and elevated from the ground with pillars. They are made of wood of various colours, and the tops of them are covered with palm or cocoa leaves. Here are large markets for the ſale of proviſions and other commodities. The markets are opened twice a day, viz. in the morning and evening, before the riſing and ſetting of the ſun. The proviſions are brought to market and ſold by women only; for if a man was to be ſeen in that character, he would be treated with the moſt diſtinguiſhed contempt. The number of inhabitants in this city were formerly eſtimated at 160,000 men able to bear arms; but ſince the Dutch deprived them of their trade, great numbers have forſaken it: and the other towns and villages, which were proportionably populous, have been greatly deſerted for the ſame reaſon.

Jampandam, the only principal place on this iſland, excluſive of the city of Macaſſar, is ſituated about 15 miles to the ſouth of Macaſſar river. This was the firſt place of any importance taken by the Dutch, who have a good fort here; and there is as commodious an harbour as any to be met with in the Indidian Seas.

Of the ſeveral iſlands about the Celebes, that go by the ſame name, the principal is ſituated about five leagues from the ſouth-eaſt corner. This iſland is about 80 miles long, and 30 broad. On the eaſt ſide of it is a large town and harbour called Callacaſſong, the ſtreets of which are ſpacious, and encloſed on each ſide with cocoa-trees. The inhabitants are Mahometans, ſpeak the Malayan tongue, and are governed by an abſolute prince.

To the north-eaſt of this iſland are the Straights of Patience, ſo called from the great difficulty in paſſing them, which ariſes from the violence of the currents, and the contrariety of winds.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. Borneo, the largeſt of the Sunda Iſlands, was diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1521. It is of great extent, being ſituated between 7 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 4 deg. 10 min. ſouth, under the equinoctial line, which divides it into two unequal parts, 7 deg. 30 min. lying northward of it, and 4 deg. 10 min. ſouthward; ſo that it is 700 miles in length, and 480 in breadth. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Celebes, on the weſt by Sumatra, on the north by the Philippines, and on the ſouth by the iſland of Java.

Conſidering the ſituation of the country, the air is tolerable, particularly in thoſe parts next the coaſt, which are refreſhed every morning by cooling breezes from the ſea, otherwiſe the heat would be inſupport-

able. Theſe parts, however, are very unwholeſome, as they lay on a flat for many hundred miles, and are annually overflowed. When the waters retire, a muddy ſlime is left on the ſurface of the earth, which the ſun ſhining upon with perpendicular rays, occaſions thick fogs, that afterwards turn to rain, with cold chilling winds; ſo that the air at this time is very unwholeſome. Another circumſtance that contributes to this, is the great number of frogs and other vermin left on the mud, which being deſtroyed by the heat of the ſun, produce an intolerable ſtench.

In April the dry ſeaſon begins, and continues till September, during which time the wind is eaſterly between the ſouth coaſts of Borneo and the Iſland of Java; but from September to April the winds are weſterly, attended by violent ſtorms of rain, thunder, and lightning. Theſe ſtorms are ſo continual, eſpecially on the ſouth coaſt, that it is thought very extraordinary to have two hours fair weather in the courſe of twenty-four.

Excluſive of rice, which is very plentiful, the produce of this country conſiſts of frankincenſe, muſk, aloes, pepper, cinnamon, and other ſpices; alſo various kinds of fruits, with excellent maſtic, and other gums, wax, caſſia, honey, cotton, and the beſt camphire.

Borneo produces great quantities of excellent timber, with the cotton ſhrub, canes, and rattans, In the rivers, particularly that of Suocadanea, are found excellent diamonds, and great quantities of gold duſt are gathered from the ſands. The loadſtone is alſo found here; and the wild ape produces the richeſt bezoar ſtones that are any where to be met with. Here are alſo mines of iron and tin, which are ſaid to be excellent in their qualities.

The animals of this country are oxen, buffaloes, horſes, deer, and goats; beſides which there are ſeveral ſorts of wild beaſts, as elephants, bears, tygers, monkies, and baboons.

There are various kinds of parrots and paroquets, one of which is called, by the Banjareens, *luree*, and is admired for its beauty. They have alſo ſeveral other kinds of birds, but not any like thoſe in Europe, except the ſparrow. During the time of the weſtern monſoons, the ſky is frequently darkened with bats, which fly in prodigious numbers. They are called by ſome *flying cats*, and, in colour, ſhape, and ſmell much reſemble a fox, though not ſo large: but their wings, when extended, are not leſs than ſix feet from the tip of the one to that of the other.

The natives of this iſland may be conſidered as of two claſſes, differing as well in their perſons and dreſs, as in their cuſtoms and religion. Thoſe who inhabit the ſea-coaſt are Mahometans, and called Banjareens, from the town of Banjar, to which moſt nations reſort to purchaſe the various commodities of the country. The Banjareens are rather low in ſtature, and of a ſwarthy complexion, but, on the whole, very proportionably made. The common people have no other covering than a ſmall piece of linen faſtened round the waiſt; but the better ſort wear a kind of waiſtcoat made of ſilk, or European cloth, over which they throw a looſe garment of ſilk or betella, that reaches to the knees. They alſo wear a pair of drawers, but have neither ſhirt, ſhoes, or ſtockings. Their hair is tied up in a roll, and covered with a piece of muſlin or calico; and when they go abroad they always carry a dagger with them.

The women are ſmaller than the men, and their features much more delicate: they are alſo much fairer in complexion; and, contrary to the mode of moſt Indian women, walk very upright, and ſtep with a graceful air. They are very conſtant after marriage, but are apt to beſtow favours with great freedom when ſingle: but however indiſcreet, they may have been in this point, they are not conſidered the worſe for it by their huſbands; nor dare any one reproach them for the faults they have committed previous to their marriage.

The chief part of their food is rice, but with it they eat veniſon, fiſh and fowl. The better ſort are ſerved in veſſels made of gold or ſilver, but the poorer ſort uſe diſhes made of earth or braſs. They all ſit croſs-legged at their meals upon mats or carpets. Both ſexes chew betel and areka, and are very fond of ſmoaking tobacco, with which they often mix opium made into pills, after being boiled in water till it comes to a conſiſtency. The whole company uſually ſmoke out of the ſame pipe; the maſter begins, and after having ſmoked two or three whiffs, he gives it to the perſon neareſt him, from whom it paſſes round till it comes to the maſter again.

The principal diverſions are dancing and comedies, which are performed after the manner of the eaſt.—Their rural ſports are ſhooting at a mark and hunting. They travel chiefly in the night, on account of the coolneſs of the air at that time; the common people uſually go in covered boats, but the better ſort travel by land on elephants and horſes.

The ſalaam, or lifting the hands to the head, and bending the body, is their mode of ſalutation. When they appear before their ſuperiors, they raiſe their hands above the forehead; and if before a prince they proſtrate themſelves on the ground, and retire backwards on their knees.

Thoſe who inhabit the inland parts of this iſland are taller, and much more robuſt, than the Banjareens. They are called Byajos, and are Pagans in their religion. Their complexion is more ſwarthy than the inhabitants of the coaſt; and their time is chiefly employed in hunting and attending their cattle. They go almoſt naked, having only a ſmall piece of linen faſtened round the waiſt; they paint their bodies of a bluiſh colour, and beſmear them with ſtinking oil. Some of them are very fond of having large ears, to obtain which they make holes in the ſoft parts of them when young: to theſe holes are faſtened weights about the breadth of a crown piece, which continually preſſing on the ears expand them to an immoderate length. The better ſort pull out their fore teeth, and place artificial ones in their ſtead, made of gold; but their greateſt ornament conſiſts of a number of tygers teeth, which are ſtrung together, and worn about the neck.

The Banjareens, in burying their dead, always place the head to the north, and throw into the grave ſeveral kinds of proviſions, from a ſuperſtitious notion that they may be uſeful to them in the other world. They fix the place of interment out of the reach of the flood; and the mourners, as in Japan and China, are dreſſed in white, and carry lighted torches in their hands.

Pagans as well as Mahometans allow a plurality of wives and concubines. They in general live to an advanced age, which is attributed to their frequent uſe of the water, for both men and women bathe in the rivers once in the day; from which practice they are very expert in ſwimming. The Malayan is the language of thoſe on the coaſt.

They are ſtrangers to the uſe of phyſic, and the letting of blood, however deſperate the caſe of the patient, is to them a circumſtance of the moſt alarming nature. An inſtance of their great timidity on this occaſion is thus given by captain Beckman, who was under the neceſſity of ſubmitting to that operation. "One day (ſays he) being indiſpoſed, I ordered the ſurgeon to bleed me. Cay Deponattee, and ſeveral others of the natives, being in the room, and ſtrangers to the operation, were in great amazement to know what we were about, till at length the vein being opened, they ſaw the blood guſh out; at this they were ſo frightened that they immediately ran out of the room, crying out, in their language, "the man's heart or mind is fooliſh;" after which they told us,

us, we let out our very ſouls and lives willingly, which they ſaid was very ill done. To this I anſwered, that their diet being mean, and their drink only water, they had no occaſion for bleeding; but that we, who drink ſo much wine and punch, and fed upon ſo much fleſh, which rendered the blood hot and rich, had an abſolute neceſſity of doing it, otherwiſe we ſhould be ſick. "Aye (ſays Cay Deponattee) I think that ſhews you to be ſtill greater fools, in putting yourſelves to ſuch expenſive charges, on purpoſe to receive pain for it." This was certainly a very trite obſervation, and fully evinced, that if they wanted faith in the utility of this expedient, they were not defective in natural underſtanding.

As they ſuppoſe moſt of their diſtempers to ariſe from the malice of ſome evil demon, when a perſon is ſick, inſtead of applying to medicine, they make an entertainment of various kinds of proviſions, which they hold under ſome conſpicuous tree in a field; theſe proviſions, which conſiſt of rice, fowls, fiſh, &c. they offer for the relief of the perſons afflicted: and if he recovers, they repeat the offering, by way of returning thanks for the bleſſing received; but if the patient dies, they expreſs their reſentment againſt the ſpirit by whom he is ſuppoſed to have been affected.

They know nothing of aſtronomy; and when an eclipſe happens, they think the world is going to be deſtroyed. They likewiſe know little of arithmetic, and their only method of calculating is by parallel lines and moveable buttons on a board.

Their current money is dollars and half and quarter dollars; and for ſmall change they have a ſort of money made of lead in the form of rings, which are ſtrung on a kind of dry leaf.

The towns and factories to which the Europeans trade are built on floats of timber on the river: each town conſiſts of one long ſtreet; and, to ſecure them from being carried away by the ſtream, poſts are driven into the ground near the ſhore, to which they are faſtened with cables made of rattans. Each houſe conſiſts only of one floor divided into different apartments, according to the number in family: the ſides of the building are made with ſplit bamboo, and the roof is covered with leaves of trees: the walls are made high for the benefit of the air, and from their tops hang coverings that reach within five feet of the logs, and are made in a ſloping form, to keep off the ſcorching heat of the ſun. The floats are made of large logs of wood; and the houſes are ſo light in their conſtruction, that a great part of the float is ſeen above the ſurface of the water.

The houſes of the poorer ſort are built on piles of bamboo, in the mud on each ſide, and are ranged in an uniform manner behind thoſe on the floats. At high water they get to their houſes with boats; and when the water is low, they go from one to the other on logs of timber. It ſometimes happens at ebb tides, when the current is exceſſive ſtrong, that theſe houſes will be removed a conſiderable diſtance, and with great difficulty brought back to their original ſtations. Inſtances have been known of their being driven to ſea, and totally loſt.

The city of Borneo, on the north, Paſſeer on the eaſt, Succadanea on the weſt, and Banjar Maſſeen on the ſouth, are the principal places for trade on this iſland. The laſt of theſe is the moſt conſiderable on account of the river Banjar, which is ſo commodious as to admit ſhips of the greateſt burden.—This river runs from north to ſouth above half through the iſland, and towards its mouth is near two miles broad. Its banks are planted with thick groves of evergreens; and one branch of it is called the China River, from the Chineſe junks conſtantly paſſing it.

The inland part of this country is divided into ſeveral petty kingdoms, each of which is governed by a rajah, or king. Formerly all the rajahs were ſubject to the rajah of Borneo, who was eſteemed the ſupreme king over the whole iſland; but his authority has been of late years greatly diminiſhed; and there are other kings equal, if not more powerful, than himſelf, particularly the king of Caytonge. The town where this prince reſides is ſituated about 80 miles up the Banjar river. His palace is a very elegant building, erected on pillars, and is open on all ſides. Before the palace is a large building, conſiſting of only one room, which is ſet apart for holding of councils, and entertaining foreigners. In the center of the room is the throne, covered with a rich canopy of gold and ſilver brocade. About the palace are planted ſeveral cannon, which are ſo old, and mounted on ſuch wretched carriages, that they are neither ornamental nor uſeful.

The ſuperiority of this prince is derived from the cuſtoms he receives at the port of Banjar Maſſeen, which are eſtimated at 8000 pieces of eight per annum.

Next in rank to the above, is the king or ſultan of Negaree, whoſe palace is ſituated at a place called Metapoora, about ten miles from Caytonge. Before the gates of this palace is an handſome armoury, which contains a great number of fire-arms, and ſeveral cannon. He is always on good terms with his neighbour the prince of Caytonge, and to theſe two princes the reſt are ſubordinate.

The natives pay great homage to theſe princes, and it is difficult for a ſtranger to get acceſs to them. The only means to effect this is by complimenting them with ſome valuable preſent, for avarice is their darling paſſion; and the ſtranger will be treated with reſpect in proportion to the preſent he makes.

The mountaineers live independent of any of theſe kings: they are divided into different clans under their reſpective chiefs, and are ſubject to a government peculiar to themſelves. They are ſeldom ſeen, as they live in the woods and foreſts, where they are ſo ſecure, that it would be difficult to attack them: and they are ſo ſavage, that an attempt would, in all probability, be attended with the moſt fatal conſequences. Their arms are a dagger, and a trunk about ſeven feet long, through which they ſhoot poiſoned darts made of braſs, and barbed on each ſide. Their dreſs conſiſts only of a piece of cloth wrapped round the waiſt, and a rag about their heads. They often come down to Tatas to get commodities from the Banjareens, in exchange for which they give gold, bezoar, rice, wax, &c.

The Dutch poſſeſs the principal parts on the coaſt of this iſland, and are maſters of the beſt ports, and moſt valuable articles in traffic; but there are many creeks about the iſland, where others have free commerce without moleſtation. As this country produces a great variety of articles, whoſe value are more eſtimable to other nations than to the Dutch, numbers of foreigners reſort here for thoſe commodities that are beſt adapted to the trade of their own nation. The Chineſe and Japaneſe come here for ſpices; the Malayans for gold; and thoſe from the Mogul country in ſearch of diamonds. As the Dutch reckon the pepper, cloves, and cinnamon, as inferior to thoſe of the other ſpice iſlands, ſo they ſuffer them to be ſold without interruption. The natives are ſupplied by the Dutch with the manufactures of India; in exchange for which they receive gold, diamonds, and other valuable commodities.

Pepper, gold, precious ſtones, and a gum called dragon's blood, which is ſaid to be finer here than in any other part of the world, are the principal articles purchaſed by the Engliſh merchants.

The European commodities taken here conſiſt of guns, piſtols, gunpowder, ſheet-lead, iron and ſteel bars, nails of different ſizes, hangers, knives, and other cutlery wares, boots made of red leather, ſpectacles, looking-glaſſes, clock-work, callimancos, and various ſorts of linens.

The

The capital city, Borneo, is ſituated on the north-weſt corner of the iſland, and lies in 112 deg. 2 min. eaſt long. and in 4 deg. 55 min. north lat. On the eaſt ſide of it is an excellent harbour, adjoining to which is a large river, capable of accommodating ſhips of the greateſt burthen. The town is very large, the ſtreets ſpacious, and the houſes well built: they are, in general, three ſtories high, covered with flat roofs. The ſultan's palace is an elegant and extenſive building.

This place is the chief ſeat of commerce in the iſland, and the port belonging to it is continually crowded with ſhips from various nations, particularly from China, Cambodia, Siam, and Malacca: and there are prodigious numbers of boats that come from the Philippine and other iſlands. The Dutch import here glaſs, cinnabar, cloths, woollens, and iron, in exchange for which they take camphire, gold and precious ſtones. The Portugueſe and Engliſh have ſome trade here, though no ſettled factory; but there are merchants of both nations who correſpond with the company's factors on the coaſt of Coromandel.

Here it may not be improper to obſerve, that thoſe who barter with the natives of Borneo muſt carefully examine the goods they purchaſe, and ſee that the weight or meaſure is juſt; for they are arrant cheats; and ſuch ſtrangers are they to any remorſe of conſcience, that he thinks himſelf the moſt ingenious who commits the moſt diſtinguiſhed fraud. They make compoſitions to imitate ſome of the moſt valuable articles, particularly bezoar and bars of gold; the latter of which is ſo artfully executed, that, unleſs a penetration is made entirely through them, the deception cannot be diſcovered.

The iſland of Java is ſituated between 102 and 113 deg. eaſt long. and between 5 and 8 deg. of ſouth lat. being about 700 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. It is bounded on the eaſt by the iſland and ſtraits of Bally, on the weſt by the ſtraits of Sunda, (from whence it is called one of the Sunda iſlands,) on the north by the iſland of Borneo, and on the ſouth by the Indian Ocean.

The iſland of Java produces goats, ſheep, hogs, buffaloes, and horſes. The horſe, which is ſaid to have been met with here when the country was firſt diſcovered, is a ſmall, but nimble animal, being ſeldom above thirteen hands high. The horned cattle of this country are different from thoſe of Europe; the fleſh is extremely lean, but of a very fine grain. Both the Chineſe, and the natives of the iſland, feed on the buffalo; but the Dutch will neither taſte the fleſh or the milk, from a ridiculous idea that they are productive of fevers. The ſheep are tough and ill-taſted, and they have long hanging ears. A few ſheep from the Cape of Good Hope being at Batavia, captain Cook bought ſome of them at the rate of 1s. per pound.

Formerly this iſland produced no kind of ſpices but pepper, and the quantity which the Dutch bring annually from thence is very conſiderable; but the quantity uſed in the country is very ſmall, as the people there give the preference to Cayan pepper. The inhabitants are very fond of nutmegs and cloves, but they bear too high a price to be much in uſe, as the trees which produce them are all become Dutch property.

The natives of Java profeſs the religion of Mahomet, and of courſe do not indulge in wine, at leaſt publicly, but, not to be exceeded in the vice of drunkenneſs by their Chriſtian neighbours, they are almoſt conſtantly chewing opium, which is well known to intoxicate in a high degree.

The moſt diſtinguiſhed city in this iſland is Batavia, ſituated in 6 deg. 10 min. ſouth lat. and 106 deg. 50 min. eaſt long. from the meridian of Greenwich. It is built on the bank of a large bay, ſomething more than twenty miles from the ſtreight of Sunda, on the north ſide of the iſland of Java, in low boggy ground. Several ſmall rivers, which riſe forty miles up the country in the mountains of Blaeuwen Berg, diſcharge themſelves into the ſea at this place, having firſt interſected the town in different directions. There are wide canals of nearly ſtagnated water in almoſt every ſtreet, and as the banks of theſe canals are planted with rows of trees, the effect is very agreeable; but theſe trees and canals combine to render the air peſtilential. Some of the rivers are navigable more than thirty miles up the country; and, indeed, the Dutch appear to have choſen this ſpot to build the town on, for the ſake of water-carriage, in which convenience Batavia exceeds every place in the world, except the towns of Holland.

The ſtreets being wide, and the houſes large, it ſtands on more ground than any other place that has only an equal number of houſes.

In dry weather, a moſt horrid ſtench ariſes from the canals, and taints the air to a great degree; and when the rains have ſo ſwelled the canals that they overflow their banks, the ground-floors of the houſes, in the lower parts of the town, are filled with ſtinking water, that leaves behind it dirt and ſlime in amazing quantities. The running ſtreams are ſometimes as offenſive as the ſtagnant canals; for the bodies of dead animals are frequently lodged on the ſhallow parts, where they are left to putrify and corrupt the air, except a flood happens to carry them away. This was the caſe with a dead buffalo, while the crew of the Endeavour were there, which lay ſtinking on the ſhoal of a river, in one of the chief ſtreets, for ſeveral days: indeed, the air of this place is ſo very unwholeſome, that it is repreſented by captain Cook as the grave of European navigators.

Any number of ſhips may anchor in the harbour of Batavia, the ground of which is ſo excellent, that the anchor will never quit its hold. This harbour is ſometimes dangerous for boats, when the ſea-breeze blows freſh; but, upon the whole, it is deemed the beſt and moſt commodious in all India.

The environs of Batavia have a very pleaſing appearance, and would, in almoſt any other country, be an enviable ſituation. Gardens and houſes occupy the country for ſeveral miles; but the gardens are ſo covered with trees, that the advantage of the land having been cleared of the wood, with which it was originally covered, is almoſt wholly loſt; while theſe gardens, and the fields adjacent to them, are ſurrounded by ditches which yield not the moſt fragrant ſcent, and the bogs and moraſſes in the adjacent fields are ſtill more offenſive.

At near forty miles from the town, the land riſes into hills, and the air is purified in a great degree; to this diſtance the invalids are ſent by the phyſicians, when every other proſpect of their recovery has failed, and the experiment ſucceeds in almoſt every inſtance, for the ſick are ſoon reſtored to health; but they no ſooner return to the town than their former diſorders viſit them.

Pine-apples grow here in ſuch abundance, that they may be purchaſed, at firſt hand, for the value of an Engliſh farthing. Our people bought ſome very large ones for a halfpenny a-piece at the fruit-ſhops.

There are plenty of mangos, but their taſte is far inferior to that of the melting peach of England, to which they have been compared.

The tamarinds are equally cheap and plentiful; but as the method of preſerving them, which is in ſalt, renders them a mere black lump, they are equally nauſeating to the ſight and palate.

The Batavians, as well as the natives of other parts of the iſland of Java, ſtrew an immenſe number of flowers about their houſes, and are almoſt always burning aromatic woods and gums, which is done by way of purifying the air; the ſtench that ariſes from the canals and ditches being exceeding nauſeous and diſagreeable.

The hogs here, eſpecially thoſe of the Chineſe breed, are exquiſitely fine food, but ſo very fat, that the lean is always ſold ſeparate.

The Portugueſe make a practice of ſhooting the wild hog, and deer of two kinds, with which the neighbourhood of Batavia abounds. Theſe are all good eating, and are purchaſed at very moderate prices. The goats of this country are as bad food as the ſheep. Dogs and cats abound on the iſlands, and wild horſes, and other cattle are found on the mountains, at a conſiderable diſtance from Batavia.

Few monkies are ſeen near the towns, but there are many on the mountains and deſert places, where are alſo a few rhinoceroſes, and great numbers of tygers.

The quantity of fiſh taken here is aſtoniſhingly great, and all the kinds of them are fine food, except a few, which are very ſcarce; yet, ſuch is the falſe pride of the inhabitants, that theſe few ſorts are ſold at very high rates, while thoſe that are good are ſold for a mere trifle, nor are they eaten but by the ſlaves. A gentleman, with whom captain Cook dined, told him, he could have bought a finer diſh of fiſh for a ſhilling than what he had given ten for; but that he ſhould have been the ridicule of all the politer people, if he had gone to ſo good a market.

Mr. Banks, while here, ſhot a lizard, five feet long, which was exceeding well-taſted; and our adventurers were informed, that ſome of theſe animals had been ſeen, which were full as thick as the thigh of a man.

Captain Cook was informed that, at the time he was there, the whole place could not furniſh fifty women who were natives of Europe, yet the town abounded with white women, who were deſcended from Europeans, who had ſettled there at different times, all the men having paid the debt of nature; for ſo it is, that the climate of Batavia deſtroys the men much faſter than the women.

Mercantile buſineſs is conducted at Batavia with the ſlighteſt trouble imaginable. When a merchant receives an order for goods of any kind, he communicates the contents of it to the Chineſe, who are the univerſal manufacturers. The Chineſe agent delivers the effects on board the ſhip for which they are beſpoke, and taking a receipt for them from the maſter of the veſſel, he delivers it to the merchant, who pays the Chineſe for the goods, and reſerves a conſiderable profit, without the leaſt trouble, riſk, or anxiety.

The Indian inhabitants of Batavia, and the country in its neighbourhood, are not native Javaneſe, but are either born on the ſeveral iſlands from whence the Dutch bring their ſlaves, or the offspring of ſuch as have been born on thoſe iſlands: and theſe having been made free, either in their own perſons, or in the perſons of their anceſtors, enjoy all the privileges of free men. They receive the general appellation of Dranſlam, which implies, "Believers of the true faith."

The hair of the people, which is black, without a ſingle exception, grows in great abundance; yet the women make uſe of oils and other ingredients, to increaſe the quantity of it; they faſten it to the crown of the head with a bodkin, having firſt twiſted it into a circle, round which circle they place an elegant wreath of flowers, ſo that the whole head-dreſs has a moſt beautiful appearance.

It is an univerſal cuſtom, both with the men and women, to bathe in a river once a day, and ſometimes oftener, which not only promotes health, but prevents that contraction of filth, which would be otherwiſe unavoidable in ſo hot a climate.

Almoſt every perſon has heard or read of the Mohawks; and theſe are the people who are ſo denominated, from a corruption of the word Amock, which will be fully explained by the following ſtory and obſervations. To run a muck is to get drunk with opium, and then ſeizing ſome offenſive weapon, to ſally forth from the houſe, kill the perſon or perſons ſuppoſed to have injured the Amock, and any other perſon who attempts to impede his paſſage, till himſelf is taken priſoner, or killed on the ſpot.

While captain Cook was at Batavia, a perſon whoſe circumſtances in life were independent, becoming jealous of his brother, intoxicated himſelf with opium, and then murdered his brother, and two other men, who endeavoured to ſeize him. This man, contrary to the uſual cuſtom, did not leave his own houſe, but made his reſiſtance from within it; yet he had taken ſuch a quantity of the opium, that he was totally delirious; which appeared from his attempting to fire three muſkets, neither of which had been loaded, or even primed.

During captain Cook's ſtay, ſeveral inſtances of the like kind occurred; and he was informed by an officer, whoſe duty it was to take ſuch offenders into cuſtody, that hardly a week paſſed in the year in which he was not obliged to exerciſe his authority: the captain was alſo told, that jealouſy of the women is the uſual reaſon of theſe poor creatures running a muck, and that the firſt object of their vengeance is always the perſon whom they ſuppoſe to have injured them. The officer, whoſe buſineſs it is to apprehend theſe unhappy wretches, is furniſhed with a long pair of tongs, in order to take hold of them at ſuch a diſtance from the point of their weapons, as to inſure his perſonal ſafety. When he takes one of them alive he is amply rewarded; but this is not often the caſe, as they are ſo deſperate as not to be eaſily apprehended: when they are killed in the attempt to take them, the officer has only the cuſtomary gratification. Thoſe who are taken alive are broken on the wheel, as near as poſſible to the place where the firſt murder was perpetrated: and as they are ſeldom apprehended without being previouſly wounded, the time of their execution is ſooner or later, according to the opinion of the phyſicians, whether the wounds are, or are not, mortal.

There are many inſtances of the ſuperſtition of theſe people, that might be thought very extraordinary; but the following will appear much more ſo. They are poſſeſſed with an idea, that when one of their wives is brought to bed, a crocodile is born, as a brother to the infant; and they imagine that the midwife conveys the young crocodile to an adjacent river, into which ſhe puts it with the utmoſt care and tenderneſs. Thoſe who ſuppoſe themſelves honoured by the birth of this new relation, fail not to put food in the river for his ſubſiſtence; but this is the peculiar duty of the twin-brother, who performs this ſervice regularly, at fixed periods, during the whole courſe of his life; firmly believing, at the ſame time, that ſickneſs or death would be the conſequence of an omiſſion on his part.

In the iſlands of Boutou and Celebes, the natives keep crocodiles in their families; and it is conjectured, that the ſtrange idea of the twin-crocodile was firſt conceived in one of thoſe iſlands: it extends, however, to Java and Sumatra weſtward, and, among the iſlands to the eaſtward, as far as Ceram and Timor. It is a matter of perfect aſtoniſhment, how even the moſt ignorant and credulous of the human race ſhould firmly believe an utter impoſſibility to occur daily; yet it is certain, that not one of the Indians whom captain Cook queſtioned on the ſubject, entertained the leaſt doubt about the matter. The crocodiles ſuppoſed to be thus born, are diſtinguiſhed by the name of Sudaras: and our readers cannot fail of being entertained with the following ſtory reſpecting them, which Mr. Banks heard from a young woman who was born at Bencoolen, and having lived among the Engliſh at that place, had learnt to ſpeak as much of our language as was ſufficient to make her ſtory intelligible.

She ſaid that, when her father was on his death-bed, he laid the ſtrongeſt injunctions on her to feed a crocodile that was his Sudara; that he told her the name by which he might be called up, and the particular part of the river where ſhe would find him. Soon after the death of her father, ſhe haſtened to the river, and calling Radja Pouti (which ſignifies white king) the Sudara crocodile made his appearance, and ſhe fed him with her own hands. She deſcribed him as being more beautiful than crocodiles are in general, for he had a red noſe, and ſpots on his body; his ears were adorned with rings, and his feet with ornaments of gold. This ſtory will appear the more extravagantly ridiculous when it is recollected that crocodiles have not any ears.

A man, whoſe mother was a native of the iſland of Java, and whoſe father was a Dutchman, was engaged in the ſervice of Mr. Banks, during his reſidence at Batavia. This man told his maſter, that ſeveral Dutchmen, and many Javaneſe, as well as himſelf, had ſeen ſuch a crocodile as was deſcribed by the girl who told the preceding ſtory, and that, like her's, its feet were adorned with gold. On Mr. Banks's remarking the abſurdity of theſe tales, and ſaying that crocodiles had not ears, he replied, that the Sudaras differed conſiderably from other crocodiles; that they had ears, though he acknowledged they were ſmall; that their tongues filled their mouths, and that on each foot they had five toes.

While captain Cook was at Batavia, Spaniſh dollars ſold at five ſhillings and five-pence each, and the price is ſeldom much lower. The Chineſe would give only the value of twenty ſhillings for an Engliſh guinea that was almoſt new, and for thoſe that were old, and much worn, only ſeventeen ſhillings.

Captain Cook obſerves, that a remarkable ſubordination prevails among the people in Batavia. Every houſekeeper has a certain ſpecific rank, according to the length of time he has ſerved the company. The different ranks thus acquired are diſtinguiſhed by the ornaments of the coaches and the dreſſes of the coachmen: ſome ride in plain coaches, ſome are allowed to paint them with different devices, and ſome to gild them. The coachmen alſo are obliged to appear in clothes quite plain, or ornamented in various manners and degrees.

The chief officer in this place has the title of governor-general of the Indies, to whom the Dutch governors of all other ſettlements are ſubordinate; and they are obliged to repair to Batavia in order to have their accounts paſſed by him. Should they appear to have been criminal, or even negligent, he detains them during pleaſure; ſometimes three years; for they cannot, without his permiſſion, quit the place. The members of the council, called by the natives Edele Heeren, and by the Engliſh Idollers, are next in rank to the governor-general. Theſe aſſume ſo much ſtate, that whoever meets them in a carriage are expected to riſe up and bow, and after this compliment they drive to one ſide of the road, and ſtop till the members of the council have paſſed: their wives and children expect alſo the ſame homage, and it is commonly paid them by the inhabitants. Some Engliſh captains have conſidered this as a ſlaviſh mark of reſpect, derogatory to their dignity as ſervants of his Britannic majeſty, and for this reaſon have refuſed to pay it: nevertheleſs, when in a hired coach, nothing but a menace of immediate death could prevent the coachman from honouring the Dutch grandee at the expence of their mortification.

With reſpect to the diſtribution of juſtice, it is adminiſtered in Batavia by the lawyers, who have peculiar ranks of diſtinction among themſelves. Their deciſions in criminal caſes ſeem to be ſevere with reſpect to the natives, but lenient, in a partial degree, to their own people. A Chriſtian is always indulged with an opportunity of eſcaping before he is brought to trial, whatever may be his offence, and, when convicted, he is ſeldom puniſhed with death. On the contrary, the poor Indians are hanged, broken upon the wheel, and even impaled alive. As to the Malays and Chineſe, they have judicial officers of their own, named captains and lieutenants, who determine in civil caſes, ſubject to an appeal to the Dutch tribunal. The taxes laid upon theſe people by the company are very conſiderable, among which, that exacted for liberty to wear their hair, is not the leaſt. The time of payment is monthly, and, to ſave the charge and trouble of collecting them, notice is given of this by hoiſting a flag upon the top of a houſe in the middle of the town, and the Chineſe find it their intereſt to repair thither, when a payment is due, without delay.

About 80 miles eaſt of Batavia, is Cherebon, a place of conſiderable extent, and where the Dutch have a factory. The country is very fertile, and produces moſt kinds of proviſions, particularly rice.—The inhabitants are under the dominion of four great lords, called ſultans, one of whom is particularly attached to the Dutch, and, for that reaſon, is diſtinguiſhed from the reſt by the name of the company's ſultan.

Bantam, which was once the metropolis of a great kingdom, is the principal place of commerce at the weſtern part of this iſland. It ſtands in a plain, at the foot of a mountain, from whence iſſues a river that divides itſelf into three ſtreams, one of which runs through the town, and the others furround it. It is 12 miles in circumference; and, before it was reduced by the treachery of the Dutch (who firſt joined the natives againſt their king, and then ſtripped the latter of all regal power) was very populous, well fortified, and adorned with ſeveral elegant buildings and palaces. At this time, however, it is a very ruinous place, inhabited only by the pooreſt people.

Palamboan, the capital of a kingdom or principality of the ſame name, is ſituated in 114 deg. eaſt longitude, and in 7 deg. 30 min. ſouth latitude, on the Straights of Bally, through which the Eaſt India ſhips ſometimes paſs when they are homeward-bound from Borneo.

Mataram, an empire that once extended over the whole iſland, and even now takes up a conſiderable part of it, is under the government of the Dutch, and was the laſt reduced to ſubjection by them on this iſland. The country of Mataram is in general very fertile, and produces great quantities of rice, as alſo plenty of fruit. There are likewiſe various ſorts of animals, particularly horſes, ſheep, goats, and remarkably large oxen. The rivers abound with fiſh, and the woods produce great plenty of game. But the moſt valuable articles of this country are rice, pepper, cadjang, cotton, yarn, cardamom, and indigo; the latter of which is eſteemed to be as good in quality as any found in the Indies.

Mataram, the capital of the kingdom, is the uſual reſidence of the king. His palace is a very handſome ſpacious building, adjoining to which are many good houſes belonging to his nobles, who every day wait on him; and his ſubjects in general pay him the greateſt homage.

Though theſe princes are vaſſals, yet they are permitted to live in as great ſtate as if they were really monarchs; and the orders of the Dutch are always executed in their names. They, therefore, aſſume a dignity not inferior to the moſt deſpotic prince; and, when they go abroad, are attended with every diſtinguiſhed mark of royalty.

Japara is ſituated at the bottom of an eminence, called the Invincible Mountain, on the top of which is a fort, built of wood. It is a very conſiderable place, and has a good road, ſecured by two ſmall iſlands.

The

The Engliſh had once a factory here, but they were driven from it by the Portugueſe.

The natives of this country are very fond of diverſions, particularly the repreſentation of comedies; and they are ſuch ſlaves to cock-fighting, that, by the large ſums they bet, they are often reduced to the moſt abject diſtreſs.

The Inhabitants of Java are chiefly Mahometans, as is alſo the chief, who generally reſides at a place called Kattaſura, where the Dutch have a fort and garriſon. This prince reigns abſolute among his ſubjects, who are very faithful, and pay him the greateſt homage. Like moſt Eaſtern monarchs, he is conſtantly attended by women, and takes as many wives and concubines as he thinks proper. When his courtiers obtain an audience, they approach him with the greateſt humility.

The ISLAND OF SUMATRA is ſituated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 104 deg. eaſt long. and 5 deg. 30 min. north lat. It is bounded on the eaſt by Borneo, on the north by Malacca, on the ſouth-eaſt by Java, and on the weſt by the Indian Ocean. It is long and narrow, reaching in a direct line, from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, and is about 750 miles in length, and 175 in breadth. It is the firſt of the remarkable iſlands that form the Great Archipelago of the Eaſt, the entrance of which is, as it were, blocked up by this Iſland and Java, which form a barrier, ſeparating the Indian from the Chineſe Ocean, with this exception, that, in the centre, between the two iſlands, there is an opening, which appears as if purpoſely deſigned to admit a free paſſage for the advantage of commerce. This opening is called the Straits of Sunda, the ſouth part of which is the north of Java, called Java Head; and the north point is the ſouth of Sumatra, called Flat Point. Theſe two are about ſix leagues aſunder, between which ſhips paſs from Europe directly to Batavia or China, without touching in the Indies. They ſtretch away eaſt from the Cape of Good Hope, and make no land till, having traverſed the whole Indian Sea, they arrive at Java Head.

The air of this iſland is in general very unwholeſome, ariſing chiefly from the two extremes of heat and cold, and the intermixture of wet from very heavy rains. The day and night are equal; and the inconveniences that occur from the exceſſive heat of the former are greatly increaſed by the cold chilling wind of the latter.

A chain of mountains run through the whole iſland, from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and here the air is more wholeſome than on the coaſt. There are alſo conſiderable mountains on the weſt coaſt, in one of which is a volcano, that frequently throws out flames of fire.

The monſoons, or periodical winds, ſhift here at the equinoxes, as they do in other parts of the Indian Seas, blowing ſix months in one direction, and ſix months in the oppoſite direction. Near the coaſt there are other periodical winds, which blow the greateſt part of the day from the ſea, and in the night, and part of the morning, from the land; but theſe ſcarce extend ſeven miles from the coaſt.

Of the many ſmall rivers on this iſland, none are navigable; and their waters are very unwholeſome. The river Indapura, which falls into the ſea, on the weſt coaſt, has a water tinged with red, occaſioned, as it is ſaid, by the great quantity of ochre that grows on its banks, which are always covered at the time of the floods. The waters of all the rivers that overflow the low countries are very foul, and not fit for uſe till they have been boiled, and infuſed with tea, or ſome other wholeſome herbs.

Pepper, rice, ſugar, camphire, gold-duſt, bezoar, canes, and cotton, are the moſt valuable produce of this iſland. The ſoil is in ſome parts very fertile, and well watered with rivulets; but, in the low lands, next the ſea, are abundance of bogs and marſhes, which produce only reeds and canes of bamboo.

Moſt kinds of fruits abound here, arrive to the greateſt perfection, and are equal to any found in the Indies: as cocoa-nuts, limes, oranges, mangoes, plantains, guavas, jakas, durains, pine-apples, mangoſtans, and other tropical fruits. They have alſo melons, peas, beans, potatoes, yams, radiſhes, pot-herbs, ſallads, and plenty of all kinds of garden-ſtuff. There is likewiſe a plant grows here called bang, which is ſomewhat like hemp, and, when infuſed in liquor, operates much like opium. This is ſometimes uſed by the natives, particularly when they are engaged in war, as it animates them to perſevere in the moſt dangerous undertakings.

The animals here are horſes, buffaloes, deer, goats, hogs, oxen, and hog-deer, from the latter of which is obtained a ſpecies or kind of the bezoar-ſtone. This ſtone is of a dark-brown colour, and has two ſmall coats, the innermoſt of which is covered with ſmall ſtrings, but the outer coat is quite ſmooth. When the ſtone is diſſolved in any liquor, its taſte is exceeding bitter; but if a ſmall quantity of it is taken by thoſe who have an oppreſſion of the ſtomach, a foul blood, or a want of appetite, it will remove the complaints; and is alſo very efficacious in other diſorders incident to human nature.

There are ſeveral ſorts of wild animals in the woods, and mountains; as, tygers, elephants, rhinoceroſes, monkies, and wild boars. There are alſo ſquirrels, guanoes, porcupines, alligators, ſerpents, ſcorpions, muſketos, and other venomous inſects; and this is ſaid to be the only iſland in the Eaſt Indies where there are bears.

Here are ſeveral ſorts of poultry, particularly fowls and ducks; alſo pigeons, doves, parrots, parroquets, mackaws, and a great variety of ſmall birds.

The rivers abound with fiſh, amongſt which are mullets, cray-fiſh, ſhrimps, eels, oyſters, &c. and they have plenty of turtles. But ſome of the rivers are greatly peſtered with crocodiles.

Great quantities of gold are got out of the rivers and mountains on the north part of the iſland; and the trade of Achen principally depends on this valuable commodity. There are alſo mines of tin, iron, braſs, copper, &c. It has not any wheat or rye, but great quantities of barley, honey, wax, ſugar, ginger, and pepper, with which they load their veſſels every year; and they ſend their pepper and gold in exchange for rice and opium, which our merchants ſend them from Bengal and other parts.

The inhabitants on the coaſt are Mahometans; the mountaineers, or natives, are Pagans. They are in general of a moderate ſtature, and very ſwarthy complexion. They have black eyes, flat faces, and high cheek-bones. Their hair is long and black, and they take great pains to dye their teeth of the ſame colour. They likewiſe beſmear themſelves with oil, as in other hot countries, to prevent being ſtung by the inſects; and let their nails grow exceeding long, ſcraping them till they are tranſparent, and dying them with vermillion.

The poorer ſort have a ſmall piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt; and about their head they wear a piece of linen, or cap made of leaves, reſembling the crown of a hat; but they have neither ſhoes nor ſtockings. The better ſort wear drawers or breeches, and a piece of calico or ſilk wrapped about their loins, and thrown over the left ſhoulder; and when in towns they wear ſandals on their feet.

They are very proud and revengeful; and ſo indolent that they will neither endeavour to improve themſelves in arts, ſciences, or huſbandry; but ſuffer their manufactures to be neglected, and their lands to lie without cultivation.

Their flying proas, or ſailing veſſels, are greatly admired for the neat and convenient manner in which they

they are conſtructed. They are very expert in building their houſes, but in all other mechanical arts they are very deficient.

Sumatra is divided into ſeveral kingdoms and principalities; but the moſt conſiderable is Achen, which comprehends the whole northern part of the iſland.

Beſides the king of Achen, who is the greateſt monarch in the iſland, there are ſeveral orancayas, or great lords, in this kingdom, who exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective territories, but they all acknowledge the king of Achen their ſuperior, and accept the great offices in his court. In former times, the kings have exerciſed ſuch deſpotic power as to diſplace ſome of theſe, and depoſe others; and, on the contrary, inſtances have been known where theſe princes have depoſed the king, and placed another on the throne.

The king of Achen and theſe princes have often ſtruggled for ſovereign power; and if the former has been abſolute in ſome reigns, he has had a very limited authority in others. The king has the power of diſpoſing of the crown, during his life, to ſuch of his children as he thinks proper, whether born of a wife or concubine: but if the king does not diſpoſe of it in his life-time, there are ſometimes ſeveral competitors for it; and he who is moſt favoured by the orancayas, or vaſſal princes, uſually carries his point: and in theſe caſes the crown is elective.

The capital city of this kingdom is Achen, ſituated in 93 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. and 5 deg. 30 min. north latitude. It ſtands on a plain, about five miles from the ſea, 1000 miles ſouth-eaſt of Fort St. George, in India, and about 450 miles north-weſt of the city of Malacca. The harbour, which is capable of containing any number of the largeſt ſhips, is commanded by a ſpacious fortreſs, encompaſſed by a ditch, well fortified, according to the Indian manner, and mounted with cannon. There are ſeven gates belonging to the city, beſides which there are other redoubts and fortifications in the adjacent marſhes.

In Achen are about 8000 houſes, which are built on poſts, two feet above the ground, on account of the great rains that ſometimes ſo overflow the city, that the inhabitants go from one houſe to another in boats. The floors and ſides are made of ſplit bamboos, and they are covered with reeds, cocoa, or palmetto leaves. They are chiefly divided by paliſadoes, except in two or three particular ſtreets, ſet apart for trade, and one that is particularly inhabited by the Chineſe. The Europeans live as near each other as they can, in a long ſtreet near the river. They conſiſt of Engliſh, Dutch, Danes, and Portugueſe, who, with the Guzurats and Chineſe, are the chief traders in the city.

The king's elephants and magazines are kept in the outer court of the palace; and at proper diſtances are ſeveral ſmall forts, well guarded and ſtored with artillery and fire-arms. But the king's greateſt ſtrength conſiſts in his elephants, which are very numerous, and ſo trained that they will ſtand unmoved at the firing of artillery. It is ſaid that when they paſs the king's apartments they will ſalute him by bending their necks and raiſing their trunks.

The king has alſo a great number of horſes, all of which, as well as the elephants, have rich and magnificent trappings.

He is not at any expence in time of war; for, at his command all his ſubjects are obliged to march at their own expence, and carry with them proviſions for three months. If they are in the field longer than that time, he ſupplies them with rice for their ſupport. On their going out he furniſhes them with arms, a regiſter of which is kept, and they are obliged to reſtore them at their return.

This monarch muſt be very rich, for he is at much leſs expence than any other prince in the Indies. In war he is only at the expence of arms, powder, lead, and rice, which is very trifling; and in peace it does not coſt him any thing, even for the maintenance of his family. He has more fleſh, fowl, and all kinds of proviſions paid him by his ſubjects, than are conſumed in his palace; and the ſurplus is ſold at the market for his benefit. He divides hereditary eſtates among his ſubjects, whom he obliges to furniſh him with a certain quantity of rice every year. This he puts into his magazines, and exports to places where there is a ſcarcity of that article.

He is not at any expence either for his own clothes, or thoſe of his concubines; for, on a certain day in the year, all who have any office or place in the city, are obliged to make him a preſent of one or more garments, according to the income of their places. If the king diſapproves of what is preſented, he returns it back, and the officer that gave it is ſure to be turned out of his place, unleſs he adjuſts the matter, by complimenting him with a ſum of money.

He is heir to all ſubjects who die without male iſſue. If they have daughters unmarried, he ſends them to the palace. He is alſo heir to all foreigners that die within his territories; for when ſuch a perſon is known to be ill, the king's officers take poſſeſſion of his houſe, and, on his death, remove his effects to the caſtle. He has the eſtates of all thoſe put to death; and almoſt every day produces an inſtance of ſome innocent man's ſuffering, purely to gratify his unbounded avarice. If it is a wealthy perſon in office that is pitched on, he is accuſed of mal-adminiſtration; and, to prevent their alienating their eſtates or goods, he takes them by ſurprize, and has their wives, children, ſlaves, cattle, and all their moveables, lodged in the caſtle, before they know their ſentence. Such is the tyranny of this deſpotic prince!

The natives of Achen are proud, envious, and treacherous; deſpiſe their neighbours, and yet pretend to have more humanity than the inhabitants of any other nation. Some of them are good mechanics, eſpecially in building gallies; and they are very dexterous in doing all kinds of ſmith's work. They alſo work well in wood and copper; and ſome of them are ſkilled in making artillery. They live very abſtemiouſly, their chief food being rice, to which ſome of the better ſort add a ſmall quantity of fiſh, and their uſual drink is water. They are very fond of tobacco, though they have but little of their own raiſing, and, for want of pipes, they ſmoke in a bueno, which is the leaf of a tree rolled up, with a little tobacco in it; this they light at one end, and draw the ſmoke through the other, till it is nearly burnt to the lips. Theſe rolls are very curiouſly formed, and great quantities of them are ſold in the public markets.

As Mahometans, agreeably to the laws of the Koran, they are permitted to marry as many women as they pleaſe; but the firſt is entitled to the preference, and the children by her are eſteemed the lawful heirs. If any diſpute ariſe between the huſband and his wives, they may ſeparate, provided they mutually requeſt it; but the ſolicitation of one only will not be ſufficient.

The rites of marriage, among the Sumatrans, conſiſt ſimply in joining the hands of the parties, and pronouncing them man and wife, without much ceremony, except the entertainment given upon the occaſion. But little apparent courtſhip precedes the marriages; their manners do not admit of it, the young people of each ſex being carefully kept aſunder, and the girls being ſeldom truſted from under the wings of their mothers. The opportunities which the young people have of ſeeing each other, are at the public feſtivals. On theſe occaſions the perſons who are unmarried meet together, and dance and ſing in company. The men, when determined in their choice, generally employ an old woman as their agent, by whom they make known their ſentiments, and ſend preſents to the female of their choice. The parents then interfere, and the preliminaries being

ſettled, a feaſt takes place. The greater the concourſe at theſe feſtivals, the more is the credit of the hoſt, who is generally the father of the girl.

Mothers do not carry their children in the arms, as our nurſes do, but ſtraddling on the hip, and uſually ſupported by a cloth, which ties in a knot on the oppoſite ſhoulder. The children are nurſed but little, not confined by any ſwathing or bandages, and being ſuffered to roll about the floor, ſoon learn to walk and ſhift for themſelves. When cradles are uſed, they ſwing, ſuſpended from the ceiling of the room.

At their funerals the corpſe is carried to the place of interment, on a broad plank, which is kept for the public ſervice, and laſts many generations. It is conſtantly rubbed with lime, either to prevent its decay, or keep it pure. No coffin is uſed, the body being ſimply wrapped in white cloth. In forming the grave, after digging to a convenient depth, they make a cavity in the ſide, at bottom, of ſufficient dimenſions to contain the body, by which means the earth lies light upon it; and this cavity, after ſtrewing flowers in it, they ſtop up by two boards, faſtened angularly to each other; ſo that the one is on the top of the corpſe, while the other defends it on the open ſide, the edge reſting on the bottom of the grave. The outer hole is then filled up with earth, and little white flags, or ſtreamers, are ſtuck in order around. They likewiſe plant a ſhrub, bearing a white flower, and in ſome places marjorum. The women who attend the funeral make a hideous noiſe, not unlike the Iriſh howl.

It appears, from the accounts of W. Marſden, Eſq. ſecretary to the preſident and council of Fort Marlbro', that the people of Batta, in the iſland of Sumatra, eat human fleſh; not as a gluttonous delicacy, like the New Zealanders, but as a mode of ſhewing their deteſtation of crimes, and a horrid indication of revenge and inſult to their unfortunate enemies. The objects of this barbarous repaſt are priſoners taken in war, and offenders convicted and condemned for capital crimes. The unhappy object, whether priſoner of war or malefactor, is tied to a ſtake: the people aſſembled throw their lances at him from a certain diſtance, and when mortally wounded, they run up to him, as if in a tranſport of paſſion, cut pieces from the body with their knives, dip them in a diſh of ſalt and lemon-juice, ſlightly broil them over a fire prepared for the purpoſe, and ſwallow the morſels with a degree of ſavage enthuſiaſm. Inſtances have been known where, with barbarity ſtill aggravated, they have torn the fleſh from the carcaſe with their mouths. It is, however, but juſtice to obſerve, that though there have been inſtances of their eating the bodies of their enemies ſlain in battle, that horrid practice but rarely takes place.

Their method of deſtroying tygers is extraordinary, and worthy of notice. Torches, made of dried bamboos, are carried with a view to frighten away the tygers, which are alarmed at the appearance of fire; and, for the ſame reaſon, it is common to make a blaze with wood, in different parts round their villages. Theſe animals prove to the inhabitants, both in their journies, and even their domeſtic occupation, moſt fatal enemies. The number of people annually ſlain hy theſe rapacious tyrants of the woods, is almoſt incredible. Inſtances have been known of whole villages being depopulated by them; yet, from a ſuperſtitious prejudice, it is with difficulty the natives are prevailed on, by a large reward, which the India Company offers, to uſe methods of deſtroying them, till they have ſuſtained ſome particular injury in their own family or kindred. Their traps, of which they can make variety, are very ingeniouſly contrived. Sometimes they are in the nature of ſtring cages, with falling doors, into which the beaſt is enticed by a goat or dog incloſed as a bait. Sometimes they manage that a large timber ſhall fall in a groove acroſs his back. Sometimes he is nooſed about the loins with ſtrong rattans. Sometimes he is led to aſcend a plank nearly balanced, which, turning when he is paſt the centre, lets him fall upon ſharp ſtakes prepared below.

The ſize and ſtrength of the ſpecies which infeſt this iſland are prodigious. They are ſaid to break, with a ſtroke of their fore-paw, the leg of a horſe or a buffalo; and the largeſt prey they kill is, without difficulty, dragged by them into the woods. This they uſually perform the ſecond night, being ſuppoſed, on the firſt, to gratify themſelves with ſucking the blood only. Time is, by this delay, afforded to prepare for their deſtruction; and, to the methods already enumerated, may be added, that of placing a veſſel of water, ſtrongly impregnated with arſenic, near the carcaſe, which is faſtened to a tree, to prevent its being carried off. The tyger, having ſatiated himſelf with the fleſh, is prompted to aſſuage his thirſt with the tempting liquor at hand, and periſhes in the indulgence. Their chief ſubſiſtence is, moſt probably, the unfortunate monkies, with which the woods abound. They are deſcribed as alluring them to their fate by a faſcinating power, ſimilar to what has been ſuppoſed of the ſnake, the alligator, and the crocodile.

In this iſland every old man and woman is a phyſician, their rewards depending on their ſucceſs. The mode of practice is either by adminiſtering the juices of certain trees and herbs inwardly, or by applying outwardly a poultice of leaves, chopped ſmall, upon the breaſt, or part affected, renewing it as ſoon as it becomes dry. For internal pains, they rub oil on a large leaf, of a ſtimulant quality, and, heating it before the fire, clap it on the body of the patient, as a bliſter, which produces very powerful effects. They never uſe bleeding. The ſmall-pox ſometimes viſits the iſland, and makes terrible ravages. It is looked upon as a plague, and drives from the country thouſands, whom the infection ſpares. Their method of ſtopping its progreſs (for they do not attempt a cure) is by converting into an hoſpital, or receptacle for the reſt, that village where lie the greateſt number of ſick, whither they ſend all who are attacked by the diſorder, from the country round. The moſt effectual methods are purſued to prevent any perſon eſcaping from the village, which is burnt to the ground, as ſoon as the infection has ſpent itſelf, or devoured all the victims thus offered to it. Inoculation ſeems to be an idea not thought of. The venereal diſeaſe, though common in the Malay country, is, in this iſland, almoſt unknown. A man returning to his village with the infection, is ſhunned by the inhabitants as an unclean and interdicted perſon. The Malayans cure it with a decoction of a China root, called, by them, gadoong, which cauſes a ſalivation.

Robberies and murders are more frequent here than in any other part of the Indies, notwithſtanding the laws are of the moſt ſevere nature. All offenders are brought to a ſpeedy trial, and the puniſhment is inflicted immediately after conviction. If the offence be of a trifling nature, the puniſhment, for the firſt time, is the loſs only of a hand or foot, and the ſame for the ſecond; but, for the third, or if they rob to a conſiderable amount, they are impaled alive. When the hand or foot is to be cut off, the limb is laid on the edge of a broad hatchet, and the executioner ſtrikes it with a large mallet, till the amputation is perfected; and then they put the ſtump into a hollow bamboo, ſtuffed with rags or moſs, to prevent the criminal from dying by the loſs of blood. After he has thus ſuffered, whether by the king's command, or the ſentence of the judge, all the ignominy of his crime is wiped off; and if any one upbraids him with it, he may kill him with impunity. Murder and adultery are puniſhed with death; and, in this caſe, the criminal has many executioners, he being placed amidſt a number of people, who ſtab him with their daggers; but female offenders are put to death by ſtrangling.

ſtrangling. The king is frequently a ſpectator of theſe puniſhments, and ſometimes acts himſelf as executioner: and though ſuch a ſpectacle muſt, to a feeling mind, appear of the moſt horrid nature, yet, ſo little does he ſeem to be affected by it, that inſtances have been known of his executing a criminal, and immediately going to entertain himſelf with cock-fighting, a diverſion more univerſally eſteemed, than any other in the country. A gentleman, lately arrived from this part of the world, has favoured us with the following particulars relative to that amuſement. The cock-pit (if the expreſſion may be uſed) is a ſpot on the level ground, on a ſtage, erected and covered in. It is incloſed with a railing, which keeps off the ſpectators, none but the handlers and heelers being admitted withinſide. A man who has a high opinion of, and regard for his cock, will not fight him under a certain number of dollars, which he places, in order, on the floor. His poorer adverſary is perhaps unable to depoſit one-half: the ſtanders-by make up the ſum, and receive their dividends in proportion, if ſucceſsful. A father, on his death-bed, has been known to deſire his ſon to take the firſt opportunity of matching a cock for a ſum equal to his whole property, upon a blind conviction of its being invulnerable. Cocks of the ſame colour are never matched, but a grey againſt a pile, a yellow againſt a red, and the like. Great pains are taken in rearing and feeding. Contrary to our laws, the owner is allowed to take up and handle his cock during the battle, to clear his eye of a feather, or his mouth of blood. The cocks are never trimmed, but matched in full feather. The artificial ſpur uſed in Sumatra reſembles the blade of a ſcymetar in ſhape, and proves a more deſtructive weapon than the European ſpur. It has no ſocket, but is tied to the leg, and, in the poſition of it, the nicety of the match is regulated. As, in horſe-racing, weight is proportioned to inches, ſo, in cocking, a bird of ſuperior weight and ſize is brought to an equality with his adverſary, by fixing the ſteel ſpur ſo many ſcales of the leg above the natural ſpur, and thus obliging him to fight with a degree of diſadvantage. It rarely happens that both cocks ſurvive the combat.

Having thus noticed the particulars relative to the kingdom and city of Achen, we ſhall now point out the other places that are diſtinguiſhed in this iſland, beginning with thoſe on the weſtern coaſt. The firſt of theſe is Bencoolen, a ſettlement belonging to the Engliſh, but chiefly inhabited by people of other nations. This town is ſituated in 103 deg. eaſt longitude, and 3 deg. 10 min. ſouth latitude. The adjacent country is mountainous and woody; and, in ſome parts, are volcanos that frequently iſſue out fire. The air is very unwholeſome, and the mountains are generally covered with thick clouds that burſt in ſtorms of thunder, rain, &c. The ſoil is a fertile clay, and the chief produce is graſs; but near the ſea it is all a moraſs. The natives build their houſes on bamboo pillars, as at Achen, but the Engliſh build their's with timber, not only from their being in want of ſtone, but on account of earthquakes which very frequently happen in this part of the iſland.

There is a ſmall river on the north-weſt ſide of the town, by which the pepper is brought here from the inland part of the country; but there is a great inconvenience in ſhipping it, on account of a dangerous bar at the mouth of the river. The road is alſo dangerous for ſhips, as it has no other defence from the violence of the ſea, during the ſouth-weſt monſoons, than a ſmall place, named Rat Iſland, which, with the land of Point Sillabar, makes the haven. The town is about two miles in circumference, and is known, at ſea, by a very high, ſlender mountain, called the Sugar Loaf, which riſes in the country 29 miles beyond the town.

A few years after the Engliſh firſt ſettled on this iſland, which was about the year 1685, the Eaſt India Company built a fort, and called it Fort York. In 1690, a contagious diſtemper raged with ſuch violence, that the governor and council all died in a very ſhort ſpace of time, which was attributed to the town being ſituated on ſo unwholeſome a ſpot, as not to be borne by an European conſtitution. In conſequence of this calamity, the Engliſh, in 1719, began to build a new fort in a more healthy part, and better adapted for regular fortifications; but they had no ſooner raiſed the walls of it, than the natives, who had a long time been at enmity with them, attacked the place, and ſet fire to the principal part of their buildings; on which, the governor, with his ſmall garriſon, precipitately embarked for Batavia, leaving behind them ſeveral cheſts of money, and all the artillery, arms, ammunition, &c. The natives, however, finding themſelves greatly injured by the abſence of the Engliſh, and not having any method of diſpoſing of their pepper, in a ſhort time after invited them to return, and again take poſſeſſion of their new ſettlement. This invitation being accepted, the fort they had begun was ſoon completed, under the name of Marlborough Fort; and they have been in quiet poſſeſſion of the place from that time to the preſent.

Sillabar is an Engliſh ſettlement, ſituated about 15 miles from Bencoolen, where they conſtantly keep a detachment from Marlborough Fort. The town is tolerably large, and before it is a convenient harbour; but it has not any building, or other matter, that demands particular attention.

They have alſo other ſettlements to the north-weſt of the above, particularly at Cattoun, ſituated about 40 miles from Bencoolen; Ippo, about 30 miles farther to the north; Bantall, which is upwards of 100 miles north of Bencoolen; and Mocha, ſituated a little to the ſouth of Indrapour.

The Dutch have likewiſe ſeveral good ſettlements on this iſland, the moſt conſiderable of which is Palimvang, or Pullambam, ſituated about 120 miles north-eaſt of Bencoolen. The chief article of trade here is pepper, of which the Dutch have prodigious quantities.

The Dutch factories here are,

Bancalis, ſituated nearly oppoſite to Malacca, on the banks of a ſpacious river of its own name. The chief articles ſold here by the Company are cloth and opium, in return for which they receive gold-duſt.

Siack is ſituated on the river Andraghina, but is an inconſiderable place, on account of the unwholeſomeneſs of the air.

Padang is ſituated about 60 miles ſouth of the equator, and has a fine river, where large ſhips may come up and ride in ſafety; but it is the moſt inſignificant ſettlement the Dutch have on this iſland.

Priaman, ſituated nearly oppoſite to Padang, about 100 miles north-weſt of Indrapour. It is very populous, and plentifully ſupplied with moſt kinds of proviſions. The natives carry on a conſiderable trade, in gold, with the inhabitants of Manimcabo. The Dutch had a factory here for ſome years, but were at length driven from it by the king of Achen.

Ticow is ſituated about ſeven leagues from Daſſaman, in 20 deg. ſouth lat. The inland part of the country is very high, but that next the ſea is low, covered with woods, and watered with ſeveral ſmall rivers, which render it marſhy. There are, however, many pleaſant meadows, well ſtocked with buffaloes and oxen, which are purchaſed at a very eaſy price. It likewiſe affords plenty of rice, poultry, and ſeveral ſorts of fruits, as durians, ananas, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, melons, mangoes, cucumbers, and potatoes. But its moſt valuable produce is pepper, with which it abounds, and is, in quality, eſteemed ſuperior to that of any other place on the iſland; for which reaſon thoſe parts are exceeding populous.—The city is ſituated about two miles from the ſea, oppoſite to a ſmall iſland. It is but a mean place, for the

the city and ſuburbs do not contain 800 houſes, which are chiefly built with reeds, and are neither ſtrong or covenient.

Barros, one of the moſt conſiderable places on the weſt coaſt, belonging to the king of Achen, is ſituated on a fine river, near about the centre between Ticow and Achen. The Dutch and Engliſh, as alſo the inhabitants of the coaſt, buy up the camphire here, in order to carry it to Surat, and the ſtraits of Sunda.

Andigri is a ſmall province, but is remarkable for producing great quantities of pepper; and gold is cheaper here than in any other part of the iſland.

Jamba alſo produces great quantities of pepper, which is ſaid to be much ſuperior in quality to that of Andigri.

Pedir is a large territory, ſituated about 30 miles from Achen, and has the advantage of an excellent river. The ſoil is very fertile, and the country produces ſuch quantities of rice, that it is called the granary of Achen.

Baſſaman is a large place, ſituated at the foot of a large high mountain, but is remarkable only for producing pepper.

There are ſeveral iſlands belonging to that of Sumatra, among which is one called, by the inhabitants, Pulo Lanchakay, and, by the natives of Achen, Pulo Lada, or Iſland of Pepper, from its producing ſuch a prodigious abundance of that article.

Lingen Iſland is ſituated about 60 miles north-eaſt of Jamby, and about the ſame diſtance to the ſouthward of Jahore. It is 50 miles in length, and 10 in breadth; the interior part of it is very mountainous, but that next the ſea lies low, and is very fertile It produces pepper and canes, and in ſome parts of it are great numbers of porcupines.

Banca Iſland is large, being, at leaſt, 150 miles in length, and about 20 in breadth. The natives, like moſt of the Malayans, are treacherous, and very inhoſpitable to ſuch ſtrangers as unfortunately happen to be ſhipwrecked on the coaſt. At the mouth of the ſtraits of Banca is Lucipara, a ſmall iſland, but ſo barren, that it has but few inhabitants, and only produces a ſmall quantity of pepper.

There are ſeveral other ſmall iſlands belonging to Sumatra, ſome of which are uninhabited, and the reſt ſo trifling, as not to admit of deſcription.

CEYLON was well known to the ancients, and is deſcribed, by Ptolemy, under the name of Taprobane, lies between 5 deg. 30 min. and 10 deg. 16 min. north lat. and between 79 deg. 40 min. and 82 deg. 45 min. eaſt, at the diſtance of near 190 miles from Cape Comorin, on the continent of India. It is above 300 miles in length, about 140 in breadth, and 900 in circumference. The Dutch call their fort at Jaffnapatam, Ham's-Heel, from fancying that the iſland, in form, reſembles a Weſtphalia ham.

Ceylon is one of the moſt pleaſant and fertile iſlands in all the Indies, and the air is much more temperate than could be expected, from its vicinity to the Line. The mountainous parts are woody, but the plains are exceeding fertile; ſprings, meandring ſtreams, and rivers water the whole, but the latter in general are ſo rocky, as not to be navigable. The principal river riſes in Adam's Peak; it is called Malliagouga, waſhes the city of Candy, and diſembogues itſelf into the ocean at Trincomale. The variation of the ſeaſons, and the winds which occaſion the monſoons, are much the ſame on this coaſt as on the coaſt of India. The northern corner of this iſland is the moſt unfertile, on account of its deficiency with reſpect to rivers, rivulets, ſprings, &c. and not enjoying any refreſhing ſhowers; but the other parts are amazing fertile, being plentifully ſupplied with water, and enjoying periodical rains, which always proceed from the ſouthward, but are prevented from reaching the northern diſtrict by a chain of very high mountains.

†

Ceylon produces all the fruits that are known in India, either on the continent, or in the iſlands: hence it is called the *Garden of the Eaſt*, and *Paradiſe of the Indies*; grapes, in particular, are found in perfection during nine months in the year. It alſo produces plenty of ginger, pepper, ſugar, mulberries, palms, cardamum, calacas, cotton, and areka trees; figs, originally planted by the Portugueſe, long-pepper, melons, various ſorts of mangoes, onions, garlic, and other European roots; but, above all, cinnamon.

The cinnamon-trees peculiar to Ceylon, are the beſt of any known. In a very dry ſoil, they are fit to be ſtripped of their bark in two or three years: if the ſoil is a moiſt white ſand, five years are required; but in a wet earth, they are eight or nine years before they become ripe. Thoſe that happen to grow in the ſhade, do not yield ſo fine a flavour as thoſe that are entirely expoſed to the ſun.

The ſpice is of immenſe value to the Dutch, being univerſally admired for the fragancy of its ſcent, and delicacy of its taſte; and the oil which they extract from it is an important article of commerce.

The fruit of the cinnamon-tree is about the ſize of a large hazle-nut, reſembles an acorn, and, when boiled to a liquid, ſerves the domeſtic purpoſe of burning in lamps, inſtead of oil; as alſo the medicinal purpoſe of curing aches, pains, ſores, &c. for which it is in great repute.

A gentleman, long reſident in Ceylon, in an exalted ſtation, ſays, that the cinnamon-plant appears to thrive better, when ſelf-ſown, than when propagated by culture. To this the crows greatly conduce; for, being fond of eating the red and quick-taſted fruit of the cinnamon-tree, they ſwallow, along with the fruit, the kernels, and ſcatter them, thus indigeſted, every where with their dung, by which the ſoil is, at the ſame time, manured, and the ſeed, ſhortly after ſtriking root, ſprings up out of the earth. On this account, no one dares to ſhoot, or otherwiſe kill a crow, under a ſevere penalty.

The ſame author relates the following extraordinary circumſtance, to ſhew the medicinal virtues of the pine-apple, which is likewiſe to be found in Ceylon. An European, that lay ill in this iſland, cried out, day and night, for ſomebody to bring him a pine-apple. It was, however, denied him by the phyſician. In a few days he died, and, being opened, a worm of a large ſize was found in his ſtomach, which it had already begun to eat into. The people who attended the ſick man, remembering what he had longed for, by way of experiment, dropped ſome pine-apple juice on the worm, which died in an inſtant.

The betel (ſo much chewed in Aſia) grows on a ſmall ſhrub; the leaves reſemble thoſe of ivy, and are naturally of a green colour; but the natives whiten them by artificial means, without impairing their virtues; the flavour is exceedingly pleaſant, and the ſcent aromatic.

In preparing the quid, or rather pill, for chewing, they take a piece of chalky earth, or a kind of lime, about as big as a pea, which they mix with a fourth part of the areka nut, wrap the whole in three betel-leaves, and chew it when they think proper. The areka-tree is ſtrait, has no branches, but bears the fruit among a few leaves, at the top. Till a perſon is accuſtomed to this chewing, it occaſions a dizzineſs and ſtupifaction, like tobacco; but, when grown familiar, is much more agreeable.

The mangoes here reſemble nectarines, and are, when ripe, either red, white, or green; they are from the ſize of an egg to that of a very large pear, are delicious when preſerved, and make an admirable pickle.

The jackies produce nuts like cheſnuts, which are ſubſtituted for bread when rice is ſcarce: they are, however, far from being wholeſome.

Ceylon likewiſe produces the ſnake-tree, the root-

tree,

tree, whoſe branches hang to the ground, and take freſh root; and the talipot tree, which is as high as the maſt of a ſhip, but without any branches or leaves, except at the ſummit. The top is, therefore, cut off, and uſed as an umbrella, or ſoldier's tent; and it is very ſtrong and light, and will fold like a fan.

Here are other ſpecies of grain, that are converted either into bread or oil; the moſt ſingular of which is the tanna, celebrated, not only for its goodneſs, but for yielding a thouſand-fold.

The elephants of Ceylon are the largeſt in the univerſe, and, if ſpotted, preferred to all others; the tygers and bears are very fierce; and the buffaloes, oxen, hogs, deer, &c. are excellent eating; nevertheleſs, the natives are fond of the fleſh of goats, ſquirrels, and monkies. The monkies in this iſland are innumerable, and of many different ſpecies; ſome of which do not reſemble any that are to be found in other countries. One ſort have grey hairs, with black viſages, and a white beard from ear to ear, which makes them appear, at a diſtance, like old men; another ſort are of the ſame ſize, but of an amazing whiteneſs. They reſide in the woods, but often make excurſions, and do a great deal of miſchief, digging the dead bodies out of the ground, to feed upon them.

The natives feed ſometimes upon young crocodiles and alligators, and out of their heads take a bone, which, when reduced to powder, is deemed a ſpecific for the ſtone and gravel.

Here are ſwarms of ants, which throw up prodigious large hills, four or five feet in height, and two or three in diameter: theſe they arch in an admirable manner, made ſo ſtrong, that it is difficult to deſtroy them with a pick-axe, and fill them with all kinds of grain for their winter ſubſiſtence.

One ſpecies of bees here build the combs on the boughs of trees. When the inhabitants would take the honey, they hold lighted torches under the trees, which affects the little animals in ſuch a manner, that they fall down dead; the comb is then taken, and the bees gathered up and boiled for food.

Serpents and leeches are very numerous, and, conſequently, very dangerous, as the natives go bare-legged; but, as much as poſſible to prevent them from biting, they rub their legs and feet with a compoſition of aſhes, ſalt, and lemon-juice.

No perſon but the king is permitted to keep turkies, geeſe, ducks, and pigeons: his ſubjects are, however, allowed the uſe of all other fowls, wild and tame. Here are many wild peacocks, and green parrots; but partridges, woodcocks, wood-doves, ſnipes, ſparrows, &c. are not ſo plenty. The moſt ſingular bird, however, is one entirely black, called carlos: it has a large ugly head, a long bill, and ſhort legs: it never lights upon the ground, but ſits almoſt continually on a tree, where it quacks like a duck.

The iſland abounds with ſea and freſh water-fiſh, ſeveral kinds of which are appropriated ſolely to the uſe of the king; and it is death, by the law, for any perſon to catch them but for his uſe.

Though Ceylon abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, and other metals, none are permitted to be worked, but thoſe of iron; and ſuch as produce precious ſtones are all monopolized by the ſovereign. The cat's-eye, which has a variety of fine colours, and needs no poliſhing, is the favourite gem; though their rubies, ſapphires, topazes, hyacinths, turquoiſes, &c. are ſome of the fineſt in the univerſe. The mountains likewiſe produce cryſtal, green, white, and red; brimſtone, ſaltpetre, &c.

The inhabitants of Ceylon are compoſed of Dutch, Portugueſe, Moors, Malabars, and a mungrel breed of all four; but the natives, who reſide in the inland parts, are called Cingulays, or Cinglaſſes. Theſe are of two claſſes, the Cingulays, properly ſo called, who are rather a civilized people; and the Vaddans, who live in the woods, and are quite wild. The firſt are well made, have regular features, are very active, ingenious, hardy, frugal, temperate, and neat; but, to balance their good qualities, they are talkative, yet grave; crafty, yet courteous; and treacherous, though complaiſant. The latter live without civil government, are excellent archers, and their principal buſineſs is to kill and dry veniſon. When they have expended or ſpoiled their arrows, and want new ones made, they go towards the houſe of a ſmith in the night, and hang up a quantity of veniſon, with a leaf faſhioned into the form and ſize of the arrow's point they want, by way of pattern: if the ſmith makes the arrows to pleaſe, and leaves them in lieu of the veniſon, they reward him with more deer's fleſh; but if he neglects them, they are ſure to do him a miſchief; which proves that they poſſeſs integrity and gratitude, as well as a ſpirit of reſentment and malice. That they are provident is likewiſe evident from their ſingular method of preſerving fleſh againſt a time of ſcarcity, which is by rubbing the inſide of a hollow tree with a quantity of honey, filling it with fleſh, and cloſing up the aperture with clay, which preſerves it as effectually as if it was ſalted. They love to live under trees by the ſides of rivers, where they fortify themſelves againſt the attacks of wild beaſts with boughs.

The Chingulays, or more civilized natives of Ceylon; live in houſes that are low, built with ſticks, or canes daubed over with clay, and covered with thatch. They have no chimnies, yet would willingly white waſh their houſes often; but this they dare not do, as the uſe of white waſh is one of the king's peculiar privileges; and it is death by the law to infringe upon any of his prerogatives, however abſurd or repugnant to public utility.

The natives ſit croſs-legged on the floor, which is uſually matted. Cane bedſteads and ſtools, and a few china plates, brazen and earthen veſſels for dreſſing food, or to ſerve as lamps, are the whole of their furniture. The men undreſs themſelves, and ſleep between two mats. The women and children lie upon the floor on a ſingle mat, but keep their cloaths on. But what is the moſt extraordinary in ſo warm a climate, they keep a fire burning all night.

The Chingulays eat but little fleſh through inclination: beef they are prohibited from touching, and even fowls they rather abſtain from. They uſe ſpoons and ladles, but neither knives or forks. The huſband ſits down to meals alone, the wife being obliged to wait upon him with all imaginable obſequiouſneſs; and when he has done, ſhe preſumes to ſit down with her children. Like ſome other Aſiatics, they do not touch the veſſel they drink out of with their lips, but hold it at a diſtance, and pour the liquor into their mouths. Old people let their beards grow long, and wear a cap like a mitre: but with reſpect to the people in general, they wear a waiſtcoat either of blue or white calico, and another piece of calico about the middle, tied round with a ſaſh. In the latter they wear their ornamental weapons, ſuch as a hanger, with an enamelled hilt, and ſcabbard finely emboſſed. The people are obliged to go bare-footed, becauſe none but the king is allowed to wear ſhoes and ſtockings. The women greaſe their hair with oil of cocoa-nuts, and comb it down behind. They wear a flowered waiſtcoat, and calico apron, and adorn themſelves with pendants in their ears, bracelets upon their arms, necklaces about their necks, rings on their toes and fingers, and a girdle of ſilver wires; and upon a viſit, a ſilk hood is added to the reſt of the dreſs.

The Chingulays are divided into five claſſes, viz. the hondrews or nobility, artiſts and mechanics, handicraftſmen of a lower order, ſlaves, and beggars.

They are in general, ſo addicted to the uſe both of betel and tobacco, that they even ſmoke and chew in the night time; and when they are perfectly intoxicated, fall a ſinging till they drop a ſleep; a cuſtom they are taught from their infancy.

Previous to the marriage ceremony, the man ſends a friend to purchaſe the woman's cloaths, which ſhe freely ſells for a ſtipulated ſum. In the evening he carries them to her, ſleeps with her all night, and in the morning appoints the day of marriage, on which he provides an entertainment of two courſes, for the friends of both parties. The feaſt is held at the bride's houſe, when the young couple eat out of the ſame diſh, tie their thumbs together, ſleep together that night, and, on the enſuing morning, depart for the bridegroom's habitation.

The deſign in purchaſing the bride's cloaths is that ſhe and her friends may be ſatisfied with reſpect to the man's circumſtances, as ſhe always aſks as much for them as ſhe thinks it is requiſite that a young couple ſhould poſſeſs upon their firſt entering upon the world, and becoming liable to the expences incurred by ſupporting a young family. Thus, what at firſt appears to be a ridiculous cuſtom, is, in reality, a very prudential maxim.

They are permitted to part from each other whenever they pleaſe: but if there are any children, the man is obliged to maintain the boys, and the woman the girls. They are ſo fond of availing themſelves of this law, that ſome have been known to change a dozen times before they have entirely ſuited their inclinations.

All the male Chingulays are allowed to command thoſe who are within hearing to aſſiſt them upon any emergency in the apprehending of delinquents: but the women are not permitted to mention the king's name, under the ſevere penalty of having their tongues cut out.

Criminals in Ceylon are frequently impaled alive, or have ſtakes driven through their bodies. Some are hung upon trees, and many are worried by dogs, who are ſo accuſtomed to the horrid butchery, that, on the days appointed for the death of criminals, they, by certain tokens, run to the place of execution. But the moſt remarkable criminal puniſhment is by the king himſelf, who rides an elephant trained up on purpoſe, while the beaſt tramples the unhappy wretch to death, and tears him limb from limb.

There are other modes of puniſhing by fines and impriſonment, at the diſcretion of the judges. When the fine is decreed, the officers ſeize the culprit wherever they meet him, ſtrip him naked, (his clothes going as part of payment,) and oblige him to carry a large ſtone, the weight being daily increaſed by the addition of others that are ſmaller, till the money is either paid or remitted.

A creditor will ſometimes go to the houſe of his debtor, and very gravely affirm, that if he does not diſcharge the debt he owes him immediately, he will deſtroy himſelf. This ſo greatly terrifies the other, that he inſtantly muſters all the money he can, even ſells his wife and children not to be deficient, and pays the ſum demanded. This is owing to a law, which ſpecifies, if any man deſtroys himſelf on account of a debt not being diſcharged, the debtor ſhall immediately pay the money to the ſurviving relations, or forfeit his own life, unleſs he is able to redeem it by the payment of a very large ſum to the king. Such has been the revengeful diſpoſition of ſome, that they have put an end to their own exiſtence, in order to overwhelm others, and thus wickedly gratified their malice at the expence of their lives.

A woman muſt not be beaten without permiſſion from the king; but they may be made to carry heavy baſkets of ſand upon their heads as long as the puniſher pleaſes, which is much more dreadful to them than a hearty drubbing. The circumſtances of the children depend upon thoſe of the mother; for if the mother is a free woman, they are free; but if is a ſlave,, they are always vaſſals.

The Chingulays worſhip both God and the devil. The firſt they think they ought, in gratitude, to pay adoration to, for the innumerable bleſſings he beſtows upon them: and the latter they worſhip, that he ſhould do them no miſchief.

Inferiors ſalute their ſuperiors by bowing their bodies and extending their arms, with the palms of their hands upwards; but the great only extend one hand, and not the head. The ſalutation of the women is by clapping their hands together, and then carrying them ſo cloſed to their foreheads.

The begging claſs of Chingulays are mountebanks in their way: the men beat a drum, the women dance, and both ſhew a variety of whimſical tricks. They beg, or rather amuſe people, for their bread, in great companies. They are prohibited by law, from touching the waters in wells or ſprings, and muſt uſe none but what is procured from rivers or ditches. If a nobleman or gentleman commits high treaſon, he is put to death, and his wives and daughters are delivered to ſome of theſe beggars, which is looked upon in ſo diſgraceful a light, that they frequently deſtroy themſelves, to avoid any connections with perſons eſteemed ſo deſpicable.

Their method of teaching children to write here is very ſingular, as they inſtruct them by writing with ſticks in the ſand, and ſoft clay of the roads and ſtreets.

The articles of commerce for exportation are cardamum, jaggory, oil, black lead, turmaric, betel nuts, muſk, ſalt, rice, wax, pepper, coral, amber, pearls, &c. in return for which they import velvets, ſilks, china, red caps, ſpices, opium, China roots, ſandal wood, lead, copper, tin, looking-glaſſes, callicos, bottles, camphire, &c.

Agriculture is followed here by the principal part of the natives. They tread the ground, or rather mud, in which they ſow rice, with buffaloes; but before they put the rice into it, they ſoak it in water till blades begin to ſprout. They embank their wet marſhy lands in order to have foot-paths. When the rice is about ſix inches in height, they weed and tranſplant it. After reaping, the women gather and put it into a pit, where it is threſhed, or rather trod by buffaloes.

The Portugueſe landed in Ceylon in 1505, and about twelve years after they eſtabliſhed factories there, the reigning king permitting them to build forts. Upon his demiſe he declared the king of Portugal his heir; but in proceſs of time, the Portugueſe behaving with great cruelty and arrogance, the young king of Candy invited in the Dutch, in 1639, who, after a tedious war, at the length, in the year 1655, ſubdued the Portugueſe, and became maſter's of the coaſt and trade. The king, their ally, they drove into the mountains, and, with their uſual gratitude, made him their tributary. The Dutch have, in ſubſequent years, committed many cruelties, and the natives frequently retaliate by making incurſions among them, or murdering all they meet with at a diſtance from the forts.

The iſland was formerly divided into nine monarchies, but at preſent it is under the dominion of one king, whoſe court is kept in the center of the iſland, at a place called Digligy-Neur. The palace is but meanly built, though the gates are large, ſtately, and finely carved, and the window-frames made of ebony, and inlaid with ſilver. His elephants, troops, and ſpies are numerous, and his concubines many. The guards are commanded by Dutch and Portugueſe renegado officers. He aſſumes great dignity, and demands much reſpect, which his ſubjects readily pay him, as they imagine that all their kings are immediately upon their demiſe turned into gods. He expects that Chriſtians ſhould ſalute him kneeling and

and uncovered, but requires nothing more of them. His title is Emperor of Ceylon, King of Candy, Prince of Onva and the Four Corles, Great Duke of the Seven Corles, Marquis of Duranura, Lord of the Sea-Ports and Fiſheries of Pearls and Precious Stones, Lord of the Golden Sun, &c. &c. &c. His revenue conſiſts in the gifts and offerings of his ſubjects. His palaces are built upon almoſt inacceſſible places for the greater ſecurity. No bridges are permitted to be erected over rivers or ſtreams, or good roads to be made, to render the country as impaſſable as poſſible. None are allowed to approach his palace without a paſſport ſtamped on clay. The troops are hereditary, and carry as weapons, ſwords, guns, pikes, bows, arrows, &c. They are ſubtle, but not courageous, and will not engage an enemy but by ſurpriſe, and when there is ſome manifeſt advantage in their own favour. It is ſo difficult to penetrate into the inland parts, and all the paſſes are ſo well guarded, that even the Dutch themſelves are unacquainted with the greateſt part of the iſland. The chief city, Candy, has nothing remarkable reſpecting it but its ſituation, being naturally fortified by the ſurrounding rocks: having formerly been burnt ſeveral times by the Portugueſe, and the court being removed to Digligy-Neur, it retains very little of its former conſequence.

The moſt remarkable places on and about the coaſt, are the Iſland of Manaar, Chialo, Columbo, Baticalo, Jaffnapatama, Negumbo, Point de Galle, Trincomale, Batchiarapalle, and the ſeven little iſlands of Ourature, Xho Deſerta, Analativa, Caradiva, Pongardiva, Nainandiva, and Nindundiva.

Adam's Peak, which ſtands on the eaſt of Columbo, is not only the higheſt mountain in Ceylon, but in all India. It receives its name from a tradition of the natives, that Adam was created and buried here. It is ſteep and craggy, and of a conical figure. At the ſummit there is a ſmooth ſtone, on which appears the impreſſion of a large human foot, which the Chingulays affirm to have been made by Adam. This occaſions them to pay a great adoration to it; and, at the commencement of every year vaſt multitudes clamber up to it, notwithſtanding the aſcent is ſo difficult, that iron ſpikes and chains have been fixed to the rocks, in order to facilitate their climbing. In another part of the mountain there is a lake, which the natives, with equal gravity, aver to have been made by the tears which they ſay Eve continued ſhedding, on account of the death of Abel, for 100 years ſucceſſively.

Maldivia Islands, were the firſt iſlands diſcovered by the European navigators on their arrival in the Indies. They are ſituated about 500 miles from Ceylon, and reach from 1 deg. ſouth, to 7 deg. north latitude. They extend about 600 miles in length, and are upwards of 100 in the broadeſt part. They are numerous, but many of them are only large hillocks of ſand, and, from the barrenneſs of the ſoil, are entirely uninhabited. The whole country is divided into thirteen provinces, called attolons, each of which contains many ſmall iſlands, and is of a circular form, about 100 miles in circumference. Theſe provinces all lie in a line, and are ſeparated by channels, four of which are navigable for large ſhips, but are very dangerous, on account of the amazing rocks that break the force of the ſea, and raiſe prodigious ſurges. The currents run eaſt and weſt alternately for ſix months, but the time of the change is uncertain; and ſometimes they ſhift from north to ſouth. At the bottom of theſe channels is found a ſubſtance like white coral, which, when boiled in cocoa-water, greatly reſembles ſugar.

As theſe iſlands lie ſo near the equinoctial on both ſides, the iſland is exceedingly ſultry. The nights, however, are tolerably cool, and produce heavy dews, that are refreſhing to the trees and vegetables. Their winter commences in April, and continues till October, during which they have heavy rains, and ſtrong weſterly winds; but they never have froſt. The ſummer begins in October, and continues ſix months, during which time the winds are eaſterly, and there not being any rain, the heat is ſo exceſſive as ſcarce to be borne.

In general the Maldives are very fertile, and, in particular, produce great quantities of millet, and another grain much like it, of both which they have two harveſts every year. They have alſo ſeveral kinds of roots that ſerve for food, particularly a ſort of bread-fruit, called *nollpou*, which grows wild, and in great abundance. The woods produce excellent fruits, as cocoas, citrons, pomegranates, and Indian figs. Their only animals for uſe are ſheep and buffaloes, except a few cows or bulls that belong to the king, and are imported from the continent; but theſe are only uſed at particular feſtivals. They have little domeſtic poultry, but are well ſupplied with prodigious quantities of wild fowl, which are caught in the woods, and ſold at very low prices. They have alſo plenty of wild pigeons, ducks, rails, and birds reſembling ſparrow hawks. The ſea produces moſt kinds of fiſh, great quantities of which are exported from hence to Sumatra. Among the fiſh is one called a *cowrie*, the ſhells of which are uſed in many parts of the Indies, inſtead of coin; and theſe are the ſame as thoſe known in England by the name of blackamoor's teeth.

There is a very dangerous ſnake that frequents the borders of the ſea. The inhabitants are alſo greatly peſtered with rats, dormice, piſmires, and other ſorts of vermin, which are very deſtructive to their proviſions, fruit, and other periſhable commodities; for which reaſon they build their granaries on piles in the ſea, at ſome diſtance from the ſhore; and moſt of the king's granaries are built in the ſame manner.

The natives are very robuſt, of an olive complexion, and well featured. They are naturally ingenious, and apply themſelves with great induſtry to various manufactures, particularly the making of ſilk and cotton. They are cautious and ſharp in trading, and courageous and well ſkilled in arms.

The dreſs of the common people is only a piece of cotton faſtened round their waiſt, except on feſtival days, when they wear cotton or ſilk jerkins, with waiſtcoats, the ſleeves of which reach only to the elbows. The better ſort tie a piece of cloth between their legs and round the waiſt, next to which they have a piece of blue or red cotton cloth, that reaches to the knees. Within a girdle, on the left ſide, they keep their money and betel, and on the right ſide a knife. They ſet a great value on this inſtrument, from its being their only weapon; for none but the king's officers and ſoldiers are permitted to wear any other.

The women are fairer than the men, and, in general, of a very agreeable diſpoſition. They wear a coat of cotton or ſilk, that reaches from the waiſt to the ancles, over which they have a long robe of taffety, or fine cotton, that extends from the ſhoulders to the feet, and is faſtened round the neck by two gilt buttons. Their hair is black, which is eſteemed a great ornament; and to obtain this, they keep their daughters' heads ſhaved till they are eight or nine years of age, leaving only a little hair on the forehead, to diſtinguiſh them from the boys. They waſh their heads and hair in water to make it thick and long, and let it hang looſe that the air may dry it, after which they perfume it with an odoriferous oil. When this is done, they ſtroke their hair backwards from the forehead, and tie it behind in a knot, to which they add a large lock of man's hair, and the whole is curiouſly ornamented with a variety of flowers.

The houſes of the common people are built of cocoa wood, and covered with leaves, ſewed one within another. But the better ſort have their

houſes built of ſtone, which is taken from under the flats and rocks in the following manner: among other trees in this iſland is one called *candou*, which is exceeding ſoft, and when dry, and ſawed into planks, is much lighter than cork: the natives, who are excellent ſwimmers, dive under water, and having fixed upon a ſtone fit for their purpoſe, they faſten a ſtrong rope to it; after this they take a plank of the candou wood, which, having a hole bored in it, is put on the rope, and forced down quite to the ſtone: they then run a number of other boards till the light wood riſes up to the top, dragging the ſtone along with it. By this contrivance the natives got up the cannon and anchors of a French ſhip, that was caſt away here in the beginning of the laſt century.

The Maldivians are in general a very polite people, particularly thoſe on the iſland of Male; but they are very libidinous, and fornication is not conſidered any crime: neither muſt any perſon offer inſult to a woman that has been guilty of miſconduct previous to marriage. Every man is permitted to have three wives, if he can maintain them, but not more.

They are very abſtemious in their diet, their principal food conſiſting of roots made into meal, and baked. They ſit croſs-legged at their meals, in the ſame manner as in other eaſtern countries. The floor on which they ſit is covered with a fine mat; and, inſtead of table-cloths, they uſe banana leaves. Their diſhes are chiefly of china, all veſſels of gold and ſilver being prohibited by law: they are made round with a cover, over which is a piece of ſilk, to keep out the ants. They take up their victuals with their fingers, and in ſo careful a manner as not to let any fall; and if they have occaſion to ſpit, they riſe from the table and walk out. They do not drink till they have finiſhed their meal, for they conſider that as a mark of rudeneſs; and they are very cautious of eating in the preſence of ſtrangers.

Theſe people are naturally very cleanly, and when they riſe in the morning immediately waſh themſelves, rub their eyes with oil, and black their eye-brows.

Though they are Mahometans, yet they preſerve many Pagan cuſtoms: for when croſſed at ſea, they pray to the king of the winds: and in every iſland there is a place where thoſe who have eſcaped danger make offerings to him of little veſſels made for the purpoſe, in which they put fragrant woods, flowers, and other perfumes, and then turn the veſſel adrift to the mercy of the waves. Such are the ſuperſtitious notions they have of this airy king, that they dare not ſpit to the windward for fear of offending him; and all their veſſels being devoted to him, they are kept equally clean with their moſques. They impute croſſes, ſickneſs, and death to the devil; and in a certain place make him offerings of flowers and banquets, in order to pacify him.

Their moſques are very neat buildings, and made of ſtone well cemented: each of them is ſituated in the center of a ſquare, and round them they bury their dead. The moſque has three doors, each aſcended by a flight of ſteps. The walls within are wainſcoted, and the ceiling is of wood beautifully variegated. The floor is of poliſhed ſtone, covered with mats and tapeſtry; and the ceiling and wainſcotting are firmly joined without either nails or pegs.

Each moſque has its prieſt, who, beſides the public duties of his office, teaches the children to read and write the Maldivian language, which is a radical tongue. He alſo inſtructs them in the Arabic language, and is rewarded for theſe ſervices by the parents.

Thoſe who are very religious go the moſque five times a day; and, before they enter it, they waſh their feet, hands, ears, eyes, and mouth: nor will they neglect doing this on any occaſion whatever. Thoſe who do not chooſe to go to the moſque, may ſay their prayers at home; but if they are known to omit doing one or the other, they are treated with the greateſt contempt, as no perſon will either eat or converſe with them.

They keep their ſabbath on Friday, which is celebrated with great feſtivity; and the ſame is obſerved on the day of every new moon. They have likewiſe ſeveral other feſtivals in the courſe of the year.

When two perſons intend entering into the marriage ſtate, the man gives information of his deſign to the pandiare, or governor, who aſks him if he is willing to have the woman propoſed: on his anſwering in the affirmative, the pandiare queſtions the parents as to their conſent: if they approve of it, the woman is then brought, and the parties are married in the preſence of their friends and relations. A woman cannot part from her huſband without his conſent, though a man may divorce his wife.

On the death of any one the corpſe is waſhed by a perſon of the ſame ſex, of which there are ſeveral in each iſland appointed for that purpoſe. After this is done, it is wrapped up in cotton, with the right hand placed on the ear, and the left on the thigh. It is then laid on the right ſide in a coffin of candou wood, and carried to the place of interment by ſix relations or friends, and followed by the neighbours, who attend without being invited. The grave is covered with a large piece of ſilk or cotton, which after the interment, becomes the property of the prieſt. The corpſe is laid in the grave with the face towards Mahomet's tomb; and after it is depoſited, the grave is filled up with white ſand ſprinkled with water. In the proceſſion both to and from the grave, the relations ſcatter ſhells for the benefit of the poor, and give pieces of gold and ſilver to the prieſt, in proportion to the circumſtances of the deceaſed. The prieſt ſings continually during the ceremony, and when the whole is over, the relations invite the company to a feaſt. They incloſe their graves with wooden rails, for they conſider it as a ſin for any perſon to walk over them; and they pay ſuch reſpect to the bones of the dead, that no perſons dare touch them, not even the prieſts themſelves. They make little difference in their habit on theſe occaſions: the mourners only go bareheaded to the grave, and continue ſo for a few days after the interment.

If a perſon dies at ſea, the body after being waſhed, is put into a coffin, with a written paper mentioning his religion, and requeſting thoſe who may meet with the corpſe to give it decent interment. They then ſing over it, and, after having compleated their ceremonies, they place it on a plank of candou wood, and commit it to the waves.

Male, the moſt conſiderable of the Maldive iſlands, is the reſidence of the king. It is ſituated in the center of the reſt, and is about five miles in circumference. The king has here a magnificent palace, in which his beds are hung like hammocks between two pillars ornamented with gold; and when he lies down he is rocked to ſleep by his attendants. His uſual dreſs conſiſts of a coat made of fine white cloth or cotton, with white and blue edgings, faſtened with buttons of ſolid gold: under this is a piece of red embroidered tapeſtry that reaches down to his heels, and is faſtened with a large ſilk girdle fringed, and a great gold chain before, with a lock formed of the moſt precious and valuable ſtones. He wears a ſcarlet cap on his head, which is a colour ſo eſteemed that no other perſon dare preſume to uſe it. This cap is laced with gold, and on the top of it is a large gold button with a precious ſtone. The grandees and ſoldiers wear long hair, but the king's head is ſhaved once a week: he goes bare-legged, but wears ſandals of gilt copper, which muſt not be worn by any other perſons except thoſe of the royal family.

When he goes abroad his dignity is particularly diſtinguiſhed by a white umbrella, which no other perſons, except ſtrangers, are permitted to uſe. He has

has three pages near his perſon, one of whom carries his fur, another his ſword and buckler, and a third a box of betel and areka, which he almoſt conſtantly chews.

When the queen goes abroad, all the women in their reſpective diſtricts meet her with flowers, fruits, &c. She is attended by a great number of female ſlaves, ſome of whom go before to give notice to the men to keep out of the way; and four ladies carry a veil of white ſilk over her head that reaches to the ground. She and her ladies frequently bathe in the ſea for their health, for the convenience of which they have a place on the ſhore cloſe to the water, which is incloſed, and the top of it covered with white cotton.

The principal part of the nobility and gentry live in the north parts of this iſland, for the convenience of being near the court: and ſo much is this diviſion eſteemed, that when the king baniſhes a criminal he is thought to be ſufficiently puniſhed by being ſent to the ſouth.

The king's guards conſiſt of 600, who are commanded by his grandees; and he has conſiderable magazines of armour, cannon, and ſeveral ſorts of ammunition. His revenue conſiſts chiefly of a number of iſlands appropriated to the crown, with certain taxes on the various productions of others; in the money paid to purchaſe titles and offices, and for licences to wear fine cloaths.

All the ambergris found in this country, (which produces more than any other part of the Indies) is alſo the property of the king; and ſo narrowly is it watched, that whoever is detected in converting it to his own uſe, is puniſhed with the loſs of his right hand.

The government here is abſolute monarchy, for every thing depends on the king's pleaſure. Each attolon, or province, has a naybe or governor, who is both a prieſt and a doctor of the law. He not only preſides over the inferior prieſts, and is veſted with the management of all religious affairs, but he is likewiſe entruſted with the adminiſtration of juſtice, both in civil and criminal caſes. They are, in fact, ſo many judges, and make four circuits every year throughout their reſpective juriſdictions.

The puniſhments for crimes are various: if a man is murdered the wife cannot proſecute the criminal; but if the deceaſed has left any children, the judge obliges him to maintain them till they are of age, when they may either proſecute or pardon the murderer. The ſtealing any thing valuable is puniſhed with the loſs of a hand, and for trifling matters they are baniſhed to the ſouthern iſlands. An adultreſs is puniſhed by having her hair cut off, and thoſe guilty of perjury pay a pecuniary mulct. Notwithſtanding the law makes homicide death, yet a criminal is never condemned to die unleſs it is expreſsly ordered by the king; in which caſe he ſends his own ſoldiers to execute the ſentence.

The principal articles exported from theſe iſlands are, cocoa-nuts, cowries, and tortoiſe-ſhell, the laſt of which is exceeding beautiful, and not to be met with in any other place except the Philippine Iſlands. The articles imported are, iron, ſteel, ſpices, china, rice, &c. all of which are engroſſed by the king, who ſells them to his ſubjects at his own price.

Their money is ſilver, and of one ſort only, called lorrins, each of which is about the value of 8d. It is about two inches in length, and folded, the king's name being ſet upon the folds in Arabic characters. They ſometimes uſe the ſhells of cowries, inſtead of ſmall change, 1200 of which make a lorrin; but in their own markets they frequently barter one thing for another. Their gold and ſilver is all imported from abroad, and is current here by weight, as in many other parts of the Indies.

Theſe iſlands are happily ſituated for producing mutual commerce to the reſpective inhabitants: for though the thirteen attolons, or provinces, are in the ſame climate, and all of them very fertile, yet they produce ſuch different commodities, that the people in one cannot live without what is found in another. The inhabitants have likewiſe ſo divided themſelves, as greatly to enhance this commercial advantage; for all the weavers live in one iſland, the goldſmiths in another, and ſo on of the different manufactures. In order, however, to make the communication eaſy, theſe artificers have ſmall boats built high on both ſides, in which they work, ſleep, and eat, while ſailing from one iſland to another to expoſe their goods to ſale, and ſometimes they are out a conſiderable time before they return to their fixed habitations.

CHAP. XVIII.

Iſlands off the Aſiatic Coaſts, and various Ports diſcovered by the Captains Cook, Clerke, Gore, King, and other Navigators, not included in our firſt Chapter of New Diſcoveries.

ACCORDING to our plan laid down, we come now to treat of ſuch iſles, as not being immediately within the track of thoſe deſcribed under the firſt general head of New Diſcoveries, being obſerved at various times, and ſome only ſeen without being viſited, we promiſed to claſs together in a ſeparate arrangement.

We ſhall begin with Kerguelen's Land, which was firſt ſeen by a French navigator, whoſe name it bears. It is ſituated in 48 deg. 41 min. ſouth lat. and 76 deg. 50 min. eaſt long. and was viſited by captain Cook in 1776. Having come to an anchor in the harbour, in order to procure water, and nearly completed their quantity, the commander allowed the ſhips crews (Reſolution and Diſcovery) the 27th of December, to celebrate Chriſtmas; in conſequence of which, many of them went on ſhore, and made excurſions into the country, which they found deſolate and barren. In the evening, one of them preſented a quart bottle to captain Cook, which he had found on the north ſide of the harbour, faſtened with ſome wire to a projecting rock. This bottle contained a piece of parchment, with the following inſcription:

Ludovico XV. Galliarum
rege, et de Boynes
regi a Secretis ad res
maritimas annis 1772 *&*
1773.

Captain Cook, as a memorial of the Britiſh veſſels having been in this harbour, wrote on the other ſide of the parchment as follows:

Naves Reſolution
et Diſcovery
de Rege Magnæ Britanniæ,
Decembris 1776.

It was then put again into the bottle, accompanied with a ſilver two-penny piece of 1772, the mouth of the bottle being covered with a leaden cap, and placed the next morning in a pile of ſtones, erected for that purpoſe on an eminence, near the place where it was firſt found. Here captain Cook diſplayed the Britiſh flag, and named the place Chriſtmas-Harbour; but he forbore giving any new name to this deſolate land.

"No place (ſays Mr. Anderſon, who examined the country) hitherto diſcovered in either hemiſphere, affords ſo ſcanty a field for the naturaliſt as this ſterile ſpot. Some verdure indeed appeared, when at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhore, which might raiſe the expectation of meeting with a little herbage; but

all this lively appearance was occaſioned by one ſmall plant, reſembling ſaxifrage, which grew up the hills in large ſpreading tufts, on a kind of rotton turf, which, if dried, might ſerve for fuel, and was the only thing ſeen here that could poſſibly be applied to that purpoſe. Another plant, which grew nearly to the height of two feet, was pretty plentifully ſcattered about the boggy declivities; it had the appearance of a ſmall cabbage when it was ſhot into ſeeds. It had the watry acrid taſte of the antiſcorbutic plants, though it materially differed from the whole tribe. When eaten raw, it was not unlike the New Zealand ſcurvy-graſs, but when boiled, it acquired a rank flavour. At this time none of its ſeeds were ripe enough to be brought home, and introduced into our Engliſh kitchen-gardens.

"Near the brooks and boggy places were found two other ſmall plants, which were eaten as ſalad; the one like garden-creſſes, and very hot, and the other very mild. The latter is a curioſity, having not only male and female, but alſo androgynous plants. Some coarſe graſs grew pretty plentifully in a few ſmall ſpots near the harbour, which was cut down for our cattle. In ſhort, the whole catalogue of plants did not exceed eighteen, including a beautiful ſpecies of lichen, and ſeveral ſorts of moſs. Nor was there the appearance of a tree or ſhrub in the whole country.

"Among the animals, the moſt conſiderable were ſeals, which were diſtinguiſhed by the name of ſea-bears, being the ſort that are called the urſine-ſeal. They come on ſhore to repoſe and breed. At that time they were ſhedding their hair, and ſo remarkably tame, that there was no difficulty in killing them. No other quadruped was ſeen; but a great number of oceanic birds, as ducks, ſhags, petrels, &c. The ducks were ſomewhat like a widgeon, both in ſize and figure. A conſiderable number of them were killed and eaten. They were excellent food, and had not the leaſt fiſhy taſte. The Cape petrel, the ſmall blue one, and the ſmall black one, or Mother Carey's chicken, were not in plenty here; but another ſort, which is the largeſt of the petrels, and called by the ſeamen Mother Carey's gooſe, is found in abundance. This petrel is as large as an albatroſs, and is carnivorous, feeding on the dead carcaſes of ſeals, birds, &c. The greateſt number of birds here were penguins, which conſiſt of three ſorts. The head of the largeſt is black, the upper part of the body of a leaden grey, the under part white, and the feet black: two broad ſtripes of a fine yellow deſcend from the head to the breaſt: the bill is of a reddiſh colour, and longer than in the other ſorts. The ſecond ſort is about half the ſize of the former: it is of a blackiſh grey on the upper part of the body, and has a white ſpot on the upper part of the head: the bill and feet are yellowiſh. In the third ſort, the upper part of the body and throat are black, the reſt white, except the top of the head, which is ornamented with a fine yellow arch, which it can erect as two creſts. The ſhags here are of two ſorts, viz. the leſſer cormorant, or water-crow; and another with a blackiſh back and a white belly. The ſea-ſwallow, the tern, the common ſea-gull, and the Port Egmont hen, were alſo found here. Large flocks of a ſingular kind of white bird flew about here, having the baſe of the bill covered with a horny cruſt. It had a black bill and white feet, was ſomewhat larger than a pigeon, and the fleſh taſted like that of a duck.

"The ſeine was once hauled, when were found a few fiſh about the ſize of a ſmall haddock. The only ſhell-fiſh ſeen here were a few limpets and muſcles.

"Many of the hills, notwithſtanding they were of a moderate height, were at that time covered with ſnow, though anſwering to our June. It is reaſonable to imagine that rain muſt be very frequent here, as well from the marks of large torrents having ruſhed down, as from the appearance of the country, which, even on the hills, was a continued bog or ſwamp.

"The rocks conſiſt principally of a dark blue, and very hard ſtone, intermixed with particles of glimmer, or quartz Some conſiderable rocks were alſo formed here of a browniſh brittle ſtone."

Paternoſter Iſlands, were ſo called from the great number of rocks, which ſailors have likened to the beads with which the Roman Catholics tell their paternoſters. They abound in corn and fruits, and are rather populous.

Georgia, a cluſter of barren iſlands, about 54 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. and 36 deg. 30 min. weſt long. One of them is between fifty and ſixty leagues in length. They contain nothing worth remarking.

Iſland of Handſome People lies in 10 deg. ſouth lat. and 185 deg. eaſt long. It is eighteen miles in circumference, and was diſcovered by De Quiros in 1696. Notwithſtanding the exceſſive heat of the climate, the natives are remarkably fair and handſome, from whence the iſland had its name. They are covered only from the waiſt downwards, with mats of palm, and wear a mantle of the ſame on their ſhoulders. Their canoes are trees hollowed out, and their thatched houſes ſtand together in cluſters.

Horn or Hoorn Iſland, is ſituated in 14 deg. 56 min. ſouth lat. and 179 deg. eaſt long. and was diſcovered in 1616, by Shouten. The male natives of this iſland are tall, well-made, and robuſt. They are nimble runners, expert ſwimmers, and good divers. Their complexion is a yellowiſh brown; and they take great pleaſure in dreſſing their hair, which is black. Some tie it, others friz it. Some let it grow down the waiſt, and tie it in five or ſix tails; and others dreſs it right an end, ſtanding up like hogs briſtles, ten or eleven inches long; but they do not ſuffer the beard to grow. The women are ſhort of ſtature, deformed both in features and body, and rather indecent in their behaviour. Both ſexes go naked, except a piece of covering between their legs; and the women rub their heads and cheeks with ſomething red.

Their land produces ſpontaneouſly a great variety of fruits, ſuch as cocoas, bananas, yams, &c. for they are ignorant of cultivation. At low-water the women catch fiſh, which is eaten raw. They have alſo ſome hogs, but their pork is ſpoiled by the cookery.

Prince Edward's Iſlands, lying in 51 deg. ſouth lat. were diſcovered by two French navigators, on their paſſage from the Cape of Good Hope to the Philippine Iſlands. They are two in number, and, as they had no names in the French Chart of the Southern Hemiſphere, captain Cook, when he ſaw them in 1776, gave them this appellation.

That which lay moſt to the ſouth, appeared to be about fifteen leagues in circuit, and the moſt northerly about nine leagues. There are four others contiguous, and which, from the names of the diſcoverers, are called Marion and Crozet's Iſlands.

Adventure-Iſland, ſo called from the ſhip Adventure, in which captain Furneaux ſailed to the South Seas, is ſituate in lat 43 deg. 21 min. ſouth, and long. 147 deg. 29 min. weſt. The natives are deſcribed as mild and cheerlful, with little of that wild appearance which ſavages in general have, but poſſeſs neither genius nor activity.

Reſolution, a ſmall iſland, ſo called by Captain Cook, from his own ſhip the Reſolution, lies in lat. 17 deg. 24 min. ſouth, and long. 141 deg. 45 min. weſt.

Palm-Iſland is ſituated on the coaſt of New South Wales, as are alſo the iſlands Solitary, Furneaux, Marias, Cumberland, Northumberland, and Direction, ſo called by Captain Cook, who firſt explored this coaſt, and thus denominated them.

The Prince of Wales's Iſlands lie at the northern extremity of New Holland. They were obſerved at a diſtance

a diſtance to abound with trees and graſs, and were known to be inhabited, from the ſmoke that was ſeen aſcending in many places.

The Bay of Iſlands, containing a cluſter of little iſles, is ſituate on the coaſt of New Zealand: among which are included thoſe called Gannet, Banks's, Solander's, Trap's, &c.

Potoe is an iſland ſituated about two leagues to the weſtward of the Grand, or principal of the Ladrones. It is rocky, and of mall extent.

Centry-Box-Iſland lies about a league and an half from the ſouth point of Chriſtmas-Harbour, in Kerguelen's-Land; it was ſo called, from an opinion of its reſembling a centry-box in its figure.

Solor lies to the ſouth of the Iſland of Celebes, in lat. 9 deg. ſouth, and long. 123 deg. 55 min. eaſt. It contains nothing remarkable.

The Nicobar-Iſlands lie at the entrance of the Gulph of Bengal. The natives there are tall and well-proportioned, with long faces, black eyes, black lank hair, and copper-coloured ſkins, and they are ſaid to be an harmleſs, good ſort of people. They go naked, except a covering about the waiſt. They have neither temples nor idols, nor does there ſeem to be any great ſuperiority among them. They are excellent ſwimmers, and ſometimes will overtake ſmall veſſels under ſail; live in little huts, having no towns, and the country is almoſt covered with wood.

They have no corn, but a fruit which ſerves them inſtead of bread, and they catch plenty of fiſh. The largeſt of theſe iſlands, which gives name to the reſt, is about forty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth, at the utmoſt.

Portland-Iſland lies to the ſouthward of the Society-Iſles, and was ſo called by Captain Cook, who diſcovered it on his firſt voyage, from its reſemblance to that of the ſame name in the Britiſh Channel. Some parts of this iſland appeared to be cultivated, and pumice-ſtones in great quantities lying along the ſhore within the bay, indicated that there was a volcano in the country. High palings upon the ridges of hills were alſo viſible in two places, which were judged to be deſigned for religious purpoſes.

Bare-Iſland was ſo called by Captain Cook, as it appeared to be barren, and inhabited only by fiſhermen. It lies in lat. 39 deg. 45 min. ſouth.

Eaſt-Iſland lies in lat. 37 deg. 42 min. ſouth. It appeared to Captain Cook, who diſcovered it on his firſt voyage, ſmall and barren like the former.

White-Iſland is contiguous to the laſt-mentioned.

The Mayor and Court of Aldermen, a cluſter of ſmall iſlands lying in lat. 37 deg. 59 min. ſouth, about twelve miles from the main, are high, and were alſo remarked for barrenneſs.

Mercury-Iſlands, a cluſter of different ſizes. The Bay is called alſo Mercury-Bay, and lies in lat. 36 deg. 47 min. ſouth, long. 184 deg. 4 min. weſt, and has but a ſmall entrance.

The Hen and Chickens, are ſmall iſlands ſituated in lat. 35 deg. 46 min. ſouth.

Poor Knights. Theſe form a cluſter of iſlands, lying in lat. 36 deg. 36 min. ſouth, on which were ſeen a few towns which appeared fortified, and the land round them ſeemed to be well peopled.

Cavalles-Iſlands, ſo called by Captain Cook, from the name of ſome fiſh the crew purchaſed of the Indians. Theſe people were very inſolent, uſing many frantic geſtures, and throwing ſtones at the crew. Some ſmall ſhot were fired, and one of them being hit, a precipitate retreat was the conſequence.

Three Kings. The chief of theſe iſlands lies in lat. 34 deg. 12 min. ſouth, and long. 187 deg. 48 min. weſt. Birds were ſhot upon it, which were very good eating, and reſembled the geeſe of Europe.

Hamote, a little iſland in lat. 41 deg. ſouth, near Queen Charlotte's Sound.

Entry-Iſle, is an high iſland ſituated about nine or ten leagues from Cape Keamaroo, which lies in 41 deg. 44 min. ſouth lat. and 113 deg. 30 min. weſt longitude.

Iſland of Lookers-on, ſituated contiguous to the former, was ſo called by Captain Cook, becauſe the natives could not be prevailed on to approach the ſhip though they admired it.

Magnetical-Iſland, ſo called by Captain Cook, becauſe the compaſs did not traverſe well when the ſhip was near it. It is ſaid to be high, rugged, rocky, and barren, yet ſmoke was ſeen in ſeveral parts about it: it was concluded not to be deſtitute of inhabitants.

The Siſters. Theſe are two iſlands of very ſmall extent, plentifully ſtocked with wood, ſituate in the lat. of 5 deg. ſouth, and long. 106 deg. 12 min. eaſt, near ſouth and north from each other, and encompaſſed by a reef of coral rocks, the whole four or five miles in circuit.

Caracatoa is the ſouthernmoſt of a cluſter of iſlands lying in the entrance of the Streights of Sunda. Its ſouthern extremity is ſituated in the lat. of 6 deg. 9 min. ſouth, and long. 105 deg. 15 min. eaſt. Its whole circumference does not exceed nine miles. The iſland conſiſts of elevated land, gradually riſing from the ſea, and is entirely covered with trees, except a few ſpots cleared by the natives for the purpoſe of forming rice fields. The population of the iſland is inconſiderable. The coral reefs afford turtles in abundance, but other refreſhments are very ſcarce there.

Pulo-Bally is an iſland about two miles round, and lies in the lat. of 00 deg. 30 min. ſouth. There is good anchorage to the eaſtward of it in 12 and 13 fathom water, muddy ground. Freſh water and wood are here in plenty.

Schouten-Iſlands, ſo called from Schouten, a Dutch navigator, who diſcovered them in 1616, lie in lat. 00 deg. 46 min. ſouth.

Selang lies in only 50 min. of ſouth lat. It is not flat, or very high. It forms two harbours with the main land, an outer and an inner harbour. There is no danger in running into either, but what is plainly ſeen. The inner harbour is about two miles broad, and three long, and the general depth ten fathoms water.

Pulo-Gag lies in 18 min. ſouth lat. and is an iſland of middling height. When plainly ſeen, it appears like the land of Europe, not being woody, as the iſlands in theſe parts generally are. The valley is ſaid to have a rich ſoil, and many ſago trees upon it. It is not inhabited, though travellers by water often put into the bay to paſs the night, where they alſo ſometimes employ ſeveral days in fiſhing.

Princes Iſland lies in the weſtern mouth of the Streights of Sunda. It abounds with vegetables of various kinds, deer, turtle, &c. Our India ſhips uſed to touch here to take in water, but they have omitted this practice ſome years ſince: though Captain Cook ſays the water is exceeding good, if filled towards the head of the brook, which circumſtance perhaps was not always ſufficiently attended to.

Tomoguy is an iſland ſituated in 00 deg. 15 min. ſouth lat. and, in ſhape, reſembles a horſe-ſhoe. On the iſland riſes a hill, which takes up about three fourths of its compaſs, and there are plantations of tropical fruits and roots along the hill's ſide.

Waglol is a ſmall flat iſland. At moſt of theſe iſlands, lives one or more of certain chiefs called Synagees, who repair on board ſuch veſſels as viſit them, in order to beg preſents. The dreſs of one of them is thus deſcribed: one half of the coat and long drawers was clouded red, white, and yellow; the other half blue, white, and green, clouded alſo; not unlike the whimſical dreſſes of maſquerades. His turban, which was pinked, was made of coarſe white calico. The Mahometans upon theſe iſlands live moſtly upon fiſh and ſago bread. Sometimes they mix a cocoa-nut, raſped down with the ſago flour,

flour, and putting this into a thin Chineſe iron-pan, they keep ſtirring the mixture on the fire, and eat it warm. They alſo eat the ordinary white ſwallo, a root which is found every where in the ſand at low water: they eat it raw, cut up ſmall, and mixed with ſalt and lime-juice. They have the following peculiar method of bleeding in this country. They put the rough ſide of a certain leaf, about as large as a man's hand, on that part where they want to extract the blood, then with the tongue they lick the upper ſide of the leaf, and the under ſide is preſently all over bloody. A particular kind of green fruit grows in theſe parts, which the natives eat. It is as long as the hollow part of a quill, and almoſt as ſmall. They call it ciry. This fruit is very good in a curry or ſtew, leaving a fine aromatic flavour on the palate.

The two cluſters of iſlands Bo and Popo, lie nearly in the ſame parallel of latitude, 1 deg. 17 min. ſouth. They are about five leagues aſunder. Bo conſiſts of ſix or ſeven iſlands.

Theſe iſlands, which have a good many inhabitants, can ſupply plenty of cocoa-nuts, ſalt, and dried fiſh. To the weſtward of the cluſter, but contiguous to it, are about nine or ten ſmall low iſlands. To the eaſtward, on two iſlands, are two little hills, which, at a diſtance, look like tea-cups turned upſide down. Here reſides a rajah, and the iſles are ſaid to be well inhabited.

Here not only women often kill or burn themſelves with their deceaſed huſbands, but men alſo, in honour of their deceaſed maſters, as authentic accounts inform us. Thoſe who determine on this, are not limited to time; they name, perhaps, a diſtant day, and in the mean while, their intention being made known, there is no honour the natives can think of, but they pay to this devotee: he is careſſed wherever he goes. On the fatal day, by the ſide of a great fire, a looſe ſtage of boards is erected; on this he dances, working himſelf up to a fit. He then ſkips to the end of a plank, which tilting, he falls headlong into the flames, and is conſumed immediately.

The north coaſt of the Iſland of Waygiow, which lies about half a degree to the northward of the equator, is near fifteen leagues in length. The hill on Gibby Monpine (a particular quarter of Waygiow) which, from its ſhape, is called the Cock's-Comb, may be ſeen about twenty leagues off. Some white ſpots appear on it. Oppoſite to the entrance of the harbour are two little iſlands, one ſhaped like a ſugar-loaf, the other with a hillock on it. At the bottom of this hillock is a piece of freſh water, where there is anchorage in twelve fathoms ſand. The two iſlands are connected by a reef of coral rocks, dry at low water. There are ſaid to be 100,000 inhabitants upon the iſland, who wage perpetual war with one another. Offak harbour lies in 00 deg. 10 min. north lat. Near this iſland two fiſhes were taken, the heads of which were remarkable for an horn that projected from between their eyes. The horn was about four inches long, equal in length to the head. Altogether the head was like that of an unicorn. The natives called it Een Raw, that is the fiſh Raw. The ſkin was black, and the body about twenty inches long. Its tail was armed with two ſtrong ſcythes, with their points forwards on each ſide.

The Iſland of Abdon lies in only 36 min. north lat. It is about three miles round, and 200 feet high. Konibar is about the ſame height and ſize: it is north of Abdon. The reſt of the ſixteen iſlands that form this cluſter, are flat and low, except Aiow Babar, which riſes about 500 feet. There are ſaid to be plantations of yams, potatoes, ſugar-canes, and other tropical productions on Konibar.

The inhabitants of theſe iſlands have turtle in ſuch abundance, and other fiſh (eſpecially cockles about the bigneſs of a man's head) that they neglect agriculture. When they want bread, they carry live turtle, and their eggs, with dried fiſh, to Waygiow, which they truck for ſago, either baked or raw; nay, perhaps, go to the woods and provide themſelves, by cutting down the trees.

Sangir is an oblong iſland, extending from 3 deg. 30 min. to 4 deg. 30 min. north lat. It is broadeſt towards the north, and tapers ſmall towards the ſouth. About the middle of the weſt coaſt of the iſland is the town, harbour, and bay of Taroona, oppoſite which, on the eaſt coaſt, is alſo a town and harbour, called Tabookang. It abounds in cocoa-nuts, as do many iſlands that lie near it. A fathom of ſmall braſs wire will purchaſe 100 cocoa-nuts, an ordinary knife 300, and a battel (60 lb.) of cocoa-nut oil may be had for four knives here.

Tulour, or Tanna Labu, lies in 4 deg. 45 min. north lat. It is ſituated about ſeventy miles eaſt of the north part of Sangir. It is of middling height. The inhabitants live on the ſea-coaſt, and have their plantations up the country.

Salidabo-Iſland lies ſouthward of Tulour, being divided only by a narrow ſtreight, about a mile wide. It is not above eight or ten miles in circumference, contains ſeveral villages, and is particularly well cultivated.

Kabruang lies to the ſouth-eaſt of Salidabo, and is parted from it by a ſtreight about four miles wide. This iſland is in high cultivation, and alſo contains ſeveral villages.

Tagulanda contains about 2000 inhabitants, who are Pagans. On the iſland are many goats, ſome bullocks, and cocoa-nuts in abundance. The Dutch keep here a corporal and two ſoldiers, alſo a ſchool-maſter for teaching the children the principles of Chriſtianity. Three prongs, a kind of large chopping-knives, will purchaſe a bullock, and a thouſand cocoa-nuts may be had for one of them.

Banka-Iſland is near Tagulanda, and remarkable for a high hill. It has a harbour on its ſouth-end, is pretty well inhabited, and abounds in cocoa-nuts, limes, nankas or jacks, turtle, other fiſh, and ratans.

Telluſyang-Iſland, that is, Harbour of Syang, is contiguous to Banka-Iſland. This harbour, which is ſaid to be a good one, is on the ſouth end of the iſland, which has a hill upon it. There are ſome wild cattle, but no other inhabitants. Theſe iſlands are much frequented by cruiſers, not only from Sooloo, but from Mindanao.

Sooloo-Iſland is ſituated in 6 deg. north lat. and 119 deg. eaſt long. It is thirty miles long, twelve broad, and contains a great number of inhabitants. It is governed by a king of its own. It is well cultivated, and affords a fine proſpect from the ſea. Indeed, the iſland being rather ſmall for its number of inhabitants, they ſtudy agriculture more than thoſe on the adjacent ones, where land is not deemed ſo valuable. As they cannot depend on a crop of rice, not being ſure of rain in due ſeaſon, they cultivate many roots; the Spaniſh, or ſweet potatoe; the clody, or St. Hillano yam; the China yam, both red and white; ſending to Mindanao for what rice they conſume. They have great variety of fine tropical fruits. Their oranges are full as good as thoſe of China. They have alſo a variety of the fruit called jack, or naka; a kind of large cuſtard-apple, named madang; mangoes; and a fruit they call bolona, which has a white inſide, and is like a large plum or mango. They enjoy, in great abundance, a very innocent and delicious fruit, called lancey. The trees in the woods are loaded with this fruit, which is large, and ripens well. The Sooloos having great connexion with China, and many Chineſe being ſettled among them, they have learned the art of engrafting and improving their fruits. Here is no ſpice tree but the cinnamon. Though this iſland, from its ſituation, enjoys perpetual ſummer, yet up the country it is always cool, eſpecially under the ſhade of the toak trees, which are very numerous. This tree has a

broad leaf, which, when bruiſed between the fingers, ſtains the hand red. The induſtrious Chineſe gather theſe leaves, and the leaves of the fruit-tree called madang, to line the baſkets of cane or bamboo, in which they pack up the Sooloo-root, which they export in great quantities from this place.

The Sooloos are not only neat in their clothes, but dreſs gaily. The men go generally in white waiſtcoats, buttoned down to the wriſts, with white breeches, ſometimes ſtrait, ſometimes wide. The women are handſome in general, and, by compariſon, fair. Thoſe of rank wear waiſtcoats of fine muſlin, cloſe fitted to their bodies; their necks, to the upper parts of the two breaſts, being bare. From the waiſt downwards, they wear a looſe robe, girt with an embroidered zone or belt about the middle, with a large claſp of gold, and a precious ſtone. This being looſe, like a petticoat, comes over the drawers, and reaches to the middle of the leg, the drawers, which are of fine muſlin, reaching to the ancle.

The ſultanſhip in Sooloo is hereditary, but the government mixed. About fifteen datoos, who may be called the nobility, make the greater part of the legiſlature. The title is hereditary to the eldeſt ſon, and they ſit in council with the ſultan. The ſultan has two votes in this aſſembly, and each datoo has one. The common people of Sooloo, called tellimanhood, do not enjoy much real freedom. It is ſaid that their haughty lords, when viſiting their eſtates, will ſometimes, with impunity, demand and carry off young women, whom they happen to fancy, to ſwell the number of their ſandles (concubines) at Sooloo. Indeed, the lower claſs groan under various kinds of tyranny. The nobles here are extremely diſſolute. Thoſe who have more than one wife, keep each in a ſeparate houſe; but the circumſtance is not very common, as their diſſoluteneſs conſiſts in their numerous concubines and intrigues; for here women have as much liberty in going abroad as in Europe.

The Sooloos have a very good breed of horſes, and their women are very expert in riding. Their manner is to ride backwards and forwards the length of a long broad ſtreet, upon ſandy ground, forcing their horſes on a quick trot, and checking them when they attempt to gallop. The horſes accuſtomed to this, trot very faſt. Riding is an exerciſe in uſe all over the iſland among women of faſhion.

Here are wild elephants, the offspring (as is ſuppoſed) of thoſe ſent in former days from the continent of India as preſents to the king's of Sooloo. Thoſe animals avoid meeting with horned cattle, though they are not ſhy of horſes. Sooloo has ſpotted deer, and abundance of goats and black cattle, but the people ſeldom milk their cows. They have very few ſheep; but the wild hogs are numerous, and do much miſchief by breaking down fences. After harveſt the inhabitants hunt the elephants and wild hogs, endeavouring to deſtroy them. Of birds, there are here abundance of diminutive cocatoos, and ſmall green parrots. At Sooloo, and the iſlands adjacent, the pearl-fiſhery has been famous for many ages. In the ſea between Mindanao and Sooloo is a pearl-fiſhery not inferior to any in the Indies, either in point of colour or ſize. This, indeed, is the ſource of their wealth.

The Sooloos have in their families many ſlaves whom they purchaſe from the different cruiſers. Sometimes they purchaſe whole cargoes, which they carry to Borneo, where, if the females are handſome, they are bought up for the Batavia market. The maſters ſometimes uſe their ſlaves cruelly, aſſuming the power of life and death over them. Many are put to death for trifling offences, and their bodies left above ground. An attempt of elopement here is ſcarcely ever forgiven.

The ſtate of Sooloo is important: the inhabitants are very powerful, not only moſt of the adjacent iſlands being under them, but great part of Borneo. They have the character of being treacherous, and of endeavouring always to ſupply by fraud what they cannot effect by force.

Pangatarran, lying a little to the ſouthward of the former, is a long flat iſland, has no freſh water, nor is any good anchoring near, except in ſome few places. It abounds in cocoa-nuts and a fruit called Guava.

Ramancor lies in lat. 9 deg. 25 min. north, and long. 109 deg. 45 min. eaſt. It is about twenty-three miles in circumference, very ſandy. A few villages, and a temple, are all the buildings to be ſeen here.

Pulo-Sapata is ſituated in lat. 10 deg. 4 min. north, and long. 109 deg. 10 min. eaſt. It is elevated, ſmall, and unfertile.

Prata lies in lat. 20 deg. north. Near the ſouthern extremity of the iſland ſome of the crew of the Reſolution imagined they ſaw from the maſt-head ſeveral openings in the reef, which ſeemed to promiſe ſecure anchorage. The extent of the Prata ſhoal being about ſix leagues from north to ſouth, may be accounted conſiderable.

Myo lies in lat. 1 deg. 23 min. north. Tyfory is a flat iſland not ſo large as Myo, and lies about W. by S. from it, diſtant five or ſix miles. When the Spaniards had the Moluccas, this place was inhabited; but the Dutch will not now permit any one to live there, leſt the ſmuggling of ſpices ſhould prove the conſequence.

Karakita, Palla, Siao, and Grave, are the principal of a cluſter of iſlands lying between the lat. of 3 and 4 deg. north. A ſchool-maſter, a corporal, and a few ſoldiers, are kept by the Dutch at Siao.

The Rabbit is a ſmall rocky iſland with a few cocoa-nut trees upon it, and many rocks like ſugar-loaves round it. It lies to the eaſtward of Karakita about four miles, and derived its name from the animal whoſe ſhape it is ſuppoſed to reſemble.

Sulphur-Iſland, diſcovered by Captain Gore, is in 24 deg. 50 min. north latitude, and 140 deg. 56 min. eaſt longitude. Its length is about five miles. The ſouth point is an elevated barren hill, rather flat at the ſummit, and when ſeen from the weſt ſouth-weſt, exhibits evident tokens of a volcanic eruption. The ſand, earth, or rock, for it was difficult to diſtinguiſh of which of theſe ſubſtances its ſurface was compoſed, diſplayed various colours; and it was imagined that a conſiderable part was ſulphur, not only from its appearance, but from the ſtrong ſulphurous ſmell perceived in approaching the points. As the Reſolution paſſed nearer the land than the Diſcovery, ſeveral of the officers of that ſhip thought they diſcerned fire proceeding from the top of the hill: theſe circumſtances induced Captain Gore to beſtow on this diſcovery the appellation of Sulphur-Iſland.

Burney's-Iſland is ſituated on the north-eaſt coaſt of Aſia, in 67 deg. 45 min. north latitude. The inland country about this part abounds with hills, ſome of which are of conſiderable elevation. Captain Cook obſerves, that the land (except a few ſpots on the coaſt) appeared to be covered with ſnow.

St. Lawrence's-Iſland, according to the moſt accurate obſervations, lies in 63 deg. 47 min. north lat. and 188 deg. 15 min. eaſt long. and is three leagues in circumference. The northern part of it may be diſcerned at ten or twelve leagues diſtance.

Bhering's-Iſland, ſo called from the navigator who diſcovered it; lies in 58 degrees north latitude. Karakinſkoi, Maidenoi, Ataka, and Shaimea, are all iſlands that lie contiguous, and very thinly, if at all inhabited, having ſcarcely any marks of cultivation.

Gore-Iſland lies in about 64 deg. north lat. and 191 deg. eaſt long. It is about thirty miles in extent, and appeared to our navigators to be barren and deſtitute of inhabitants, and received its appellation from Captain Cook, who diſcovered it in the courſe of his laſt voyage.

With regard to the language of all the Oriental iſlands, nothing certain can be ſaid. Each iſland has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chineſe, Portugueſe, Dutch, and Indian words, are ſo frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in thoſe matters, to know the radical language. The ſame may be almoſt ſaid of their religion; for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewiſh, Chriſtian, and other foreign ſuperſtitions.

The ſea which ſeparates the ſouthern point of the peninſula of Kamtſchatka from Japan, contains a number of iſlands in a poſition from north-north-eaſt to ſouth-ſouth-weſt, which are called the Kurile-Iſlands. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in ſeveral of them are volcanoes and hot ſprings. The principal of theſe iſlands are inhabited; but ſome of the little ones are entirely deſert and unpeopled. The foreſts in the more northern ones are compoſed of laryx and pines; thoſe to the ſouthward produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In ſome of them are bears and foxes. The ſea otter appears on the coaſts of all theſe iſlands, as well as whales, ſea horſes, ſeals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of theſe iſlands have a great likeneſs to the Japaneſe in their manners, language, and perſonal appearance; others very much reſemble the Kamtſchadales. The northern iſlands acknowledge the ſovereignty of the empire of Ruſſia; but thoſe to the ſouth pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians diſcover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hoſpitable; but adverſity renders them timid, and prompts them to ſuicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they ſpeak and pronounce it ſlowly. The men are employed in hunting, fiſhing for ſea animals and whales, and catching fowl. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern iſlands they ſew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The ſouthern iſlanders are more refined and poliſhed than the northern, and carry on a ſort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles feathers to fledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japaneſe utenſils of metal and varniſhed wood, ſkillets, ſabres, different ſtuffs, ornaments of luxury, tobacco, all ſorts of trinkets and ſmall wares.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE DEAD SEA, AND ITS ENVIRONS, IN PALESTINE.

Extracted from Mariti's Travels into Syria, &c.

"THE name, Dead Sea, is of modern date, for the ancients called it the Lake Aſphaltites, the Sea of Sodom, the Salt Sea, the Lake of Sirbon; and in our days the Arabs name it Bahheret-Lut; that is to ſay, the Sea of Lot.

"Joſephus, who cauſed this lake to be meaſured, found that it was 580 furlongs in length, and 150 in breadth, which may make ſeventy-two and a half Italian miles one way, and eighteen and three quarters the other. It is 180 miles in circumference. The lofty mountains of the ancient country of the Moabites, ſurround it on the eaſtern ſide, and diſcharge into it the waters of the Arnon and the Zaret, which fall down their ſides in long caſcades. It is bounded on the weſt and ſouth by high mountains alſo; ſome of which, compoſed of blackiſh rock, ſerve as barriers to the vaſt deſerts of Judea; and the reſt, clothed with verdant groves, form a part of Idumea. It is likewiſe on the weſt that the brook Kedron falls into this lake. The northern ſide is entirely open, and ſhews the delightful plains of Avlona, which bring as a tribute to the Dead Sea the rapid waters of the Jordan.

"We are informed, that this vaſt baſon was covered formerly with fruit-trees, and abundant crops, and that from the boſom of the earth, buried under its waters, aroſe the ſuperb cities of Sodom, Gomorrah, Adam, Zeboim, and Segor; all rendered illuſtrious by the preſence of a king. There is nothing, therefore, in the univerſe, which is not ſubject to viciſſitudes and changes.

"The air is pure, the fields are extremely verdant, and my eye was delighted with the limpidneſs of the water, which fell in ſheets from the ſummits of the mountains. The ſterility to which part of theſe plains was condemned from the creation of the world, renders the contraſt produced by the fertile appearance of Avlona much more agreeable. But how comes it that two travellers ſhould differ ſo much in their ideas? It is, becauſe a capuchin carries every where along with him the five ſenſes of the faith, while I am endowed with thoſe only of nature.

"I endeavoured here to explain a phenomenon, which has engaged the attention of many others, as well as of myſelf. This vaſt baſon, which is continually receiving the waters of different torrents, rivulets, and ſtreams, has no viſible outlet. Do its waters, therefore diſcharge themſelves by ſubterranean paſſages into the Mediterranean, or Red-Sea, as is pretended; or muſt we adopt the opinion of Arabian philoſophers, who conclude, and not without ſome foundation, that they are diſſipated by evaporation?

"The water of this lake is clear and limpid, but bitter and exceſſively ſalt. No kind of fiſh are produced in it; and thoſe even which are ſometimes carried thither by the rapidity of the Jordan, inſtantly die.

"The water of the Dead Sea is favourable to ſwimmers; but people, if they cannot ſwim, may be drowned there as well as elſewhere.

"No plants of any kind grow in this lake. The bottom of it is black, thick, and fetid; and the earth in the nighbourhood is of the ſame colour, and as inflammable as coal.

"Branches of trees, which fall into it, become petrified in a little time by the force of the ſalt which adheres to them, and penetrates to the very pith of the wood. Some of theſe petrified branches, of which the curious are fond, may be procured at Jeruſalem.

"It has been ſaid, that the approach of this ſhore was mortal to birds; yet it is frequented by abundance of the feathered tribe, and particularly by ſwallows, which, with their light wings, ſkim this liquid plain, and ſport on its ſurface.

"On certain days in the year, this ſea is covered with a black thick fog, which does not extend further than its ſhores; but when the rays of the ſun acquire force, they ſoon diſſipate this body of vapours.

"The Dead Sea produces a kind of bitumen, called the Jewiſh, which may be found floating on the water like large lumps of earth, and which, being driven by the winds to the eaſtern and weſtern ſhores, adheres to them. It is then collected by the Arabs, and divided between them and the baſha of Damaſcus, who purchaſes their ſhares of it for ſome pieces of money, or ſuch ſtuffs, as they uſe for clothing. This bitumen is a ſulphurous ſubſtance, mixed with ſalt, which is gradually condenſed by the heat of the ſun. It is as brittle as black pitch, to which it has a great reſemblance. It is combuſtible, and exhales, while burning, a ſtrong and penetrating ſmell. The ancient Arabs uſed it for daubing over the bottoms of their veſſels, and the Egyptians for embalming the bodies of their dead. The natives give this bitumen the name of *lamar*."

A MAP of AFRICA, from the best AUTHORITIES.

A NEW

HISTORICAL AND COMMERCIAL

SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY.

AFRICA.

INTRODUCTION.

THE third grand diviſion of the globe, called Africa, is neither ſo fertile as the others, nor ſo populous as either Aſia or Europe: it nevertheleſs abounds in riches, and might, by a proper degree of ſkill and induſtry, be rendered of much greater importance than it is at preſent. It is generally repreſented as bearing ſome reſemblance to the form of a pyramid, the baſe being the northern part of it, which runs along the ſhores of the Mediterranean; and the point or top of the pyramid the Cape of Good Hope.

Africa is ſurrounded on every ſide with water, except where it joins to Aſia by the iſthmus of Suez, which ſeparates the Mediterranean from the Red Sea, and is only about ſixty miles over. Being thus a peninſula, it hath a prodigious extent of ſea-coaſt, and is moſt advantageouſly ſituated for commerce; but navigation is neither eſteemed nor cultivated by the inhabitants.

The utmoſt length of this country, from north to ſouth, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 deg. north, to the Cape of Good Hope, in 34 deg. 7 min. ſouth lat. is 4300 miles; and the broadeſt part from Cape Verd, in 17 deg. 20 min. to Cape Guardafui, near the Streights of Babelmandel, in 51 deg. 20 min. eaſt long. is 3500 miles from eaſt to weſt. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, which ſeparates it from Europe; on the eaſt by the iſthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divide it from Aſia; on the ſouth, by the Southern Ocean; and on the weſt, by the great Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America.

As the equator divides Aſia almoſt in the middle, and the far greateſt part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almoſt inſupportable to an European; it being there increaſed by the rays of the ſun from vaſt deſerts of burning ſands. The coaſts, however, and banks of the rivers, ſuch as the Nile, are generally fertile, and there moſt parts of the country are inhabited.

Africa is watered by ſeveral very noble rivers, of which the moſt conſiderable are the Niger and the Nile. The Niger falls into the Atlantic, or Weſtern Ocean, at Senegal, after a courſe of 2800 miles: it increaſes and decreaſes as the Nile, fertilizes the country, and has grains of gold in many parts of it. The Nile, after dividing Egypt into two parts, diſcharges itſelf into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious courſe from its ſource in Abyſſinia. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of the Niger.

The moſt conſiderable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a prodigious chain extending from the Weſtern Ocean to the borders of Egypt. It owes its name to a king of Mauritania, a great aſtronomer, who uſed to obſerve the heavenly bodies from its ſummit; and from this circumſtance the poets repreſent him as bearing the heavens on his ſhoulders. The Mountains of the Moon are ſtill higher than Atlas: they extend from Abyſſinia to Monomotapa. Thoſe of Sierra Leona, or the Mountains of the Lions, dividing Nigritia from Guinea, and a ridge of lofty mountains, called the Mountains of God, from their being remarkably ſubject to tempeſts of thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their firſt meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a ſugar-loaf, and is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name, near the coaſt. Beſides theſe, there are many others of great height and vaſt extent, whoſe bowels contain a profuſion of the richeſt metals, and give riſe to the many rivers that water the ſoil of this neglected country.

The moſt noted capes, or promontories in Africa, are Cape Verd, ſo called, becauſe the land is always covered with green trees, and moſſy ground: it is the moſt weſterly point of the continent of Africa. The Cape of Good Hope, ſo denominated by the Portugueſe, when they firſt went round it in 1498, and diſcovered the paſſage in Aſia, is the ſouth extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots, at preſent in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, and the general rendezvous of ſhips of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe.

Babelmandel, which joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean, is the only ſtreight in Africa.

As this continent ſtands as it were in the centre of the globe, and has thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Aſia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the reſt, its ſituation is conſequently rendered extremely favourable for commerce. It is however the misfortune of Africa, that though it has 10,000 miles of ſea-coaſt, with noble, large, deep rivers, penetrating into the very heart of the country, it ſhould have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; that it ſhould be inhabited by vaſt multitudes of people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of the rivers are moſt excellent harbours, deep, ſafe, and calm, and ſheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly ſecure by fortifications; but quite deſtitute of ſhipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandiſe. Though it comprehends a full quarter of the globe, is ſtored with an inexhauſtible treaſure, and capable under proper improvements, of producing ſo many things delightful as well as convenient within itſelf, yet it ſeems to be almoſt entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unſolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but alſo by the more civilized Europeans who are ſettled in it, particularly the Portugueſe. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the teſtimony of the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and Portugueſe, who have ſettlements on the coaſt, but that of the moſt credible hiſtorians.

In ancient times, this country contained ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates, eminent for arts, for wealth, for power, and for the moſt extenſive commerce.—The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia were particularly celebrated; and the rich and powerful ſtate of Carthage extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the Britiſh ſhores were viſited by her fleets, till the Romans deſtroyed her navigation,

navigation, ravaged her territories, and laid her capital in the duſt. From that period both the arts and commerce in Africa declined. Agriculture was neglected, and the manufactures, for which the natives were once ſo famous, were no longer practiſed.—Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the northern parts of Africa were over-run by the Vandals, a barbarous and ferocious people from the north, who contributed ſtill more to the deſtruction of arts and ſciences. Theſe were driven out by the Saracens in the ſeventh century, and were afterwards ſucceeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan ſuperſtition, whoſe profeſſors carried deſolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flouriſhing part of the world was completed.

With reſpect to religion, the inhabitants of this continent may be divided into three ſorts, Pagans, Mahometans, and Chriſtians. The firſt are the moſt numerous, poſſeſſing the greateſt part of the country, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, and they are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, poſſeſs Egypt, and almoſt all the northern ſhores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary Coaſt. The people of Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Chriſtians, but retain many Pagan and Jewiſh rites. There are alſo ſome Jews on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade carried on in that part of the country.

The inhabitants are unacquainted with ice, hail, or ſnow; and in theſe ſcorching regions, the natives would as ſoon expect that marble ſhould melt, and flow in liquid ſtreams, as that water by freezing ſhould loſe its fluidity, be arreſted by the cold, and, ceaſing to flow, become like the ſolid rock. They are but ſeldom bleſſed with rain, and depend on the overflowing of the rivers for the fertilization of the ſoil in many parts, while other regions are altogether ſteril, and uninhabitable burning ſands. The barrenneſs in ſeveral places, the brutality and ſavage diſpoſition of the natives, and the ferocity of the innumerable wild beaſts in moſt of its countries, evince, that the rays of the ſun are here ſo fervid and powerful, as to dry and burn up the juices of the vegetable, and overheat the blood of the animal creation, ſo that the firſt are debilitated, and the latter rendered furious and ungovernable.

The moſt judicious geographers, and the learned in general, are much divided in their opinions reſpecting the modern diviſions of Africa; the reaſon of which is, that ſcarcely any traveller has penetrated into the middle of the country; on theſe accounts, we muſt acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of ſeveral of the inland nations, which may be ſtill reckoned among the unknown and undiſcovered parts of the world; but, according to the beſt accounts and ſurveys, Africa may be divided according to the following table.

A GENERAL TABLE OF THE CONTINENT OF AFRICA, &c.

Included under the general Names of

Nations.		Length.	Breadth.	Principal Cities.	Dif. & Bear. from London.	
Barbary	Morocco	500	480	Morocco	1080	S.
	Algiers	480	100	Algiers	920	S.
	Tunis	220	170	Tunis	990	S. E.
	Tripoli	700	240	Tripoli	1260	S. E.
	Barca	400	300	Tolemata	1400	S. E.
Biledulgerid		2500	350	Dara	1565	S.
Negroland & the Defart	Zaara	2400	660	Tigeſſa	1840	S.
	Tombut	Limits uncertain	.....	Tombuto	.....	
	Sierra Leona, Mundingo, Pholey and Jaloffs Countries	2200	840	Mundingo	2500	
Guinea	Slave Coaſt	.....	.....	Great Popo	1700	S.
	Gold Coaſt	.....	.....	Acra, Crevecoeur, Fort James		
	Tooth Coaſt	.....	.....	Laho		
	Grain Coaſt	.....	.....	No Towns		
	Whidah	.....	.....	Xavier		
	Ardrah	1800	360	Aſſem		
	Fetu	.....	.....	Cape Coaſt Caſtle		
	Commendo	.....	.....	Little Commendo		
	Jaby	.....	.....	No Town		
	Anta	.....	.....	Bourtray		
	Axim	.....	.....	Achombone		
Benin		Limits uncertain	.....	Benin	2800	S.
Congo	Benguela	430	180	Benguela	3900	S.
	Angola	360	250	Loando	3750	S.
	Congo Proper	540	420	Saint Salvador	3480	S.
	Loango	410	300	Loango	3300	S.
Monomotapa	Monomotapa	960	660	Monomotapa	4500	S.
	Monomugi	900	660	Chicova	4260	S.
Caffraria		780	660	Cape Town	5200	S.
Zanguebar	Melinda, Moſambique, Sofala	1400	350	Melinda or Moſambique	4440	S. E.
Abex		540	130	Doncala	3580	S. E.
Upper Ethiopia	Anian, Magadoxa, Brana, Abyſſinia	900	800	Gondar	2800	S. E.
Nubia		940	600	Nubia	2418	S. E.
Egypt		600	250	Grand Cairo	1920	S. E.

ISLANDS.

Names.	Where ſituated.	Chief Towns.	Trade with or belong to.
Madeiras	Atlantic Ocean.	Santa Cruz and Funchal..	Portugueſe
Canaries	Atlantic Ocean.	Palma, St. Chriſtopher....	Spaniards
Cape de Verd	Atlantic Ocean.	St. Domingo	Portugueſe
Goree	Atlantic Ocean.	Fort St. Michael	French
Biſſao	Atlantic Ocean.	have no towns, the natives living in ſcattered huts	All Nations
Biſſagoes	Atlantic Ocean.		
Saint Helena	Atlantic Ocean.	St. Helena	Engliſh
Aſcenſion	Atlantic Ocean.	- - - - - - - -	Uninhabited
Saint Matthew	Atlantic Ocean.		
Annabon	Atlantic Ocean.	St. Thomas and Anaboa	Portugueſe
Saint Thome	Atlantic Ocean.		
Prince's Iſle	Atlantic Ocean.		
Fernando Po	Atlantic Ocean.		
Bourbon	Indian Ocean.	Bourbon - - - - -	French
Mauritius	Indian Ocean.	Mauritius - - - - -	French
Madagaſcar	Indian Ocean.	St. Auſtin - - - - -	All Nations
Comora Iſles	Indian Ocean.	Joanna - - - - -	All Nations
Zocrata	Indian Ocean.	Calanſia - - - - -	
Babel-mandel	Indian Ocean.	Babel-mandel - - -	

Oceans, Seas, &c.	Rivers.	Mountains.	Religions.	Languages.		Capes and Straits.
Atlantic, Pacific, Indian } Ocean	Niger	Atlas	Pagan	Coptic	Negro Dialects	Cape de Verd
Mediterranean, Red - - - } Sea	Nile	Moon, Lion } Mountains	Mahometan	Arabic	Portugueſe	Cape of Good Hope
	Gambia		Chriſtian	Greek	Dutch	Strait of Babelmandel
	Senegal	Teneriffe		African or Moriſco	French Lingua Franca	

CHAP. I.

EGYPT.

Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Climate, Soil, Mountains, Inhabitants, Government, Cities, &c.

THIS kingdom is ſituated between the 20th and 32 deg. of north latitude, and the 28th and 36 deg. of eaſt long. It is about 600 miles in length, and 250 in breadth; bounded by the Mediterranean ſea, on the north; by Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the ſouth; and by the deſert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, on the weſt; and includes 140,700 ſquare miles.

The whole country is diſtinguiſhed by the northern and ſouthern diviſions; which are ſubdivided into Lower Egypt and Upper Egypt. The chief towns in Lower Egypt are, Grand Cairo, Bulac, Alexandria, Roſetta, Damietta. Upper Egypt has for its principal towns, Sayd or Thebes, and Coſſiar.

The climate of Egypt is in general very unhealthy: the high rocks and mountains which encompaſs it on the eaſt, and the ſandy deſarts of Lybia and Barca on the weſt, rendering it prodigiouſly hot, particularly in the months of April and May. They always reckon two ſummers in this kingdom; the firſt in March, April, and May, is the moſt unwholeſome, becauſe of the unequal weather, attended with violent and parching winds, which blow at that ſeaſon; but in the ſecond, viz. in June, July, and Auguſt, the weather is more ſettled, and the air much cooler. During the autumn and winter, Egypt is one of the moſt pleaſant and delightful countries in the world.

The ſoil of this kingdom is luxuriant even to a proverb, owing to the annual overflowing of the Nile, for it ſeldom rains except in winter. The fertility of the ſoil is ſuch, after the waters of this river begin to retire, that the labour of the huſbandman is next to nothing. In October and May he throws his wheat and barley into the rich mud or ſlime which the Nile leaves behind, without adding any manure, except mixing with it a little ſand. He turns his cattle out to graze in November; and in about ſix weeks nothing can be more charming than the proſpect which the face of the country preſents, in riſing corn, vegetables, and verdure of every ſort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulſe, melons, ſugar-canes, and other plants which require moiſture, is ſupplied by ſmall, but regular cuts, from ciſterns and reſervoirs. Dates, plantains, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. Sugar-canes are alſo produced in this country; and the meadows yield the richeſt paſture in the world, the graſs being uſually as high as the cattle. March and April are the harveſt months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants) one of corn, and one of melons.

The animals of Egypt ſeem to partake of the fecundity of the ſoil; for the cows, it is ſaid, always bring two calves at a time, and ſheep yean twice in a year, having two lambs at the firſt and one at the ſecond; a goat is often followed by four kids, which ſhe has brought in ſix months. Oxen abound here, and 200,000 of theſe animals are daily employed by the inhabitants in raiſing water for the uſe of the fields and gardens. The Egyptian horſes are held in great eſteem, and a fine breed of aſſes are likewiſe found here; alſo wild aſſes, camels, oxen, antelopes, tygers, and hyænas: but the moſt remarkable animals are the crocodile, the hippopotamus, or river horſe; the chameleon, the ichneumon, or Egyptian rat, and a large ſpecies of ape, with a head ſomewhat reſembling that of a dog, from which circumſtance the Greeks gave it the appellation of cynocephalus. The crocodile is an amphibious animal, reſembling a lizard. They have four ſhort legs, with large feet armed with claws; their backs are covered with impenetrable ſcales, and they are commonly about twenty feet in length. Theſe animals wait for their prey in the ſedge, and other coverts on the ſides of the Nile, and often ſurpriſe travellers, who, deceived by the colour,

take them for trunks of old trees. Their method of attacking a man, is to beat him down, either with their fore-paws or their tail. The natives have two methods of deſtroying them; the firſt is by a piece of fleſh faſtened on a hook, and thrown into the river by a rope, the other end of which is faſtened to a ſtake; when the crocodile has ſeized the bait, they drag him to the ſhore, and eaſily diſpatch him. The other is by ſtriking them when aſleep by the river ſide, under the belly, with a pole armed with a barbed point of iron, faſtened to a ſtake; but this is a very dangerous method, and therefore leſs practiſed than the former. The hippopotamus is larger than an ox, which the hinder parts greatly reſemble: the head is like that of a horſe, and it has thick large feet, with prodigious claws. This is likewiſe an amphibious animal, and often leaves the Nile to feed in the meadows, but immediately retires into the water on the approach of any perſon. The ichneumon is about the ſize of a cat, and covered with rough hair, ſpotted with white, yellow, and aſh colour: its noſe is formed like that of a hog, and the animal uſes it to turn up the earth. The legs are ſhort and black; the tail reſembles that of a fox. The ichneumon is ſaid to be of infinite uſe in Egypt, from its natural antipathy to the crocodile, whoſe eggs it deſtroys. The chameleon is not unlike a lizard in ſhape, and changes colour as the ſpectator changes his poſition.

Egypt abounds in birds both wild and tame, particularly oſtriches, eagles, hawks, and a prodigious number of water-fowl, among which are pelicans, flamingoes, herons, &c. but thoſe peculiar to the Nile are the ibis, the gooſe with golden feathers, the rice hen, or hen of Dimyat, and the ſak-ſak. The ibis is of as great ſervice to the inhabitants as the ichneumon, by deſtroying the flying ſerpents, which the ſouth wind brings from the deſerts of Lybia. At the proper ſeaſon of the year, theſe birds, by a peculiar inſtinct, are ſaid to wait on the frontiers for theſe ſerpents, and devour them in their flight before they enter Egypt. The bill and legs of this bird reſemble thoſe of a ſtork, and its uſual food, beſides ſerpents, are ſnails, locuſts, and other inſects. The oſtrich is of a prodigious ſize, and if purſued will ſtrike with its legs like a horſe.

Among the reptiles found in Egypt are baſiliſk or cockatrice, and the aſp, whoſe bite ſtupifies the paſſenger, and throws him inſenſibly into a deep ſleep, which puts a period to his exiſtence.

The only river in Egypt is the Nile above-mentioned, on the annual inundation of which the fertility of the greateſt part of that kingdom depends. According to the beſt geographers, the time of this flux correſponds exactly with the rainy ſeaſons between the tropics; for they commence in the mountains about the beginning of May, and the waters of the Nile begin to ſwell about the middle of that month; ſo that there are fifteen days allowed for the courſe of the water from Ethiopia to Egypt. As a further proof that this inundation is cauſed by the violent rains in Ethiopia, let it be obſerved, that about a fortnight after they begin to abate, which happens in September, the river begins to ſink in Egypt; and ten days after the rains are entirely ceaſed, which is about the beginning of October, the Nile is reduced to its uſual channel.

Though the river begins to ſwell in May, no public notice is taken of it till the latter end of June, by which time it has generally riſen about ſeventeen feet, and then the public criers proclaim it through the capital and other cities, and continue to publiſh, in the ſame manner, how much it increaſes every day, till it has riſen to about thirty-four feet, when the dam of the Chali, or great canal at Bulak, which paſſes through the middle of Cairo, is cut down, by means of which the water is diſperſed over all the lands. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all ſorts of feſtivities. When the water riſes about forty-nine feet, it is a ſign of a plentiful year; but if it exceeds that height, it is productive of infinite miſchief; for beſides ſweeping away the houſes and drowning the cattle, it engenders a great number of inſects, which deſtroy the harveſts.

The day on which the banks of the canal are cut is obſerved as one of the greateſt feſtivals in Egypt. The baſhaw always attends, accompanied by the great officers of ſtate, and an innumerable concourſe of people; though we are told, the ſpectacle itſelf is not very magnificent. This officer is very careful that the river is arrived at its proper height before the canal is opened; for if it wants but an inch of it when he orders the dam to be cut down, and the year ſhould afterwards prove unfruitful, he is obliged to pay the Turkiſh emperor his tribute; but if this precaution is obſerved, and the harveſts prove unfavourable, no tribute can be claimed by that prince, the produce being then ſcarce ſufficient to maintain the inhabitants.

In order to aſcertain the daily increaſe of the water, the gradual riſe of it is very exactly meaſured, either by wells ſunk, or pillars erected and divided for that purpoſe, and termed nilometers or mikyaſes. That in the caſtle of Old Cairo is a large ſquare reſervoir, round which runs a handſome gallery, ſuſtained by twelve marble pillars, which form arches, with a baluſtrade, for the convenience of thoſe who look into the water. In the midſt of the baſon, through which a canal from the Nile paſſes, is an octagonal pillar of white marble, divided into twenty-two equal parts, by which the riſing of the water is determined; and the whole ſo accurately finiſhed, that the water in the reſervoir is always exactly on a level with that in the river.

As it is impoſſible for the Nile, without aſſiſtance, to overflow all the plains of Egypt, canals and trenches have been cut with vaſt labour and expence, from one extremity of the kingdom to the other, in order to convey the water to every part; ſo that each town and village has its canal, which is opened at proper times, that the land may be overflowed. By this method the inhabitants are alſo ſupplied with water for every other uſe, there being no more than two ſprings in the whole country. In the Lower Egypt, at the height of the Nile's flood, nothing is to be ſeen in the plains but the tops of foreſts and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial, ſo that the inhabitants at that time have no communication with each other but by boats.

When the country is all verdant, it is very pleaſant to ſail up the Nile. A number of villages are ſcattered along each ſide of the river. The houſes are indeed low, and built of unburnt bricks; but, intermixed as they are with palm-trees, and pigeon-houſes of a ſingular form, they preſent to the eye of a ſtranger an uncommon and pleaſing proſpect. Near ſeveral of theſe villages are ſeen large heaps of the ruins of ancient cities.

The navigation of the Nile would be ſtill more agreeable, were it not infeſted by pirates. But when a great number of people are on board a veſſel, they keep on their guard; and diſcharge a few ſhots from time to time, to ſhew that they are provided with fire-arms; this keeps the villains in awe, and renders the paſſage leſs dangerous. There is much more danger in truſting to a Reis, or maſter of a veſſel, with whom you are unacquainted, who may favour the robbers, and ſhare their plunder. Whole villages are ſaid to follow this trade; and for this reaſon the boats never ſtop in their neighbourhood.

The inhabitants on the banks of the Nile are very dexterous in the art of ſwimming, which they frequently exerciſe in ſtealing from the boats, if not with open force, yet with a degree of addreſs and audacity

audacity worthy the moſt noted pickpockets. The following is a recent inſtance of their ſubtilty and boldneſs. The ſervants of a Pacha, newly arrived, caught one of them in the act, ſeized him, and brought him before the Pacha, who threatened him with inſtant death; but the rogue aſked leave to exhibit one of his tricks, ſaying, that he hoped his dexterity might procure his pardon. He obtained leave. Then collecting ſeveral effects in the tent, he wrapped them up, coolly, in the mode in which the Egyptians wrap up their clothes when they are to paſs a river. After playing ſome time with this parcel, he put it on his head, threw himſelf into the Nile, and, before the Turks were ſo far recovered from their ſurprize as to level their muſquets at him, was ſafe on the oppoſite bank.

M. Niebuhr (from whom we have extracted the above particulars concerning this celebrated river) ſays, through all the Lower Egpyt he ſaw no crocodiles in the two great branches of the Nile up which his company ſailed; and adds, as the notion of the Egyptians, that in the Mikkias, near Cairo, there is a taliſman, the virtue of which hinders thoſe amphibious animals from deſcending lower in the river: but, reſpecting this circumſtance our author very judiciouſly obſerves, that "the charm is not in the Mikkias, but in the population and cultivation of the country; for ravenous animals, whether of the ſea or land, are ſoon intimidated by the frequent aſpect of man. Men, too, in their anxiety to rid themſelves of ſuch deſtructive enemies, gradually thin their numbers, and at length entirely exterminate them."

The Egyptians trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, frankincenſe, ſpice, calicoes, and other merchandiſe, formerly imported into Europe in prodigious quantities; but that branch of trade is now greatly declined. Moſt of the European powers have conſuls in Egypt; ours reſide at Cairo. Several Engliſh veſſels arrive annually at Alexandria, ſome of which are laden on account of the owner; but the principal part are freighted by the Jewiſh, Armenian, and Mahometan traders.

It is difficult to aſcertain the manufactures carried on in Egypt; it is however known, that the inhabitants export great quantities of unmanufactured, as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, calicoes, and leather of different kinds, which are landed at Suez, and from thence ſent to Europe. Their other productions for exportation are wax, ſal ammoniac, ſaffron, ſugar, ſenna, and caſſia. The internal traffick of the kingdom is chiefly carried on by caravans.

Egypt being inhabited by ſeveral different people, viz. Turks, Arabs, Moors, Greeks, Jews, Franks, and Coptics, their ſtature, complexion, habits, &c. are conſequently various. The Arabs are of a deep ſwarthy complexion, and are repreſented by the beſt authorities as retaining the patriarchal mode of tending their flocks, and many of them without any fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reſide in Egypt, retain all their original pride and inſolence; and wear the Turkiſh habit, to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the Arabs and Coptics.

The Coptics, who are the deſcendants of the original Egyptians, are an ill-looking ſlovenly people, immerſed in indolence, and, in their complexions, they are rather ſun-burnt than ſwarthy or black. Their anceſtors were once Chriſtians, and in general they ſtill pretend to be of that religion; but Mahometaniſm is the prevailing worſhip among the natives. The Coptics are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write.

The Arabs and Coptics dreſs very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Chriſtians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themſelves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The dreſs of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are ſilk, when they can afford it; and ſuch of them as are not expoſed to the ſun, have delicate complexions and features. The Jews wear blue leather ſlippers, the other natives of the country red, and the foreign Chriſtians yellow.

The occult ſciences, or, as they were formerly termed, the black art, was ſuppoſed to have arrived to a higher degree in Egypt than in any other country whatever; and, even at preſent, jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling ſlight-of-hand men, ſwarm in that country; and their prognoſtications, whether fortunate or otherwiſe, are received with the greateſt faith by the deluded Egyptians. The diverſions and exerciſes of the inhabitants are much the ſame as thoſe of Perſia and other parts of Aſia. The dancing camels, however, exhibited here, ſeem peculiar to this kingdom.

Egypt at preſent is not near ſo populous as formerly, its ſcarcity of inhabitants being principally owing to their being ſlaves to the Turks. They are, however, ſtill numerous; but what has been ſaid of the populouſneſs of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction. As moſt of the people live on the banks of the Nile, and the reſt of the country is inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we cannot preciſely aſcertain its population in general.

With reſpect to their religion, we learn, from hiſtory, that the ancient Egyptians worſhipped the planets, and ſeveral ſorts of birds and wild beaſts, among which were the crocodile, the ichneumon, and the ibis. Some of them adored even leeks and onions; but the general object of their worſhip was a large black ox, which they termed Apis. The Turks, Moors, and Arabs, ſettled in Egypt, are all Mahometans; and the two latter are ſtrict obſervers of their religion: they riſe very early, in order to be preſent at the public devotions, which are performed by break of day, and attend again at noon, at ſun-ſet, and at the ſetting of the watch, when it begins to be dark. The bulk of the Mahometans are enthuſiaſts, and profeſs great veneration for a ſet of people among them called ſanto's, or fellows who pretend to a ſuperior degree of holineſs, but are deſpiſed by the Turks as inſolent hypocrites. Many of them will appear in the ſtreets perfectly naked, and, in that manner, will intrude without any ceremony into the beſt houſes, ſit down to dinner, and leave the table when they are ſatisfied, no one daring to oppoſe them.

The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little; and it would be hard to ſay what ſpecies of Chriſtianity is adopted by the Chriſtian Coptics, which are numerous here, but they profeſs to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the juriſdiction of the patriach of Alexandria, who, by the dint of money, generally purchaſes a protection at the Ottoman court. It is affirmed that Chriſtianity was firſt planted here by St. Mark.

Egypt, in ancient times, was the ſeat of learning; the Greeks derived all their knowledge from this ſource. Geometry was invented in Egypt; and it is with great reaſon ſuppoſed, that Pythagoras acquired his knowledge of the true ſyſtem of the world from the Egyptian prieſts. The Ptolemies are celebrated for the encouragement they gave to literature: to their munificence we owe the Septuagint tranſlation of the ſcriptures; and they formed at Alexandria a library ſuperior to any thing the world ever ſaw. But the firſt caliphs, who were the immediate ſucceſſors of Mahomet, made war from conſcience and principle upon all kinds of literature, except the koran; and hence it was that the valuable manuſcripts contained in this moſt magnificent library were applied, for ſome months, in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths; and the ſame fate, through Mahometan bigotry and ignorance, attended upon the other Egyptian libraries

libraries of ineſtimable value. With regard to the architecture, ſculpture, and painting, of the ancient Egyptians, ſufficient ſpeciments ſtill remain to convince us, that they excelled every thing then known in the world; nor has the grandeur of their deſigns been ever equalled in any age or nation. But how is this country fallen! It once poſſeſſed the ſeat of eminence, and held the ſceptre of learning: it is now ſunk into the abyſs of ignorance, and exhibits a melancholy ſpectacle of the inſtability of human greatneſs; for the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which the lower race of caliphs, who were the diſgrace of human nature, impoſed. Arithmetical calculations, adapted to the diſpatch of buſineſs; the jargon of aſtrology, a few noſtrums in medicine, and ſome fooliſh attempts to deceive the vulgar by a pretence to magic; now compoſe all the learning of Egypt.

Among the curioſities of Egypt are the pyramids, which are the moſt ſtupendous, though to appearance the moſt uſeleſs, ſtructures ever raiſed by the hands of men: they are, to the number of twenty, diſperſed about the Arabian deſert. One of the three largeſt of them we ſhall give a particular deſcription of here. It is ſituated on the top of a rock, in the deſert above mentioned, about a quarter of a mile to the weſt of the plains of Egypt, above which the rock riſes with an eaſy aſcent upwards of 100 feet. Each ſide of this pyramid, at the baſe, is 693 feet; its perpendicular height 499 feet; but, if meaſured along the ſloping ſide of the pyramid, it is equal to the breadth of the baſe. It covers an area of 480,249 ſquare feet, which is equal to eleven acres of ground. The aſcent to the top of this pyramid is by 207 ſteps placed on the outſide, every ſtep being the depth of one entire ſtone, and many of them thirty feet in length. On the north ſide, an artificial bank of earth is raiſed thirty-eight feet, and from this there is a narrow ſquare paſſage, which leads into the pyramid. This paſſage is about three feet and a half high, three and a quarter broad, and extends, on a declivity, ninety-two feet and a half. It is ſo contracted towards the end, that the ſpectators are obliged to creep upon their bellies for a conſiderable diſtance, which at length brings them into a place ſomewhat larger, and inhabited by a prodigious number of large bats. On the left hand, adjoining to the entrance, is a ſtone eight or nine feet high, which, being climbed, leads to the entrance of the firſt gallery, an hundred and ten feet in length, five feet in height, and as many in breadth, the whole conſiſting of white poliſhed marble. This gallery leads by a gentle aſcent to a ſecond, which is an hundred and twenty-four feet in length, twenty-ſix feet in height, and ſix broad. This is alſo of white poliſhed marble, cut into vaſt ſquares, the junctures are ſo cloſe and exact as to be ſcarce diſcernible by the moſt curious eye; and on each ſide there are benches of the ſame materials. The paſſage from this gallery is through a ſmall ſquare hole into ſome cloſets, or little chambers, lined with Thebaic marble, which lead to a very noble hall or chamber, ſituated exactly in the centre of the pyramid. The floor, ſides, and roof, of this room, are formed of exquiſite tables of Thebaic marble. It is about thirty-four feet in length, ſeventeen in breadth, and nineteen and a half in height. From the top to the bottom of it there are but ſix ranges of marble, and the blocks which cover it are of a ſtupendous length, nine of them forming the roof. In the middle of the hall is a marble cheſt ſeven feet long, ſuppoſed to be the tomb of Cheops, or Chemnis, king of Egypt, who is ſaid to have founded the pyramid; but there is no appearance of a corpſe having ever been laid in it.

At ſome diſtance from the above pyramid, and in the ſame deſerts, are ſituated the mummy-pits, the ſhalloweſt of which are thirty-two feet deep. At the bottom are ſquare openings or paſſages, ten or fifteen feet long, which lead into ſquare arched rooms, in which the embalmed bodies lie, ſome of them in cheſts or coffins of wood, others in ſtone coffins, and others are only wrapped in pieces of linen cloth, gummed or glued together. With theſe mummies are uſually found the figures of birds and beaſts, and little images of ſeveral ſorts, ſome of copper, others of ſtone, and others of different ſorts of earth.

Near the largeſt pyramid ſtands what is uſually called the ſphinx, which, if entire, ſhould reſemble a woman in the upper part, and a lion in the lower. Nothing more of this figure, however, is diſcernible, than from the ſhoulders upwards, and yet it is near thirty feet in height. Many are of opinion, that it was hewn out of the rock on which it ſtands, and that there was never any more of it than what is now viſible.

We muſt not omit another curioſity mentioned by all ancient and modern authors, which is a labyrinth near the banks of the Nile, ſaid to have been contrived by King Pſamniticus. The greater part of it is under ground, and contains, within the compaſs of one wall, twelve palaces and 1000 houſes; the walls, pillars, and roofs, were of marble, and it is aſſerted that neither wood nor cement was uſed in the whole fabric. This labyrinth had only one entrance, and ſo many intricate turnings and windings, that it was impoſſible for a ſtranger to find his way without a guide; which occaſions its name.

On a mountain near Oſyut, are upwards of 1000 beautiful grottoes, one of which is large enough to contain ſix hundred horſe. It is cut out of the rock with the chiſſel, and ſupported by vaſt ſquare pillars of the ſame rock. Various apartments have been made, and wells ſunk in moſt of theſe caverns, and at the extremities of them are catacombs, hallowed, which contain a great number of mummies; formerly there were tombs adorned with ſculptures in baſſo relievo, but theſe have been defaced by the Arabs. The obeliſk, or needle, of Cleopatra, ſituated in Alexandria, conſiſts of a ſingle block of granite, ſixty-three feet high, covered with hieroglyphics. This was another exactly ſimilar, but now thrown down, are ſuppoſed to have ſtood at the entrance of the palace of that celebrated princeſs. The lake Mœris, which was dug by order of Herodotus Mœris, king of Egypt, in order to correct the irregularities of the Nile, was at once a curious, uſeful, and ſtupendous undertaking. Herodotus ſays, it was 450 miles in circumference, and, in moſt places, 300 feet in depth. But at preſent, according to the obſervation of Dr. Pococke, it is no more than fifty miles long and ten broad. In ſhort, a volume would not be ſufficient to deſcribe the aſtoniſhing remains of ancient temples, palaces, ſtatues, paintings, &c. ſo profuſely ſcattered over great part of Egypt. Some of the ancient ſtructures, particularly the palace of Memnon, ſtill exhibit ſuch ſpecimens of grandeur as are not to be equalled in the whole world.

The cuſtom of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practiſed in ſome parts of Europe. The papyrus is one of the natural curioſities of this country; but we know not the manner of preparing it: the pith of it is a nouriſhing food.

No country in the world contains more inſcriptions, engraved on ſtones of the moſt durable nature, than Egypt: but the pains taken to inform us has been rendered fruitleſs by the imperfection of the mode of writing this people employed. Inſtead of characters expreſſive of the different ſounds in their language, or ſigns marking each a ſyllable, with a determinate idea affixed to it, ſuch as the Chineſe uſe; the ancient Egyptians made uſe of emblems, to mark ideas ſomehow referable to them, although by a very forced and diſtant analogy. This is what we, after the Greeks, call hieroglyphic writing.

M. Niebuhr makes the following judicious remarks on the ſubject: "I would willingly hope,

ſays he, that the key to thoſe myſterious writings of the ancient Egyptians may yet be recovered. Various learned men have diſplayed aſtoniſhing ſagacity and penetration in decyphering inſcriptions in unknown languages, where there has been a conſiderable quantity of characters for them to exerciſe their conjectures upon. Travellers ſhould therefore collect as many as poſſible of the hieroglyphic characters, and publiſh them carefully, that we may thus be furniſhed with more points of compariſon for theſe ſymbols through a greater variety of combinations.

"The ſtudy of the ancient language of Egypt would be equally neceſſary for this purpoſe. I ſuſpect that the true nature of hieroglyphics has hitherto been miſtaken, while all the ſymbolical figures and characters have been ſuppoſed to be of the ſame ſort. After copying a conſiderable number of hieroglyphics from obeliſks, ſarcophagi, urns, and mummies, I thought I could alſo diſtinguiſh, in theſe ſmaller hieroglyphics, ſome marks of alphabetic characters, or at leaſt of a mixed ſpecies of writing bearing ſome reſemblance to the alphabetical. Wherefore, by the ſtudy of the language of the Pharaoh's we may come, with more eaſe, to decypher theſe ſmall characters."

The hieroglyphic inſcriptions are found chiefly in Upper Egypt, where all the monuments, and even the walls, of thoſe ſuperb temples which are ſtill ſtanding, are covered over with inſcriptions of this ſort. They are no leſs common upon the tombs of the mummies at Sakara. The embalmed bodies have covers full of hieroglyphics; and the ſepulchral urns are marked with them. Such as have been painted upon wood and cloth are in as good a ſtate of preſervation as thoſe which are engraven upon ſtone. It is very probable, that in the caverns of Sakara, if theſe were examined, there are other more precious antiquities.

Since Egypt has been ſubject to the Turkiſh emperors, they have always governed it by a viceroy, under the title of the pacha or baſhaw of Grand Cairo. and is one of the greateſt officers of the Ottoman empire. But the kingdom is ſubdivided into twenty-four provinces, each of which is governed by a ſangiack, or bey; ſo that the government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican, the governors of which are natives, and ſeem to be veſted with ſovereign power in their reſpective diſtricts; the grand ſeignior having thought proper to indulge them in this reſpect, rather than hazard the revolt of ſo rich a province; and by this means the Egyptians have an inheritance in their own lands, a privilege enjoyed by few of the Turkiſh ſubjects beſides themſelves. It is the buſineſs of the viceroy to keep theſe petty princes, who are termed ſcheicks, at variance with each other, which he never fails to do, and by that means prevents their uniting againſt the Porte, which has formerly been the caſe; and even the baſhaws themſelves had been known to revolt againſt their emperors.

The republican, or rather the ariſtocratical part of the government of Egypt conſiſts of a divan, compoſed of the twenty-four ſangiacks, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the ſheikbellet, who is choſen by the divan, and confirmed by the baſhaw. Every one of the ſangiacks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts ſovereign power; the major part of them reſide at Cairo. If the grand ſeignior's pacha acts in oppoſition to the ſenſe of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not ſuffer him to continue in his poſt; the Porte is obliged to ſend another. They have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year Egypt was conquered from the Mamalukes by the ſultan.

The Turks always keep a numerous army of regular troops, and alſo a militia in Egypt, which ſerve merely as nurſeries for the Ottoman troops; for the viceroy never ventures to employ them againſt the Arab or Egyptian beys already mentioned, many of whom have ſeparate armies of their own. The regular forces are ſaid to amount to about ſix or eight thouſand, and the militia to between three and four thouſand.

The grand ſeignior never impoſes any ſevere taxes on the Egyptians, leſt ſuch a meaſure ſhould induce them to revolt; ſo that, except what the viceroy and his creatures extort from the people illegally, the whole revenue raiſed by the government does not amount to a million of our money, of which, it is ſaid, two-thirds are ſpent within the kingdom; the remainder is remitted to the grand ſeignior's treaſury.

The cities and principal towns in Egypt are ſo numerous, that it is impoſſible to deſcribe even the moſt conſiderable of them, all therefore we can do is, to ſelect ſuch as are moſt worthy the attention of our readers.

Cairo, now Maſn, the preſent capital of Egypt, is ſituated on the Nile, and conſiſts of two cities, a mile diſtant from each other, viz. Old Cairo, and Cairo properly ſo called. The firſt of theſe is now reduced to a very ſmall compaſs, not being more than two miles round; but the ſecond, which is ſituated about a mile from the river, extends eaſtward near two miles to the mountains, and is about ſeven miles in circumference. It is ſaid to have been formerly much larger, being then the centre of trade from the Eaſt-Indies. There are three or four very grand gates, erected by the Mamalukes, the workmanſhip of which is very good, and the architecture, though ſimple, has a magnificent appearance. The caſtle, ſaid to have been built by Saladin, is ſituated on a rocky hill, which ſeems to have been ſeparated by art from the mountain Jebel Duiſe. It is walled round, but being entirely commanded by an eminence on the eaſt, it could make but a poor defence ſince the invention of cannon. The caſtle is at preſent parted into three diviſions, which are occupied by the pacha, the janiſſaries, and the Aſſabs. The palace of the pacha is falling into ruins, and is unworthy of being the dwelling of the governor of a great province. But the Turkiſh pachas are in general ill lodged: they all know that they are not to be long in power, and no one cares for making reparations to accommodate his ſucceſſor. The quarter of the janiſſaries is ſurrounded with ſtrong walls, which are flanked with towers, and it has more the appearance of a fortreſs.

At the weſt end of the caſtle are the remains of very magnificent apartments, ſome of them covered with domes, and adorned with Moſaic pictures, formerly perhaps belonging to the ancient ſultans, but at preſent only uſed for weaving, embroidering, and otherwiſe preparing the hangings, every year ſent to Mecca. The grand ſaloon, commonly called Joſeph's Hall, is now entirely open, except on the ſouth ſide; and, from an eminence near it, which by the large and beautiful pillars of red granite with which it is adorned, ſeems to have been a terrace to the above ſaloon, there is a moſt delightful proſpect of Cairo, the pyramids, and all the adjacent country.

The ſtreets, like thoſe of all the Turkiſh cities, are very narrow, the moſt ſpacious of them not exceeding one of our lanes in breadth; and they are peſtered with jugglers and fortune-tellers. The houſes, which are generally built round a court, have very little beauty on the outſide, uſe only being there conſidered. Below they are of ſtone, and above of a ſort of cage-work, ſometimes filled up with unburnt bricks, having very few windows. The inſides are much more regular: thoſe belonging to the principal men have a ſaloon for common uſe, and another for ſtate; and as they have four wives, each of them has a ſaloon, with the neceſſary apartments. Theſe have no communication with the other parts of the houſe,

except the common entrance for the ſervants, and the private entrance, of which the maſter keeps the key.

There are ſeveral magnificent moſques in and about Cairo; but the moſt celebrated, both with regard to the ſolidity of its building, and a certain grandeur and magnificence that ſtrikes every ſpectator in a ſurpriſing manner, is the moſque of Sultan Haſſen, built at the foot of the caſtle-hill. It is very lofty, of an oblong ſquare figure, crowned with a corniſh all round, that projects a great way, and is adorned with a particular ſort of groteſque carvings, after the Turkiſh manner. The entrance is very beautifully inlaid with ſeveral ſorts of marble, and finely carved at top: formerly the aſcent was by ſeveral ſteps, which are deſtroyed, and the door walled up, becauſe, in times of public inſurrections, the rebels made uſe of this moſque as an aſylum, and place of defence. Cairo is commonly viſited by the plague once in three or four years, when it rages with incredible violence, and carries off great numbers of the people, but always gradually declines in proportion to the ſwelling of the Nile. The conveniency of water-carriage renders this city a place of great traffick; ſo that all the country, particularly in the neighbourhood of the Nile, is ſupplied with merchandize of all kinds from Cairo.

One of the favourite diverſions of the citizens is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor, the intenſe heat whereof makes the poor creature caper, and, being plied all the time with the ſound of drums, the noiſe of that inſtrument ſets them a dancing all their lives after.

In the neighbourhood of Cairo are ſeveral remarkable places: among others, the three villages of Bulak, Foſtat, Geeſh, which are all ſo near the city, that they may be reckoned ſuburbs to it.

Bulak, which was undoubtedly the Latopolis of the ancient Greeks, is at preſent a very conſiderable town, and the port of Cairo. All goods from Damietta and Roſetta, and all exports from Egypt by the Mediterranean, paſs this way. For this reaſon, a large cuſtom-houſe is eſtabliſhed here; and a vaſt bazar, or covered market-place, called kiſſarie. Here are alſo magazines of rice, ſalt, nitre, and of various productions of Upper Egypt. Here is alſo a houſe belonging to the ſultan, in which is kept the corn that he ſends annually to Mecca and Medina.

Foſtat, or Maſr-el-atik, although greatly decayed, may ſtill be conſidered as a town of the middle ſize. It has a cuſtom-houſe, where the duties on goods from Upper Egypt are paid. In a large ſquare, encloſed within a wall, government ſtore up, in the open air, a conſiderable quantity of grain every year. Some authors ſpeak of this as a granary built by the patriarch Joſeph; but the wall is plainly of a later date than even the conqueſt of Egypt by the Arabians.

The old city of Maſr is inhabited, at preſent, by none but Chriſtians. In it are to be ſeen ſeveral churches of the Greeks and Cops, with a convent of Monks of the latter nation. A grotto, under one of the Coptic churches, is regarded with high veneration, becauſe it is ſuppoſed to have been the retreat of the Holy Family, when they fled into Egypt. The Greeks have a church famous for a miracle of a ſingular nature:—fools recover their wits, upon being bound to a certain pillar of it.

Between this city and Cairo is an aqueduct, which was conſtructed in the beginning of the ſixth century by Sultan Gari, and conveys water into the neighbourhood of the caſtle. Near the canal is a convent of Derviſes, celebrated for the elegance of the building, and the opulence of the foundation; and near this convent are large ſquares, in which the principal inhabitants of Cairo amuſe themſelves with military exerciſes.

†

The ſmall village of Geeſh ſtands on the ſouthern bank of the Nile, oppoſite to Maſr-el-atik. Its origin is unknown. The heights around it, which have no doubt been raiſed by the accumulation of the dirt from the city, ſeem to beſpeak its antiquity. M. Niebuhr found nothing remarkable about it, except ſome country houſes belonging to rich inhabitants of Cairo, and ſome manufactories.

Matara, a town, or rather village, about two leagues from the capital, is ſeated nearly on the ruins of the ancient Heliopolis. It is, however, more famous among the Chriſtians for a ſycamore whoſe trunk is ſaid to have afforded ſhelter to the Holy Family, in their flight. This ſycamore ſhould ſeem to have the power of renewing itſelf: for, of the crowds of ſuperſtitious perſons who viſit it, each uſually cuts off and carries away a piece. This village was formerly famous for the cultivation of thoſe trees which afford Egyptian balſam: but none of them is now to be ſeen here; the laſt died in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century. The Turks are not a people diſpoſed to reſtore ſo valuable a plant.

Four leagues eaſtward from Cairo is Birket-el-Hadgi, or the Pilgrim's Pool, a pretty conſiderable lake, which receives its water from the Nile. Upon its banks are ſeveral villages, and a great many ruinous country-houſes. There is nothing to render this place remarkable, except at the time of the ſetting out of the caravan from Mecca, when the pilgrims encamp near it for a few days; as they do alſo upon their return. On the 20th of May 1762, two days before the departure of the caravan, M. Niebuhr tells us, he had the curioſity to viſit this camp, but found little about it worth viewing; that he ſaw indeed a very few elegant tents; but every thing elſe was ſhockingly, naſty, diſorderly, and paltry.

Alexandria, (or Scandria, as the Turks and Arabs call it) the ancient capital of Egypt, was founded by Alexander the Great, and is ſituated forty miles weſt from the Nile, where it forms a ſpacious haven, in the form of a creſcent, and is 120 miles north-weſt of Cairo. It was formerly a very magnificent city, containing ſuperb buildings, and noble walls, ſome of which are ſaid to be ſtill ſtanding. It was once, in ſome degree, the emporium of the world, and, by means of the Red Sea, furniſhed Europe, and many parts of Aſia, with the rich merchandizes and productions of the Eaſt. Some ſtately ruins are ſtill viſible, together with many pieces of porphyry, and other fine marbles; but the greater part has been either carried away, or employed in building the preſent city, which is nothing more than an ordinary ſea-port, known by the name of Scanderoon. Mr. Niebuhr obſerves, that the Mahometans in general, and eſpecially the inhabitants of Alexandria, break down the fineſt monuments of antiquity, to employ the fragments in the moſt wretched ſtructures imaginable. Whenever they are at a loſs for materials for building, they ſcruple not to dig up the foundation ſtones of the ancient walls and palaces.—If one happens to find a beautiful column in his garden, he will rather make mill-ſtones of it, than preſerve it.

However, he ſays, there ſtill exiſts one noble remain in the city, which could neither be broken nor carried away: this is the Obeliſk of Cleopatra, not before noticed, and is a ſingle piece of red granite. Although a part of its baſe be ſunk into the earth, it ſtill appears above ground to the height of ſixty-two feet; the circumference of the baſe is ſeven feet and a half. It is inſcribed with ſome ancient characters, engraven an inch deep; but the modern Egyptians cannot read them.

Another monument, the famous pillar of Pompey, which is a fine piece of antiquity, owes alſo its preſervation to its bulk. It was erected in ancient Alexandria, but ſtands at preſent at the diſtance of a quar-

ter

ter of a league from the New-Town; and is ſaid to have been erected by Julius Cæſar, in memory of his victory over that great man, who, eſcaping from the battle of Pharſalia to the Egyptian coaſt, was there treacherouſly murdered. The pillar conſiſts of three ſtones of red granite; the whole, including the pedeſtal and foundation, being eighty-nine feet high, and adorned with a capital of the Corinthian order.

New Alexandria owes its preſent ſtate to the Arabs, who encloſed it with a very thick wall, near fifty feet high. This wall, which is becoming ruinous, and a ſmall fort upon the peninſula, with a garriſon of fifty ſoldiers, are all the means that the city poſſeſſes for its defence: but its governor depends on the Pacha of Kahira, and, of conſequence, not on the ariſtocracy of the beys, but on the grand ſeignior. The fineſt building in the city is a moſque, which, in the time of the Greek empire, was a church dedicated to St. Athanaſius. It is very large, and ornamented with noble columns. A great number of Greek manuſcripts are ſtill ſaid to be preſerved in it; but, Mr. Niebuhr adds, that as no Chriſtian dare examine any thing within a moſque, he ſaw only its outſide.—Alexandria has fallen by degrees from its ancient grandeur, population, and wealth. The filling up of the branch of the Nile, upon which this city ſtands, and which is now no longer navigable, is what has chiefly contributed to its decline: it is however cleanſed from time to time, as it ſupplies the city with ſoft water, which could no where elſe be obtained.

According to the tradition of the Arabs, when Alexandria was taken by the Saracens, it contained four thouſand palaces, as many baths, and four hundred ſquares: even now the moſques, bagnios, &c. erected within theſe ruins, preſerve an inexpreſſible air of majeſty. This city ſtill retains ſome trifling remains of its former trade; but the inhabitants are, in general, poor, ignorant, and indolent. Oppoſite Alexandria is the ſmall iſland of Pharos, whereon the light-houſe, known by the ſame appellation, and eſteemed one of the Wonders of the World, formerly ſtood. The mole which was built to form a communication with the iſland of Pharos is 1000 yards in length, and though near 2000 years old, ſuch were its excellent materials, as to reſiſt in a great meaſure the violence of winds and waves ever ſince. All the parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the ciſterns and aqueducts.

Suez, which gives name to the iſthmus that joins Africa with Aſia, is ſituated on the northern coaſt of the Red Sea. It was formerly a place of great trade, but has been upon the decline ever ſince the Portugueſe diſcovered a paſſage to the Eaſt Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. Near this city the children of Iſrael are ſuppoſed to have marched in their way towards the Red Sea. It is now a ſmall city, and gives name to the iſthmus that joins Africa with Aſia.

Roſetta, called by the Arabs, Raſhid, is a healthy, pleaſant, and populous city, is ſituated twenty-five miles to the north-weſt of Alexandria, and at the mouth of one of the branches of the Nile. It is two miles long, and half a mile broad. The inhabitants employ themſelves in conveying the European merchandizes, which are brought hither from Alexandria to Cairo in boats. A vaſt number of vice-conſuls and factors reſide here, in order to expedite all letters and bills brought from Alexandria: thoſe of any conſequence, are conveyed from hence by land, acroſs the deſerts, to Cairo. Roſetta is recommended not only for its beautiful ſituation, but delightful proſpects, which command the fine country, or iſland of Delta. In the environs are many country-houſes belonging to Chriſtian merchants, with fine gardens, producing the choiceſt fruits of the Eaſt. The Mahometan inhabitants are alſo extremely civil and polite here.

Damietta, ſuppoſed to be the ancient Peluſium, is ſituated at the mouth of the eaſtern branch of the Nile, about an hundred miles from Roſetta. It is an ill-built, but large and populous city, containing about twenty-five thouſand inhabitants, excluſive of ſtrangers.

Bulac is ſituated about two miles weſt of Cairo, to which city it is the port town, and a place of vaſt trade, containing about four thouſand families. It is at this place that the banks of the Nile are annually cut, in order to fill the canals, as already mentioned.

Sayd, ſituated on the weſt banks of the Nile, 200 miles ſouth of Cairo, and ſuppoſed to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes, is the capital of Upper Egypt, and was formerly one of the fineſt cities in the univerſe; but it is now very inconſiderable, and only remarkabe for the amazing antiquities it contains, conſiſting of vaſt columns of marble and porphyry, which lie half buried in the ground, and ſtatues and obeliſks of a prodigious ſize, adorned with hieroglyphics.

Colliar is ſituated on the weſt coaſt of the Red Sea.

The general practice of ſtrangers, who viſit the three laſt-mentioned places, is, to hire a janiſſary, whoſe authority commonly protects them from the inſults of the other natives.

HISTORY OF EGYPT.

Egypt has long been a celebrated kingdom; it was peopled by Mizraim, the ſon of Ham, ſoon after the confuſion at Babel, and has almoſt from its firſt ſettlement been celebrated by the hiſtorians of all nations. An uninterrupted ſeries of kings filled the Egyptian throne, till the invaſion of Cambyſes II. king of Perſia, in the year before Chriſt 520, when a period was put to that famous monarchy. Moſt of the ſuperb ſtructures, whoſe ruins are the admiration of modern times, were erected during the reigns of theſe princes deſcended from the line of the Pharaohs. After the conqueſt of Egypt by Cambyſes, it continued a province of Perſia, till the deſtruction of that empire by Alexander the Great, who, after wreſting the Perſian diadem from Darius, built the celebrated city of Alexandria, then the emporium of the rich merchandize of the Indies. On the death of Alexander, Egypt fell to the lot of Ptolemy, one of the generals of that great prince, when it once more became an independent kingdom. This event happened about 300 years before the Chriſtian æra. The line of the Ptolemies ſwayed the Egyptian ſceptre between 2 and 300 years, and were famous for their magnificence, and the encouragement they gave to learning. The celebrated library of Alexandria, ſaid to contain 700,000 volumes, owed its origin to Ptolemy Philadelphus, the ſecond prince of that dynaſty. By his order alſo the Old Teſtament was tranſlated from the Hebrew into Greek, and is well known to the learned under the name of the Septuagint. This dynaſty terminated with the death of the celebrated Cleopatra, wife and ſiſter to Ptolemy Dionyſius, when Egypt was reduced to a Roman province. In this ſtate it continued till the deſtruction of that empire by the Goths and Vandals. After this memorable period, namely, about the year 640, Omar ſubjected Egypt to the Mahometan power, and the caliphs of Babylon were ſovereigns of the country till 870, when the Egyptians ſet up a governor of their own, named Ahmed Eben Tolun, and hence it is called the dynaſty or line of Tolun. This line continued till about the year 1140, and was ſucceeded by the Turkiſh line of caliphs, or kings of Egypt, the firſt of which was Syrachock, who being ſent by the ſultan with an army into Egypt,

Egypt, conquered the country, but aſſumed the regal authority himſelf.

Between the year 1150 and 1190, in the time of the Cruſades, Egypt was governed by Noraddin, the Saracen ſultan of Damaſcus, whoſe ſon, the famous Saladin, was ſo dreadful to thoſe Chriſtian adventurers, and retook from them Jeruſalem. He inſtituted the military corps of Mamalukes, like the janiſſaries of Conſtantinople, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after choſe their prince out of their own body. Egypt for ſome time made a figure under thoſe illuſtrious uſurpers, and made a noble ſtand againſt the growing power of the Turks, till Selim, the Turkiſh emperor, about the year 1517, gave the Mamalukes ſeveral bloody defeats, and reduced Egypt to its preſent ſtate of ſubjection to the Ottomans. But while this conqueror was ſettling the government of Egypt, great numbers of ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deſerts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way.—Selim and his officers, perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate thoſe marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their poſterity is known all over Europe and Aſia by the name of Gipſies.

The late Dr. Smollett, ſpeaking of Egypt, ſays, "It was from hence that the vagrant race called Gipſies came, and diſperſed themſelves into every kingdom of Europe and Aſia. They were originally called Zinganees, from their captain Zinganeus, who, when ſultan Selim made a conqueſt of Egypt about the year 1517, refuſed to ſubmit to the Turkiſh yoke, and retired into the deſerts, where they lived by rapine and plunder, and frequently came down into the plains of Egypt, committing great outrages in the towns upon the Nile, under the dominion of the Turks. But being at length ſubdued, and baniſhed Egypt, they agreed to diſperſe themſelves in ſmall parties into every country of the known world, and as they were natives of Egypt, a country where the occult ſciences, or black art, as it was called, was ſuppoſed to have arrived to great perfection, and which in that credulous age was in great vogue with perſons of all religions and perſuaſions, they found no difficulty to maintain themſelves by pretending to tell fortunes and future events." Many of them, however, have of late been incorporated with and adopted the manners and cuſtoms of the people with whom they live.

The moſt important event reſpecting the hiſtory of this country, is the following: A few years ago, an attempt was made to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whoſe father was a prieſt of the Greek church. Ali embraced the Mahometan religion; and as he was poſſeſſed of great ability and addreſs, he ſoon became very popular. However, a falſe accuſation having been made againſt him to the grand ſeignior, his head was ordered to be ſent to Conſtantinople. Ali, being appriſed of the deſign, ſeized and put to death the meſſenger who brought the mandate, and ſoon afterwards found means to put himſelf at the head of an army; taking likewiſe advantage of the diſtreſsful and dangerous ſituation to which the Turkiſh empire was reduced, by the war it was engaged in with the Ruſſians, he boldly aſcended the throne of the ancient ſultans of Egypt. But not content with that kingdom, he alſo laid claim to Syria, Paleſtine, and that part of Arabia which had formerly been under the dominion of the ancient ſultans. Accordingly he marched at the head of his troops to ſupport theſe pretenſions, and actually ſubdued ſome of the neighbouring provinces of Arabia and Syria.

Whilſt Ali was employed in theſe great enterpriſes, he was not leſs attentive to the eſtabliſhing a regular form of government, and introducing order into a country that had been long the ſeat of anarchy and confuſion. In like manner he extended his views to commerce; for which purpoſe he gave great encouragement to the Chriſtian traders, and took off ſome grievous and ſhameful reſtraints and indignities to which they were ſubjected by the arbitrary power of the governors. With the ſame views, he wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greateſt aſſurances of his friendſhip, and that their merchants ſhould meet with all poſſible protection and ſafety. His great deſign was ſaid to be, to make himſelf maſter of the Red Sea, to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans, and to make Egypt once more the great centre of commerce.

The conduct and views of Ali diſplayed an extent of thought and ability that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and beſpoke a greatneſs of mind capable of founding an empire; but he was not finally ſucceſsful. However, for ſome time he proved extremely fortunate: having aſſumed the titles and ſtate of the ancient ſultans of Egypt, and being ably ſupported by Sheik Daher, and ſome other Arabian princes, who warmly eſpouſed his cauſe. In almoſt all his enterpriſes againſt the neighbouring Aſiatic governors and baſhas he likewiſe ſucceeded, and repeatedly defeated them; but he was at length deprived of the ſovereignty by the baſe and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-law, Mahommed Bey Aboudaab, who, on the 7th of March, 1773, totally defeated his troops, wounded, and took him priſoner: he afterwards died of his wounds, and was buried at Grand Cairo.

Aboudaab for ſome time governed Egypt as Sheik Ballet, and marched into Paleſtine to ſubdue Sheik Daher; but after behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, ſuppoſed to be ſtrangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amniſty, and embraced the captain pacha's invitation to dine on board his ſhip, when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head ſtruck off in the 85th year of his age: thus forfeiting his life in conſequence of his own credulity, and the falſe aſſurances of his treacherous enemies.

CHAP. II.

THE STATES OF BARBARY:

Containing the Kingdoms of Morocco, Fez, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca.

Boundaries, Climate, Soil, Produce, Inhabitants, Animals, Cities, Towns, Mountains, Rivers, &c.

MOROCCO.

THIS empire, which now comprehends the kingdoms of Morocco and Fez, is bounded by the Mediterranean ſea, on the north; by Tafilet, on the ſouth; by the river Mulvia, which ſeparates it from Algiers, on the eaſt; and by the Atlantic ocean, on the weſt; extending from 28 to 36 deg. north latitude, and from 4 to 9 deg. weſt longitude from London. It is about 500 miles in length, and 480 miles in breadth, where broadeſt.

FEZ, lies between the kingdom of Algiers, to the eaſt, and Morocco to the ſouth: it is ſurrounded in other parts by the ſea. This country, now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and nearly the ſame in breadth.

ALGIERS, which was formerly a kingdom, is 480 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and from 40 to 100 miles in breadth. It is ſituated between 30 and 37 deg. north lat. and between 1 deg. weſt, and 9 deg. eaſt long. being bounded on the eaſt by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the ſouth by Mount Atlas, and on the weſt by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet.

TUNIS, anciently the republic of Carthage, is in length from north to ſouth 220 miles, in breadth from eaſt to weſt 170, and bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and eaſt; by the kingdom of Algiers, on the weſt; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the ſouth. It extends from 33 deg. 30 min. to 37 deg. 12 min. north lat. and from 8 deg. to 11 deg. eaſt long.

TRIPOLI, including Barca, is bounded by the Mediterranean ſea, on the north; by the country of the Beriberies, on the ſouth; by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamih, on the weſt; and by Egypt, on the eaſt; extending along the coaſt about 1000 miles, excluſive of the creeks and projections of the ſhore.

We may with propriety conſider the Barbary ſtates as forming a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exerciſe of its internal policy; and with reſpect to the manners and cuſtoms of the inhabitants in general, the difference is not greater than happens in the ſeveral provinces of the ſame kingdom.

The climate of Morocco, Fez, Algiers, and indeed all the other ſtates, is extremely hot towards the ſouth, but in general is tolerably healthy, being cooled by the ſea-breezes, and defended by high mountains from the ſultry ſouth winds, which give them a temperature not to be expected from their ſituations ſo near the tropic. But if the rainy ſeaſon, which begins in October, continues too long, it occaſions peſtilential fevers; and the north-weſt winds, which prevail in March, ſometimes greatly affect the lungs and nerves, and injure the products of the earth. In other reſpects the ſky is ſerene, and the air clear and wholeſome. Fine ſprings are found in moſt moors, and alſo winding rivers, which for the moſt part have their ſource in Mount Atlas, and diſembogue themſelves in the Mediterranean ſea, or Atlantic ocean.

Under the Roman empire, theſe ſtates were juſtly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a reſidence there, was conſidered as the higheſt ſtate of luxury. The produce of their ſoil formed thoſe magazines which furniſhed all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppreſſion and barbarity the inhabitants labour under, yet they are ſtill fertile, not only in the articles above ſpecified, but in dates, figs, raiſins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen-gardens. Excellent hemp and flax are produced on their plains; and perſons who have lived there for ſome time aſſure us, that the country abounds with all the neceſſaries and luxuries of life; for the great people here find means to evade the ſobriety preſcribed by the Mahometan law, and drink freely of excellent wines and ſpirits of their own growth and manufacture. Great quantities of ſaltpetre and excellent ſalt have been produced in Algiers, and in ſeveral places of Barbary lead and iron have been found. Honey and wax are alſo produced here in great quantities.

The deſerts in the ſtates of Barbary abound with lions, tygers, leopards, hyænas, and monſtrous ſerpents; but neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found there. Camels and dromedaries, aſſes, mules, and kumrahs (a moſt ſerviceable creature) begot by an aſs upon a cow, are their beaſts of burden. The Barbary horſes were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian: and though their breed is now ſaid to be decayed, yet ſome very fine ones are now and then imported into England. Their cows are but ſmall, and give little milk. Their ſheep and goats are very large; though the former yield but indifferent fleeces. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weaſels, moles, chameleons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. The apprehenſions travellers through ſome parts of Barbary are under, of being bitten or ſtung by the ſcorpion, the viper, or the venomous ſpider, rarely fail to interrupt their repoſe, which is a refreſhment very agreeable and highly grateful to a weary traveller.

Eagles, hawks, quails, partridges, and all kinds of wild fowl, are found on this coaſt; and of the ſmaller birds, the capſa ſparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the ſweetneſs of its note, which is thought ſuperior to that of any other bird; but it cannot live out of its own climate.

The ſeas and bays of Barbary abound with the fineſt and moſt delicious fiſh of every kind, which were preferred to thoſe of Europe by the ancients.

The principal mountains is that chain termed Mount Atlas, which runs the whole length of Barbary, from eaſt to weſt, and, paſſing through Morocco, terminates upon that ocean which ſeparates the eaſtern from the weſtern continent, and from this ridge of mountains has obtained the appellation of the Atlantic Ocean.

Theſe mountains afford mines of exceeding fine copper; and it has been aſſerted, that the country contains mines of gold and ſilver, but none of them are open at preſent.

The chief rivers are the Malva, which riſes in the deſerts, and, running from ſouth to north, divides Morocco from Algiers; the Suz, the Rabbatta, the Ommirabih, the Larache, the Sebon, the Darodt, the Tenſiſt, Peban, and the Gueron. All theſe have their ſource in the Atlas mountains, and fall into the Atlantic ocean.

As to their commerce and manufactures, an inland traffick is carried on by the inhabitants of this empire with Arabia and Negroland. To the former they ſend woollen manufactures, Morocco-leather, indigo, cochineal, and oſtrich feathers; in return for which, they receive ſilks, muſlins, and drugs. To Negroland they ſend ſalt, ſilk, and woollen manufactures, which they change for gold, ivory, and negroes, who are chiefly imported to recruit the emperor's black cavalry. This trade is conducted by caravans. The greateſt part of their foreign commerce is carried on in Engliſh and French bottoms, for they have few veſſels of their own, except corſairs. Their exports conſiſt in copper, Morocco-leather, hides, exceeding fine wool, oſtrich feathers, barilla, ſoap, wax, honey, horſes, gums, raiſins, olives, almonds, dates, and other fruits.

The commercial affairs of this empire, and, indeed, of all Barbary, are managed by Jews and Chriſtians, ſettled in thoſe countries. The chief manufactures are leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, ſword knots, and carpets. The Jews and Chriſtians have, likewiſe, eſtabliſhed thoſe of ſilk and linen.

The natives of this empire, known by the appellation of Moors, are of a ſwarthy complexion; but from the prodigious number of negroes imported thither from Guinea, there are almoſt as many blacks as whites. The Mooriſh women are, in general very handſome, and not being expoſed to the ſun, like the men, remarkably fair. The Moors are ſaid to be a covetous, inhoſpitable people, who commit every ſpecies of villany and fraud to acquire riches; yet ſuch is the tyranny of their government, that a man, when he has obtained the wealth he ſo ardently ſought, is obliged to conceal it, leſt it ſhould become a prey to the rapacious emperor. But the people who inhabit the hills, and are therefore little acquainted with the vices of the court, or trade,

appear to be by far the moſt honeſt and free people in this country; for the government, leſt they ſhould endeavour to diſown its authority, treat them rather as allies than ſubjects.

The Moors marry very young, many of their females not being more than twelve years of age at their nuptials; ſo that they are ſometimes grand-mothers when they arrive at twenty-two, and are reckoned old at thirty. As Mahometans, it is well known that their religion admits of polygamy to the extent of four wives, and as many concubines as they pleaſe; but, if we except the very opulent, the people ſeldom avail themſelves of this indulgence, ſince it entails on them a vaſt additional expence in houſekeeping, and in providing for a large family. Whatever inſtitution is contrary to truth and ſound morality, will in practice refute itſelf: nor is any further argument than this ſingle obſervation wanting, to anſwer all the abſurdities which have been advanced in favour of a plurality of wives.

In contracting marriage, the parents of both parties are the only agents; and the intended bride and bridegroom never ſee each other till the ceremony is performed. The marriage-ſettlements are made before the cadi, and then the friends of the bride produce her portion, or, if not, the huſband agrees to ſettle a certain ſum upon her, in caſe he ſhould die, or divorce her on account of barrenneſs, or any other cauſe. The children of the wives have all an equal claim to the effects of the father and mother, but thoſe of the concubines can each only claim half a ſhare.

When the marriage is finally agreed upon, the bride is kept at home eight days to receive her female friends, who pay congratulatory viſits every day. At the ſame time, a talb attends upon her, to converſe with her relative to the ſolemn engagement on which ſhe is about to enter: on theſe occaſions, he generally accompanies his admonitions with ſinging a pious hymn, which is adapted to the ſolemnity. The bride alſo, with her near relations, go through the ceremony of being painted afreſh.

During this proceſs, the bridegroom, on the other hand, receives viſits from his male friends in the morning, and in the evening rides through the town accompanied by them, ſome playing on hautboys and drums, while others are employed in firing vollies of muſketry. In all theſe feſtivities, the diſcharge of muſketry forms a principal part of the entertainment. Contrary to the European mode, which particularly aims at firing with exactneſs, the Moors diſcharge their pieces as irregularly as poſſible, ſo as to have a continual ſucceſſion of reports for a few minutes.

On the day of marriage, the bride in the evening is put into a ſquare or octagonal cage, about twelve feet in circumference, which is covered with fine white linen, and ſometimes with gauzes and ſilks of various colours. In this vehicle, which is placed on a mule, ſhe is paraded round the ſtreets, accompanied by her relations and friends, ſome carrying lighted torches, others playing on hautboys, and a third party again firing vollies of muſketry.

In this manner ſhe is carried to the houſe of her intended huſband, who returns about the ſame time from performing ſimilar ceremonies. On her arrival, ſhe is placed in an apartment by herſelf, and her huſband is introduced to her alone, for the firſt time, who finds her ſitting on a ſilk or velvet cuſhion, ſuppoſing her to be a perſon of conſequence, with a ſmall table before her, upon which are two wax candles lighted. Her ſhift, or more properly ſhirt, hangs down like a train behind her, and over it is a ſilk or velvet robe with cloſe ſleeves, which at the breaſt and waiſt is embroidered with gold: this dreſs reaches ſomething lower than the calf of the leg. Round her head is tied a black ſilk ſcarf, which hangs behind as low as the ground. Thus attired, the bride ſits with her hands over her eyes, when her huſband appears, and receives her as his wife, without any further ceremony; for the agreement made up by the friends before the cadi, is the only ſpecific contract which is thought neceſſary.

For ſome time after marriage, the family and friends are engaged in much feaſting, and a variety of amuſements, which laſt a longer or ſhorter time, according to the circumſtances of the parties. It is often cuſtomary for the man to remain at home eight days, and the woman eight months after they are firſt married. If the huſband ſhould have any reaſon to ſuſpect that his wife has not been ſtrictly virtuous, he is at liberty to divorce her and take another; and the woman is at liberty to divorce herſelf from her huſband, if ſhe can prove that he does not provide her with a proper ſubſiſtence. If he curſes her, the law obliges him to pay her, for the firſt offence eight ducats; for the ſecond, a rich dreſs of ſtill greater value; and the third time ſhe may leave him entirely. He is then at liberty to marry again in two months. A woman convicted of adultery, is puniſhed with immediate death.

When any perſon dies, a certain number of women are hired for the purpoſe of lamentation, in the performance of which, nothing can be more grating to the ear, or more unpleaſant, than their frightful moans, or rather howlings: at the ſame time, theſe mercenary mourners beat their heads and breaſts, and tear their cheeks with their nails. The bodies are uſually buried a few hours after death. Previous to interment, the corpſe is waſhed very clean, and ſewed up in a ſhroud, with the right hand under the head, which is pointed towards Mecca: it is carried on a bier, ſupported upon men's ſhoulders, to the burying-place, which is always, with great propriety, on the outſide of the town, for they never bury their dead in the moſques, or within the bounds of an inhabited place. The bier is accompanied by numbers of people, two abreſt, who walk very faſt, calling upon God and Mahomet, and ſinging hymns adapted to the occaſion. The grave is made very wide at the bottom, and narrow at the top, and the body is depoſited without any other ceremony than ſinging and praying, in the ſame manner as on their way to the grave.

They have no tombs in this country, but long and plain ſtones; and it is frequently cuſtomary for the female friends of the departed to weep over their graves for ſeveral days after their funeral.

When a woman loſes her huſband, ſhe mourns four months and eight days, during which period ſhe is to wear no ſilver or gold; and if ſhe happens to be pregnant, ſhe is to mourn till ſhe is brought to bed. For the above time, the relations of her late huſband are obliged to ſupport her. We do not learn that any mourning is due from the huſband for the loſs of his wife; but it is cuſtomary, particularly among the great people, for a ſon to mourn for his father, by not ſhaving his head, or any part of his beard, and by not cutting his nails for a certain ſpace of time.

It is obſervable, that how depraved ſoever the Moors may be in every other reſpect, they pay the greateſt duty and reſpect to their parents, princes, and ſuperiors. Their method of expreſſing reverence both to the Divine Being, and to man, is by pulling off their ſlippers, which they always leave at the door of the houſe or moſque they enter; and when they attend their prince in the ſtreets, they always follow him bare-footed.

The dreſs of the Moors conſiſts of a linen ſhirt or drawers, over which they tie a ſilk or cloth veſtment with a ſaſh, and wear upon that a looſe coat. Their arms and legs are always bare, but they have ſlippers on their feet, and perſons of rank ſometimes wear buſkins. They ſhave their heads, on which they wear a turban, made either of ſilk or fine linen; and

and this they never pull off, either to their ſuperiors or in their temples. The habit of the women is nearly ſimilar to that of the men, only inſtead of a turban, they wear a round cap of fine linen: their drawers are much longer and larger; and when they appear in the ſtreets, their faces are covered with a linen cloth, in the manner of a veil. The dead are always carried to the grave in their uſual dreſs.

The religion of the natives is the Mahometan, ſome according to the tenets of Ali, while others adhere to thoſe of Hamed, a modern ſectariſt, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the caliphs; but foreigners are allowed the free and open profeſſion of their different religions; and even the ſlaves are indulged with their prieſts and chapels. Indeed religion, among the Moors, ſerves only as a cloak for villany, under which they commit the moſt atrocious crimes with impunity.

The language of theſe ſtates varies according to the different parts of them: in ſome of the inland countries the ancient African is ſpoken, and in the ſea-port towns a corrupt Arabic; beſides which, the ſeamen are well acquainted with the dialect known in all the parts of the Mediterranean, by the appellation of *Lingua Franca*, which is a medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spaniſh, &c.

With reſpect to the population of the empire of Morocco, its inhabitants were far more numerous than at preſent, if, as travellers ſay, its capital contained 100,000 houſes, whereas it is thought not to contain now above 25,000 people; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it be true that their king or emperor has in his armies 80,000 foreign negroes, horſe and foot.

The capital of Morocco, which gives name to the whole empire, is ſituated in 30 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 7 deg. weſt long. on an extenſive and delightful plain, between two rivers, the Nephtis and the Agmed, and is watered by a third, the Tonſiſt. It was formerly a very large and ſplendid city, but now above one third of it lies in ruins. Moſt of its magnificent ſtructures are demoliſhed, three baths only remaining. The royal palace is encloſed with a high wall ſurrounded with a large ditch, and flanked with towers. The common houſes are chiefly of mud, plaſtered over, and flat at the top. The Jews reſide in a ſeparate quarter of the town, walled in for that purpoſe. This city was formerly the reſidence of the court, which is now removed to Mequinez, in the kingdom of Fez, thirty miles diſtant from the capital.

Fez, originally the capital of that kingdom, is ſituated in 38 deg. north lat. and 4 deg. weſt long. and near 260 leagues north-eaſt of Morocco. This city is eſteemed the general magazine of Barbary, whither all European goods are brought and exchanged, and ſent into the other provinces to be bartered for thoſe of the country. It is computed to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, of which 5000 are Jews, who always act as brokers between the Chriſtians and Mahometans. The moſques, baths, caravanſeras, ſeraglios, colleges, warehouſes, and other buildings, are very numerous. Its moſques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond deſcription, and about a mile and a half in circumference. The Emperor has a palace in the city, but ſeldom viſits it. It is ſaid that the inns, excepting thoſe to which the Chriſtians reſort, are infamous brothels, where the moſt wicked and unnatural crimes are ſuffered to be perpetrated.

Mequinez, ſuppoſed to be the ancient Gilda, and now the chief reſidence of the Emperor of Morocco, is in 34 deg. north lat. and 6 deg. weſt long. ſituated on a capacious plain on the river Sebu. The royal palace, though much decayed, is ſtill exceedingly ſuperb: it ſtands on an eminence, is about three miles in compaſs, and ſurrounded with ſtrong walls. The environs of the city conſiſt of fine parks, and olive-grounds.

Algiers ſtands in 36 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 34 deg. 15 min. eaſt long. and is ſituated upon the Mediterranean Sea, which waſhes it upon the north and north-eaſt ſides. This city is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houſes, and 107 moſques. Their public baths are large, and handſomely paved with marble. The proſpect of it from the ſea is very beautiful, being built on the declivity of a mountain; but though the city has for ſeveral years braved ſome of the greateſt powers in Chriſtendom, yet ſome affirm it could make but a faint defence againſt a regular ſiege, and that three Engliſh fifty-gun ſhips might batter it about the ears of the inhabitants from the harbour. If ſo, the Spaniards muſt have been very deficient either in courage or ſkill. They attacked it in the year 1775 by land and by ſea, but were repulſed with great loſs, though they had near 20,000 foot, and 2000 horſe, and forty-ſeven king's ſhips of different rates, and 346 tranſports. In the year 1783, and the following, they alſo renewed their attacks by ſea, in order to deſtroy the city and gallies; but after ſpending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire, without either its capture or demolition. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a ſmall iſland, where there is a caſtle and large battery. The ditch is twenty feet wide, and ſeven deep; but at preſent it is almoſt choked up with mud.

Tunis, the capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, is in 36 deg. 43 min. north lat. and 10 deg. 25 min. eaſt long. at about the diſtance of 300 miles from Algiers. The ſituation of this city is exceedingly unhealthful, from the marſhes and lakes that ſurround it, and the deficiency of freſh water. It has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houſes are not magnificent, but neat and commodious, as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is diſtreſſed for want of freſh water. This capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradeſmen's ſhops, and its ſuburbs conſiſt of 1000 houſes. The Tuniſians are exceptions to the other ſtates of Barbary, for even the moſt civilized of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their diſtinctions are well kept up, and proper reſpect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned profeſſions. They cultivate friendſhip with the European ſtates; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are ſaid at preſent to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. A wonderful regularity reigns through the ſtreets and city.

The genteeler part of the men are in general ſober, orderly, and clean in their perſons, and their behaviour polite and complaiſant. The Tuniſian women are exceſſively handſome in their perſons; and though the men are ſun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate; nor are they leſs neat and elegant in their dreſs; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder, of lead-ore, the ſame pigment, in the opinion of Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made uſe of, when ſhe is ſaid to have painted her face, 2 Kings ix. 30. the words of the original being, that ſhe ſet off her eyes with the power of lead-ore.

Tripoli was once the richeſt, moſt populous, and opulent, of all the ſtates on the coaſt of Barbary, but it is now greatly reduced. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the ſouth by Zaara, or the Deſert, on the eaſt by Barca, and on the weſt by Tunis and Biledulgerid. It extends along the coaſt about 700 miles, that is, from 10 deg. 13 min. to 25 deg. 27 min. eaſt long. The air is clear, but leſs healthy than that of Tunis. The ſoil is the richeſt in

Barbary; and the vallies, where cultivated, produce large quantities of corn, grapes, olives, dates, and the various fruits natural to warm climates. The animals are the ſame as thoſe of Algiers.

The capital city of Tripoli is but ſmall, yet populous, and the natives, though barbarous, are flouriſhing. Its ſituation is on a ſandy ſoil, near the margin of the ſea; ſtrong walls, defended by formidable ramparts, and flanked by pyramidical towers, ſurrounded it. Here are but two gates, the north gate towards the ſea, and the ſouth gate towards the country; and the whole city forms the figure of a creſcent, the concave part of which encloſes the haven. At the extreme points of the harbour, which is very commodious, are ſome military works; thoſe to the eaſt are in bad condition, but on the weſtward there is a ſtrong caſtle well fortified. The houſes in general are very mean and low built, and the ſtreets narrow and crooked; yet ſome remaining monuments of magnificence ſeem to confirm the prevailing opinion of the inhabitants, that it was once remarkable for the ſplendor of many of its public buildings. This city is diſtreſſed by the ſcarcity of corn, and the want of ſweet water.

The city of Oran, lying upon this coaſt, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of conſiderable trade, and the object of many bloody diſputes between the Spaniards and Moors.

Conſtantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the ſtrongeſt cities of Numidia, being inacceſſible on all ſides except the ſouth-weſt.

Sallee, ſituate in 33 deg. 48 min. north lat. and 6 deg. 25 min. weſt long. is an ancient city mentioned by Ptolemy, and ſtands on the river Gueron, which divdes it into two parts. It is defended by two caſtles, which communicate with each other, but the fortifications are irregular and ill-deſigned. All articles of commerce here pay a tenth part to the emperor.

Tangier, ſituated about two miles within the Streights of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of Queen Catharine, conſort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the Engliſh what Gibraltar is now; and muſt have been a valuable acquiſition, had not the miſunderſtandings between the king and his parliament occaſioned him to blow up its fortifications, and demoliſh its harbour; ſo that from being one of the fineſt cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fiſhing town.

Ceuta, upon the ſame ſtreight, almoſt oppoſite to Gibraltar, is ſtill in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always beſieged or blocked up by the Moors.

Barca, the ancient Cyrene, and once famous for the temple of Ammon, is now truly a deſert, ſcarce a town or cultivated ſpot of ground being to be found in the whole country. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean; on the ſouth by Biledulgerid; on the eaſt by Egypt; and on the weſt by Tripoli. It is about 200 miles in length, from north to ſouth, and 160 in breadth, from eaſt to weſt.

Tetuan, which lies within 20 miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houſes; but the inhabitants are ſaid to be rich, and tolerably civilized.

Suz, Tafilet, and Geſula, form no part of the ſtates of Barbary, though the King of Morocco pretends to be their ſovereign; nor is any thing particularly curious contained in them.

Zaara is divided by the Arabs into three parts, by the names of Cahel, Zahara, and Aſgar. It is a deſert country, thinly peopled, and nearly deſtitute of both water and proviſions. The ſoil is in general very dry and ſandy, and the climate being exceeding hot, it is deficient of thoſe eſſentials produced in more fertile countries.

The ſubjects of the Barbary ſtates, in general, ſubſiſting by piracy, are allowed to be bold, intrepid mariners, and will fight deſperately when they meet with a prize at ſea. They are, notwithſtanding, greatly inferior to the Engliſh and other European ſtates, both in the conſtruction and management of their veſſels. They are, if we except the Tuniſians, void of all arts and literature.

The miſery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's ſervice, is beyond all deſcription. The chief furniture of their houſes conſiſts of carpets and mattreſſes, on which they ſit and lie. In eating, their ſlovenlineſs is ſhocking; but thoſe who inhabit the inland parts of the country, are an hoſpitable, inoffenſive people; and indeed it is a general obſervation, that the more diſtant the inhabitants of thoſe ſtates are from the ſeats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithſtanding their poverty, they have a livelineſs about them, eſpecially thoſe who are of the Arabic deſcent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to loſe, they are peaceable among themſelves.

The Moors are ſuppoſed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppreſſed by a handful of inſolent, domineering Turks, the refuſe of the ſtreets of Conſtantinople. They are prohibited gold and ſilver veſſels; and their meat, which they ſwallow by handfuls, is boiled or roaſted to rags. Adultery in the women, as before obſerved, is puniſhed with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the moſt unnatural crimes without fear of puniſhment.

With reſpect to the antiquities and curioſities to be met with in Barbary, the reader can ſcarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the moſt curious remains of antiquity; but they lie ſcattered among the barbarous and ignorant inhabitants. Some remains of the Numidian and Mauritanian ſplendor are ſtill to be met with. Theſe point out the ſituation of the celebrated cities of Carthage, the Julia Cæſarea of the Romans, nearly equal in ſplendor to Carthage itſelf; Hippo, Utica, and ſeveral others. The principal ruins of Carthage conſiſt of ſpacious ciſterns or reſervoirs for holding water, together with conſiderable remains of the aqueduct by which the water was brought above thirty miles from the mountains to the city. About fifty miles to the ſouth of Tunis, is ſtill remaining a very conſiderable part of a Roman amphitheatre; it is of an oval form, three ſtories high, and would hold 30,000 ſpectators: but the city to which this noble ruin belonged is unknown. Nor are the ruins of claſſical antiquity the only ones found in this country. The caliphs of Bagdad have left many amazing monuments of their magnificence. Little can be ſaid reſpecting the natural curioſities of this country; the principal are the rich lead mines in the mountains of Beni-Boo-Taleb; the prodigious ſalt pits which take up an æra of ſix miles; a little to the ſouthward of Arzew, the Tiblet Mineſs, an entire mountain of ſalt, and the Hammam, or bath of Merega. Dr. Shaw mentions ſeveral ſprings in this country, whoſe waters are ſo hot as to boil a large piece of mutton in a ſhort time.

HISTORY OF THE STATES OF BARBARY.

FEW countries in the world have experienced greater viciſſitudes of fortune than that at preſent known by the name of the States of Barbary. It is ſuppoſed to have been originally peopled from Egypt; but at what time, or who led the firſt colony thither, are particulars that cannot now be known. Careful only

only of procuring paſture and water for their numerous flocks and herds, the firſt inhabitants wandered from one place to another without forming any ſettlement, or erecting houſes for their abode. About the year before Chriſt 891, Dido, ſiſter to Pygmalion, king of Tyre, fled from her brother, at the head of a conſiderable colony, and built the famous city of Carthage, the capital of a republic celebrated for its riches and commerce. This republic continued in a ſtate of opulence and power, at once the envy and terror of the neighbouring nations, about 700 years; when the fortune of the Romans prevailed, and the pride of Carthage was humbled in the duſt. But though the power of Carthage was no more, the country flouriſhed under the Roman government, and became one of the richeſt jewels in the imperial crown. Bleſſed with a fertile ſoil, and a warm luxurious climate, the number of inhabitants rapidly increaſed, and ſeveral very magnificent cities, afterwards famous in hiſtory, were erected. The Chriſtian religion was planted here in the time of the apoſtles themſelves, and flouriſhed till the fifth century, when the Vandals trampled on the Roman eagles, and put a period to the greatneſs of the African colonies.

Theſe fierce invaders of Africa did not however long poſſeſs the country they had conquered: the Greek emperors drove out the northern barbarians, and reſtored, in ſome meaſure, the arts and manufactures, againſt which, as well as religion, the ferocious Vandals had declared perpetual war. But this did not reſtore peace and tranquillity to theſe parts of Africa: they were alternately ravaged by the Moors and Vandals; and at laſt totally conquered by the caliphs of Bagdad, in the ſeventh century.

The religion of Mahomet was now eſtabliſhed in Africa; the few remains of ancient greatneſs were deſtroyed by the bigotted followers of that impoſtor; and the country was divided among the chiefs of the caliph's army. Reſtleſs from nature, and inſtigated to conqueſt by the tenets of their religion, the Moors paſſed over into Europe, and reduced the greater part of Spain. But victory now began to forſake their ſtandards. They were ſeveral times defeated by the European armies, and at laſt, about the year 1492, totally driven out of Spain by Ferdinand and Iſabella. The only aſylum open to the Mahometan fugitives was Africa, where they ſettled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coaſt. This expulſion of the Moors occaſioned a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards; and finding themſelves incapable of defence againſt the Chriſtians, they had recourſe to the Turks for aſſiſtance. Accordingly the two famous brothers, Barbaroſſa, admirals of the Turkiſh fleet, were ſent to Barbary. Succeſs attended the Turkiſh forces; the Spaniards, who had made themſelves maſters of great part of the country, were obliged to retire, and the Moors hoped to enjoy the happineſs of freedom and peace. For ſome time they flattered themſelves with a long ſeries of proſperity, but their hopes were ſoon rendered abortive: they found that they had only exchanged one maſter for another, and that the yoke of their deliverer was full as heavy as that of the Spaniards. The emperor Charles V. made a noble attempt to reduce Algiers and Tunis. He ſucceeded with regard to the former; but, before he could conquer the latter, a dreadful ſtorm deſtroyed the greater part of his fleet, then attending his army encamped in the neighbourhood of Algiers, and he was obliged to embark precipitately, juſt as that city was reduced to the laſt extremity. Since that time they have continued to carry on the trade of piracy againſt the Chriſtians, and have lately ſhaken off the Turkiſh yoke.

The emperors of Morocco are the ſucceſſors of the ſovereigns of that country, called Xeriffs, whoſe power reſembled that of the caliphs of the Saracens. Their hiſtory is hardly any thing elſe than a ſeries of murders, and the moſt deteſtable crimes. Muley Moloc alone, in the long dynaſty of the emperors, was a great prince. He gained a complete victory over the Portugueſe, whoſe king, Don Sebaſtian, was killed in the action. They have always carried on a piratical war againſt Spain and Portugal, and often againſt the other European powers, who frequently condeſcend to purchaſe a peace with thoſe imperious infidels, though their marine is truly deſpicable; nor does the crown of Great-Britain ſometimes diſdain to procure their friendſhip by preſents, as in the year 1769.

CHAP. III.

OF THE SLAVE COAST.

NEGROLAND is ſituated between 10 and 11 degrees of north lat. and between 18 deg. weſt, and 28 deg. eaſt long. being about 2576 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and 68 in breadth from north to ſouth. It is bounded on the north by Zaara, on the ſouth by Guinea, on the eaſt by unknown countries, and on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean.

The Niger or Senegal, and the Gambia, are the moſt remarkable rivers, on which are ſeveral European ſettlements. The Engliſh trade to James Fort, and other ſettlements near and up the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hardware and ſpirituous liquors, for perſons of the natives; a negro's wealth conſiſting in the number of his family, whom he ſells like ſo many cattle, and often at an inferior price. By the treaty of peace in 1783, the river of Senegal, with its dependencies, were given up to France.

Next to the ſlave trade, gold and ſilver form the principal branches of African commerce. The Dutch, Engliſh, and French, have their ſettlements for this purpoſe on the ſame coaſt.

Guinea is diſtinguiſhed into Upper and Lower. Conſidered as one country, it lies between 9 deg. 18 min. north, and 16 deg. 45 min. ſouth lat. extending in length above 2500 miles along the ſea-coaſt; but its breadth is not determined.

Beſides gold, ivory, and ſlaves, this country affords indigo, bees-wax, gum-ſenega, gum-tragacanth, and other gums and drugs.

Upper Guinea is divided generally into three parts, Malagueta, Guinea Proper, and Benin-Guinea Proper, contains the Tooth and Gold Coaſt; the former exends from Cape Palmas to the river Sueira da Caſta, and the latter from thence to the river Volta.

Lower Guinea, or Congo, extends about 990 miles along the coaſt, from Cape Lopo to Cape Negro. This large country is divided into Loango, Congo Proper, Angola, and Benguela, and watered with many rivers, and would be very fruitful, if better cultivated. The mountains abound with gold, ſilver, and copper.

Poultry, oxen, cows, ſheep, goats, elephants, tygers, leopards, civet-cats, &c. are very numerous here; and ſeveral ſorts of corn and fruits very plentiful.

The inhabitants of this extenſive territory agree with each other in many material circumſtances: they are all of a black complexion, are idolaters in the worſt ſenſe of the word, and the governments every where monarchical. Deſpotiſm reigns, unlimited by laws, by cuſtoms, or by conſcience. Learning is unknown, and the arts of peace were never practiſed among them. Some attempts have indeed been made by the Portugueſe, and other European nations, to withdraw the veil of ignorance, and diffuſe the rays of learning and religion over

thoſe poor deluded people; but all their endeavours have been hitherto abortive: ignorance ſtill maintains her ſeat, and idolatry of the groſſeſt kind is the eſtabliſhed religion of this unhappy country.

Reſpecting the climate and produce of this part of Africa, it may be obſerved, that the fertility of a country ſo prodigiouſly extenſive, might be ſuppoſed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium here with regard to the advantages of ſoil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile; this ariſes from the intenſe heat of the ſun, which, where it meets with ſufficient moiſture, produces the utmoſt luxuriancy; and in thoſe countries where there are few rivers, reduces the ſurface of the earth to a barren ſand. Of this ſort, are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and conſequently of all other neceſſaries, are reduced to perfect deſerts, as the name of the latter denotes. In thoſe countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land part of the year, as in Abyſſinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the higheſt perfection and greateſt abundance.

The annual Britiſh exports to Africa are eſtimated at 500,000l. ſterling, including a conſiderable quantity that is annually exchanged with America and other foreign traders on the coaſt; about 50,000l. of this is returned in ivory, gold-duſt, gum, &c. The greateſt part of the profits of the ſlave-trade is raiſed on the ſugar plantations. Were Africa civilized, and could we obtain the affections of the natives, and introduce gradually our religion, manners, and language among them, we ſhould open a market that would fully employ our manufacturers and ſeamen, in all probability, to the end of time; and, while we enriched ourſelves, we ſhould contribute to their happineſs.

The eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa, from the tropic of Capricorn to the equator, are in the poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe. This immenſe tract they became maſters of by their ſucceſſive attempts, and happy diſcovery of the navigation of the Cape of Good-Hope. From the coaſt of Zanguebar, on the eaſtern ſide, they trade not only for gold, ivory, and gums, but likewiſe for ſeveral other articles, as ſenna, aloes, civet, ambergris, and frankincenſe. There ſtill remains a part of the weſtern coaſt of Africa to be conſidered, where the Dutch have ſettlements. This part is inhabited by a very different people, and governed in a very different manner. Strangers at once to the arts of civil life, and to the cuſtoms of the negroes, they continue under a kind of patriarchal government, and a few itinerant families form a nation.

SIERRA LEONE.

Climate. Productions in general. Perſons, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Natives.

THE climate of this country is in general very unwholeſome, particularly in the mountainous parts, were, during four months in the year, it rains, thunders, and is ſo intolerably hot, that the people are obliged to keep cloſe in their huts; and the air is corrupted in ſuch a manner by the lightning, that all animal food is reduced in a few hours to a ſtate of putrefaction. The flat open country, however, is not ſo bad; for though in ſummer the heat is exceſſive in the former part of the day, yet it is very temperate in the afternoon, from the refreſhing breezes that generally blow from the ſouth-weſt.

The banks of Sierra Leone are lined with mangrove trees, the leaves of which exactly reſemble thoſe of an European laurel. The whole country abounds in millet and rice, which is the principal food of the natives. It alſo produces great plenty of oranges, lemons, bananas, Indian figs, ananas, pompions, water melons, yams, potatoes, wild pears, white plums, and ſeveral ſorts of pulſe.

Here are the palm, the cocoa, and the cotton tree; and on the mountains are abundance of palm and laurel trees. Indeed the whole abounds with trees of various ſorts, ſo cloſe together, that it may be called one continued foreſt.

They have a great plenty of deer, hogs, goats, and fowls, which the natives ſell to the Europeans for a ſmall quantity of brandy, a liquor they prefer to all others.

In the mountains are great numbers of wild animals, as elephants, lions, tygers, wild boars, and roe-bucks; alſo apes of ſeveral ſorts, and ſerpents, the latter of which are ſo large, that, it is ſaid, they will ſwallow a child whole. The apes, monkies, and baboons, are ſo numerous, that they make great deſtruction in the plantations.

In the woods are great numbers of birds of different ſizes and plumage, as pigeons, parrots, paroquets, and Guinea-hens, the latter of which are about the ſize of a pheaſant, and are very beautiful; but it is difficult to catch them on account of the thickneſs of the trees. They have alſo ſeveral other ſorts of fowl, among which are white pelicans as large as ſwans, herns, curlews, boobies, and a bird called ox-eyes.

The bay and entrance of the river abound with a great variety of fiſh, as raies, thornbacks, and a fiſh called the old-wife. There are alſo gar-fiſhes, cavalloes, ſharks, ſword-fiſhes, dog-fiſhes, and one called the ſhoe-maker, having on each ſide the mouth pendants like barbel, and the noiſe they make is ſomething like that of a hog's grunting. Among the fiſh, however, caught here, the moſt common are old-wives, pilchards, the becune, the monk or angel-fiſh, and the mullet.

The great plenty of fiſh found in the bay and river of Sierra Leone, are of infinite ſervice to the European ſailors, not only for proviſions, but alſo for traffick; for the natives are ſo indolent, that they will not be at the trouble to catch them, but content themſelves with ſuch as are left by the ebb tides among the rocks.

On the ſides of the bay are great plenty of oyſters, ſome of which are of ſuch a ſize, that one of them would ſerve a moderate man for a meal; but they are ſo tough as to be ſcarce eatable, unleſs firſt boiled, and then fried in ſmall pieces.

The trees that grow on the ſides of the bay make excellent haunts for crocodiles; as alſo for the manatea, or ſea-cow, which are here in great abundance.

The manatea, or ſea-cow, is ſuppoſed by ſome to be an amphibious creature, but this opinion has been ſufficiently confuted; for it is always found in large rivers or bays, and feeds upon ſea-weeds that grow near the ſhore. The ſkin is thick, rough, bare, and ſcarcely penetrable. The body is long, and the head very ſmall in proportion to it. Theſe animals have no teeth, but inſtead thereof two ſtrong white bones, that run the whole length of both jaws. The noſtrils reſemble thoſe of an horſe. The eyes are fixed in the centre of the head. The breaſts are placed between the arms, one under each, are of a convex form, and about a foot and a half in diameter. They are hard, rough, and wrinkled; and when they give ſuck, the teats are four inches long.

Theſe animals keep together in large companies, and are very careful of their young. They bring them forth in autumn, and have but one at a time. The manatea has no voice or cry, and the only noiſe it makes is in fetching its breath. The fat, which lies between the cuticle and the ſkin, when expoſed to the ſun, has a fine ſmell and taſte: it has alſo this peculiar property, that the heat of the ſun will not ſpoil it, or make it become greaſy. The taſte is like the oil of ſweet almonds, and the only effect it has on the body, is that of keeping it open. The fibres and lean

lean parts are like beef, but more red and harſh, and may be kept a great while in the hotteſt weather without tainting. The fat of the young ones is like pork, and the lean greatly reſembles veal. In the head are four ſtones of different ſizes, which are ſomewhat like bones, and are uſed in medicine. They are ſaid to be good againſt agues, and to cleanſe the kidnies of gravel. Hoffman affirms they are exceeding uſeful in caſes of epilepſy.

When the negroes catch theſe creatures, they go in a canoe, and paddle towards it with as little noiſe as poſſible, it being exceeding quick in hearing. As ſoon as they find themſelves near enough, the man who is placed ready at the head of the canoe, ſtrikes a harpoon fixed at the end of a long pole into it, and then lets go. The beaſt immediately makes towards the mangroves, and the water being ſhallow, they follow it cloſe, and repeat the ſtrokes till they have wearied it out, when they drag it aſhore, and complete their conqueſt.

The inhabitants of Sierra Leone are not ſo black as thoſe of the neighbouring countries; neither have they ſuch flat noſes or thick lips. The men are in general tall and well made, of a cheerful diſpoſition, and not given to quarrel: the women are ſhort and robuſt, owing to their being conſtantly employed in labour; for beſides the buſineſs of houſewifery, they work hard in tillage, make palm-oil, and ſpin cotton.

Their dreſs reſembles that of the country in general. They are naturally temperate and ſober; and though they are exceeding fond of brandy and other ſpirituous liquors, yet they never drink to exceſs, conſidering drunkenneſs as one of the greateſt crimes that can be committed.

Their houſes or huts are low, and thatched with ſtraw: ſome are round, ſome ſquare, and others are oblong; and moſt of them are ornamented in the front with two wings of a ſpiral form. They are kept very clean, being ſwept at leaſt once every day.

Their furniture conſiſts of two or three earthen pots to boil their victuals in, a gourd or two to fetch palm wine, and half a gourd for a cup; a few earthen diſhes, a baſket or two for the wife to gather cockles in, and a knapſack for the huſband, made of the bark of trees, to carry his proviſion when he goes abroad. Their bedſteads are made of billets of wood laid acroſs each other, on which they lay a mat, and ſleep without any covering.

Their weapons are ſwords, daggers, darts, bows and arrows. The points of their arrows are infected with the juice of a poiſonous fruit, which is ſo inconceivably ſubtle and quick, that wherever it ſtrikes, it is ſure to prove fatal. Some of them have alſo guns, which they are very fond of, and uſe with great dexterity.

Their food conſiſts chiefly of roots, herbs, fruits, cockles, and oyſters; and their common drink is water. They plant about their houſes gourds, potatoes, pompions, and tobacco, the latter of which they are very fond of, particularly in ſmoking.

They are very fond of dancing, and generally ſpend their evenings in that diverſion. Their muſic conſiſts of two or three drums, made of a hollow piece of wood, and covered with the ſkin of a kid.

Every town or village has one peculiar houſe, to which the women ſend their daughters at a certain age, who are there taught for a year to ſing, dance, and perform other exerciſes, by an old man appointed for that purpoſe; and when the year is expired, he leads them to the market-place, where they publicly exhibit ſuch performances as they have been taught at ſchool. During this time, if any of the young men are diſpoſed to marry, they make choice of thoſe they like beſt, without regard either to birth or fortune. When the man has declared his intention, the parties are conſidered as actually married, provided the bridegroom can make ſome preſents to the bride's parents, and to the old man who was her tutor.

When they bury their dead, they put into their graves all their beſt goods, and erect a roof over it, which cover with linen cloth. The corpſe is always attended to the grave by a number of people hired as mourners, who howl and cry in proportion as they are paid for their attendance.

ACCOUNT OF THE BRITISH ESTABLISHMENT AT SIERRA LEONE.

It having been repreſented, by way of petition, to the parliament of Great Britain, that the eſtabliſhing of a general trade and commerce from theſe kingdoms to and with the coaſts of Africa, and from thence to and with the ſeveral inferior kingdoms and countries of that continent (not hitherto explored or traded with by Europeans) would be highly beneficial to the manufactories and trading intereſts of theſe kingdoms; an act was accordingly obtained in the year 1791 (to have continuance for thirty-one years) "For eſtabliſhing a company for carrying on trade between the kingdom of Great Britain and the coaſts, harbours, and countries of Africa; and for enabling the ſaid company to hold, by grant from his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, and from the native princes of Africa, a certain diſtrict of land, commonly called *The Peninſula of Sierra Leone*, now veſted in his majeſty, or belonging to the ſaid princes, for the better enabling the ſaid company to carry on the ſaid trade."

As a foundation for this deſign, a great number of gentlemen, merchants, and other perſons of great reſpectability and opulence, formed themſelves into a ſociety, and ſubſcribed conſiderable ſums of money; and, having obtained the ſanction and protection of parliament, were made a diſtinct and ſeparate body corporate, for the eſtabliſhing and carrying on the ſaid trade, by the name or ſtyle of *The Sierra Leone Company*; with power to raiſe, by ſubſcriptions, a capital joint ſtock, not exceeding the ſum of 500,000l.

This company are not permitted to borrow or obtain any money but by ſubſcription: nor is it lawful for them, either directly, or indirectly, to deal or traffick in the buying or ſelling of ſlaves, or in any manner whatſoever to have, hold, appropriate, or employ any perſon or perſons in a ſtate of ſlavery in the ſervice of the ſaid company, which is ſet on foot with the moſt beneficent and laudable views, reſpecting the true intereſts and happineſs of the native Africans.

And for the better ordering and managing the ſaid company's affairs, thirteen directors (two of whom are to be appointed chairman and deputy-chairman) are to be annually choſen, who are to take an oath of fidelity to the truſts repoſed in them; but that no perſon is to be choſen a director, unleſs he is poſſeſſed of one ſhare at leaſt in the capital joint ſtock of the company. Secretaries, agents, and ſervants, are alſo to take the proper oaths.

The ſaid company have moreover "Full power, liberty, and privilege, to purchaſe of and from all kings, princes, and chiefs, or other powers having right to make ſale thereof, ſo much land as ſhall include the whole tract or diſtrict ſo commonly called or known by the name of *The Peninſula of Sierra Leone* aforeſaid, as the ſame is bounded on the north by the river Sierra Leone, on the ſouth by the River Caramanca, on the eaſt by the river Bunce, and on the weſt by the ſea."

The act alſo provides, that nothing therein contained, ſhall extend to affect the rights of any other Britiſh ſubjects trading to Africa, ſo as to prevent or obſtruct the ſhips or veſſels belonging to Britiſh ſubjects from anchoring in Sierra Leone, or Caramanca rivers, or in any of the creeks, bays, or harbours within the limits ſpecified in the ſaid act, for the purpoſe of refitting and repairing as heretofore, &c.

We are aſſured that this ſettlement was planned, and is intended to be conducted upon the pureſt and moſt valuable principles of philanthropy and benevolence; one main object being, the civilization and moralizing of that claſs of human beings, whoſe minds are, perhaps, of all others, the moſt rude and uncultivated; namely, the African blacks. The abominable traffick of buying and ſelling ſlaves, ſo ſhocking to all the tender feelings of mankind, and even the uſe of ſuch ſlaves is by the act expreſsly prohibited; but, on the other hand, the negro inhabitants of this colony being all free, and eſteemed as brethren, will be taught the excellent doctrines and benign ſocial duties of the Chriſtian religion, and be trained up to become uſeful, and, no doubt, ſome of them ornamental branches of ſociety; they being found in general equally ſuſceptible of education and tuition with the reſt of their more enlightened fellow-creatures.

CAFFRARIA.

This vaſt tract of country is ſituated between Cape Negro, on the weſtern coaſt of Africa, in 15 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. and the river del Spiritu Santo, or Manica, on the eaſtern coaſt of this continent, in the lat. of 25 deg. ſouth. The Cape of Good-Hope forms the ſouthern extremity of Caffraria.

The air is very hot, and would be ſuffocating, if the heat was not mitigated by the winds which blow continually from the Southern Ocean. Violent ſtorms alſo frequently ariſe, which, though they render the coaſt very dangerous, are abſolutely neceſſary to the health of the inhabitants, who are always afflicted with pains in the head, if there happens to be a calm of any long continuance. The ſoil in the vallies is in general fertile, but there are very few vegetable productions peculiar to this country; but the fruits and plants of the torrid zone, as well as thoſe of Europe, flouriſh exceedingly: and in the Dutch Company's ſettlements at the Cape, all kinds of fruit, cabbages, cauliflowers, potatoes, and other garden ſtuff and roots are found in great plenty; together with pine-apples, oranges, lemons, grapes melons, &c. Every cottage has its vineyard, which yields wine enough for the family. They ſow all manner of grain, oats and lentils excepted; in December it is all ripe, and then they begin their harveſt. In January they tread out the corn in the fields, and by the latter end of February it is all houſed. The inland parts of the country are moſtly filled with woods and foreſts.

The animals found here are lions, tygers, leopards, elephants, rhinoceroſes, elks, zebras, or wild aſſes, monkies, and other common quadrupeds. A particular kind of eagles, called dung birds, are found here: they will attack a horſe or a cow in great flights, and making a hole in the belly of the beaſt with their beaks and talons, perfectly ſcoop out the inſide, leaving only the bones and hide.

Caffraria is in general a mountainous country; but the three principal eminences are in the neighbourhood of the Cape, and called the Table-Hill, Lion-Hill, and Wind-Hill, which is likewiſe called the Sugar-loaf-Mountain, from its form. On the top of Table-Hill, are ſeveral fine ſprings of water, clear as cryſtal, and of an exquiſite taſte. On aſcending this mountain, the eye is delighted with the view of its fertility, and every part of it is adorned with the moſt ſtately trees, while its top and ſides are enamelled with a variety of flowers, the beauty and fragrance of which, perhaps, exceed any produced in Europe. Lion-Hill is ſeparated from Table-Hill by a valley, and on it a hut is erected for the ſhelter of two centinels, who are always poſted there to give notice to the fort at the Cape, when a veſſel is making for the harbour. Wind-Hill is the loweſt of the three, being ſhaped like a ſugar-loaf, and abounds in excellent paſture. There are no navigable rivers in this country; but the brooks and rivulets, which deſcend from the mountains, tend greatly to the fertilization of the land.

The inhabitants, known by the name of Hottentots, are of a middling ſtature, with ſmall limbs, but very ſeldom deformed. They eſteem a flat noſe as one of the eſſential parts of beauty, and therefore as ſoon as a child is born, they break the griſtle of its noſe. Their eyebrows are large, their eyes black, their lips thick, their hair ſhort, black, and curled, like that of Negroes, their teeth remarkably white, and their complexion rather tawney than black; but in order to darken it, they beſmear their bodies all over with greaſe and ſoot, which gives them a very nauſeous ſmell.

Theſe people reſide in different hordes or villages, on the banks of rivers, and near the foreſts, where they form ſo many diſtinct villages and independent republics. Their villages, called kraals, conſiſting of about twenty huts, are all circular; and the huts of which they are compoſed being covered with ſkins, and are ſo very low, that a man muſt ſtoop very much, or crawl on his knees, to get into them. Some of theſe kraals contain upwards of 100, and ſometimes 500 ſouls. Theſe huts ſerve chiefly to contain proviſions, and their implements of huſbandry; the owner himſelf never occupying them, unleſs when it rains: at other times, he paſſes his leiſure hours in ſleeping at the door of his hut, where he lies on his belly, and expoſes his back to the ſun and the weather, waking now and then to amuſe himſelf with ſmoking a certain ſtrong-ſcented herb, which hath much the ſame effect as our tobacco. All their furniture conſiſts of two or three earthen veſſels for dreſſing their victuals, which is generally herbs, fleſh, ſhell-fiſh.

Though the Hottentots are, without exception, the naſtieſt and moſt indolent people in the world; yet ſuch as confine themſelves to the natural diet of their country, live to a great age: but many of them drink prodigious quantities of brandy, and other ſpirituous liquors, unknown among them till introduced by the Dutch, and this intemperance never fails to ſhorten their lives.

The employment of the natives is purely paſtoral; their principal and almoſt only occupation being the care of their herds of ſheep and kine. Of theſe each village or kraal hath one common herd; every inhahitant taking it in his turn to be herdſman. In order to prevent the inroads of beaſts of prey, particularly wolves, and other furious animals that occaſionally make excurſions towards the Cape, and deſtroy the tame cattle: the herdſman goes or ſends every day round his diſtrict, in order to diſcover if any beaſt of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which caſe, he aſſembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the ſtouteſt among them arm themſelves with javelins and poiſoned arrows, and follow the perſon who may have diſcovered the beaſt, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themſelves in two lines; the herdſman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beaſt to follow him, where he is inevitably deſtroyed.

United among themſelves by the bonds of fraternal concord, the inhabitants of the ſame village live in conſtant peace. But on the firſt injury that is offered them by any of the neighbouring tribes, they take a cruel revenge. The ſubject of their mutual complaints is generally the ſtealing of a ſheep or cow, and ſometimes only a ſuſpicion of it; the conſequences, however, when they determine on revenge, are uſually very terrible; for they take all poſſible means, after having made this determination, to perſuade the aggreſſors that the injury is forgotten; but no ſooner do they find their diſſimulation hath taken effect in the ſecurity of the enemy, than they fall ſuddenly upon them with poiſoned weapons, ſparing neither

neither age nor ſex, but rooting up at once the whole community. Such is the method of going to war among theſe people.

In this country, the care of houſehold affairs belongs to the department of the females. The men, indeed, are the butchers, and prepare the meat for dreſſing; but the care of providing the vegetables is aſſigned only to the women. Accordingly, the mother of a family ſets out in a morning, attended by ſuch of her children as are able to follow her, carrying the reſt in her arms or on her back. In this manner ſhe ſearches the woods and river-ſides for roots, pulſe, or fruit; of which having gotten a ſufficient quantity, ſhe returns, lights a fire on a large ſtone before the cabin, and when the victuals are dreſſed, the huſband ſits down to his meal with the reſt of the family.

The women are clothed with ſheep-ſkins, as well as the men; wearing the woolly part of this mantle outwards in ſummer, and inwards during the winter. They wear one ſkin over their ſhoulders, the ends of it croſſing each other before, and leaving their neck bare; another ſkin is faſtened round their middle, and reaches down to their knees. Thoſe of them who are ambitious to pleaſe, adorn themſelves with necklaces of ſhells: for even in this country the ſex have their charms, which they endeavour to heighten by ſuch arts as are peculiar to themſelves, and would meet with little regard elſewhere. To this end, they greaſe their faces, necks, and all the naked parts of their bodies with mutton ſuet, in order to make them ſhine. They alſo braid or plait their hair, to give themſelves an additional elegance. After a Hottentot lady has thus bedizened and tricked herſelf up, and thereby exhauſted all the arts of her toilette, her pride is wonderfully flattered; while the ſplendor of her appearance gives her the higheſt degree of ſatisfaction, how unfavourable ſoever nature may have been to her with regard to ſhape and ſtature.

The Hottentots have neither temples, idols, nor any peculiar place of worſhip; they celebrate indeed ſeveral nocturnal dances, with ſinging, at the new and full of the moon; but theſe are performed near their huts, and ſeem to be rather paſtimes, or merry meetings, than any thing relative to religious worſhip. They are ſo attached to their own country and manners, and ſuch enthuſiaſts for liberty, that all the attempts of the Europeans, particularly of the Dutch at the Cape of Good-Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the leaſt impreſſion on theſe ſavage mortals, or giving them the leaſt inclination, or even an idea of the European manner of life. There is even an inſtance of a Hottentot, who had been taken from Caffraria by the Dutch while an infant, and being inſtructed in the cuſtoms, learning, and religion of the Europeans, became a proficient in literature; but on returning to his native country, he abandoned all the advantages of education, returned his European dreſs to his maſter, put on the ſheep-ſkin mantle, and never more appeared among the Dutch.

The inhabitants of the Cape expoſe their female children in the foreſts, where they leave them either to ſtarve, or be devoured by wild beaſts. They uſe the ſame barbarous method with their old men, when they become uſeleſs and decrepit. This, however, is done contrary to the advice, and without the conſent of the chief men of the kraal. And here it may be proper to mention, that in every kraal the oldeſt man is always the firſt in order and dignity; and his advice is generally followed in affairs relative to the welfare of the whole, as he is ſuppoſed to have had moſt experience.

The principal place for commerce in Caffraria, is the Cape of Good-Hope, which was firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1493, but they never made any ſettlement. In 1600 the Dutch viſited it, but for many years after only touched at it, in their voyages to and from the Eaſt-Indies, in order to take in freſh proviſions. At laſt, in the year 1650, Van Riebeck, having repreſented to the directors of the Dutch Eaſt-India company the great advantages which would accrue to them if they could eſtabliſh a ſettlement at this place, was ordered to ſail thither with four ſhips equipped with all neceſſary materials. On his arrival, he made the inhabitants a great variety of preſents, conſiſting of braſs toys, beads, tobacco, brandy, &c. by which, together with his engaging behaviour, they were ſo charmed, that a treaty was directly concluded, whereby it was agreed, that the Dutch ſhould have full liberty to ſettle there, in conſideration of ſuch a certain quantity of toys and commodities delivered to the natives, as were worth 50,000 guilders. A fort, dwelling-houſes, ware-houſes, &c. were ſoon after erected. After this, new ſettlers arriving daily, they were obliged to extend themſelves along the coaſt, and at preſent are divided into four principal colonies: The firſt is at the Cape; the ſecond is termed the Hellenbogeſh; the third the Drakenſton, and the fourth, the Waveriſh. But in order to provide againſt a future increaſe of inhabitants, the Dutch Eaſt-India company has purchaſed from the natives all that tract of land called Terra de Natal, for which they paid in toys and other commodities to the amount of 30,000 guilders.

Beſides the Cape and Terra de Natal, the country of Caffraria contains Mataman and Terra de Fumos.

Having thus ſurveyed the weſtern coaſt of Africa, we ſhall proceed to the eaſtern, the firſt diviſion of which, beyond Caffraria, is called

FEZZAN, BORNOU, AND CASHNA.

It having been long a ſubject of complaint that Europeans know very little, if any thing, of the interior diſtricts of Africa, we are happy to find that a number of learned and opulent individuals have formed themſelves into a ſociety for the purpoſe of exploring them. The aſſociation was formed on the 9th of June, in the year 1788; and on the ſame day a committee of its members, viz. Lord Rawdon, the Biſhop of Llandaff, Sir Joſeph Banks, Mr. Beaufoy, and Mr. Stuart, were inveſted with the direction of its funds, the management of the correſpondence, and the choice of the perſons to whom the geographical miſſion was to be aſſigned. Perſuaded of the importance of the object which the aſſociation had in view, their committee loſt no time in executing the plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them; and appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected reſearches, they were choſen. One was a Mr. Ledyard; the other a Mr. Lucas.

Such a perſon as Mr. Ledyard was formed by nature for the object in contemplation: and were we unacquainted with the ſequel, we ſhould congratulate the ſociety on being ſo fortunate as to find ſuch a man for one of their miſſionaries: but the reader will ſoon be acquainted with the melancholy circumſtance to which we allude.

"From two ſuch geographical miſſionaries (obſerves a very reſpectable literary journaliſt) much information was no doubt expected; and though the views of the ſociety are not yet fully anſwered, the communications which it has received, are of a nature which will excite, though not fully gratify the curioſity of geographers.

"Mr. Ledyard undertook, at his own deſire, the difficult and perilous taſk of traverſing from eaſt to weſt, in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the wideſt part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure he left London, June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of Auguſt.

"Hence, he tranſmitted ſuch accounts to his employers, as manifeſt him to have been a traveller who obſerved, reflected, and compared; and ſuch was the information which he collected here from the travelling ſlave-merchants, and from others, reſpect-

ing the interior diſtricts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Sennaar (600 miles to the ſouth of Cairo :) but death, attributed to various cauſes, arreſted him at the commencement of his reſearches, and diſappointed the hopes which were entertained of his projected journey.

" Endowed with a ſoul for diſcovery, and formed by nature for achievements of hardihood and peril, the death of Mr. Ledyard muſt be conſidered as a public misfortune.

" With a mixture of regret and diſappointment, we turn from poor Ledyard, to notice Mr. Lucas's communications, which occupy the greateſt part of the volume publiſhed by the aſſociation. He embarked for Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with inſtructions to proceed over the Deſert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect, and to tranſmit by way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the traders thither, might be able to afford reſpecting the interior of the continent ; and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coaſt of Guinea.

" Inſtructions to undertake great enterpriſes are more eaſily given than executed. So Mr. Lucas found ; and ſo the reader, to his diſappointment, will find likewiſe. Only a part of the plan was this geographical miſſionary able to carry into execution. He ſets out, indeed, mounted on a handſome mule, preſented to him by the bey, the baſhaw's eldeſt ſon, in company with ſhereefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan; reſolved, we will ſuppoſe, to penetrate from Tripoli even unto Gambia : but his peregrinations, which began Feb. 1, 1798, terminated at Meſurata, on February 7.

" Deprived of viſiting Fezzan, and the other inland diſtricts of Africa, Mr. Lucas ſolicits the information of his fellow travellers, and tranſmits to the ſociety the reſult of his conferences. A memoir compiled in this way, from the reports of a ſhereef Imhammed, will not be deemed very ſatisfactory ; and yet it certainly merits conſideration, as it is, in part, corroborated by other teſtimonies."

Having no other ſources of information, however, we muſt, for the preſent, content ourſelves with theſe communications. From the various conferences of Mr. Lucas with the ſhereef Imhammed, the following narrative is compoſed :

" It deſcribes the kingdom of Fezzan to be a ſmall circular domain, placed in a vaſt wilderneſs, as an iſland in the midſt of the ocean, containing near a hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzook is the capital, diſtant, ſouth from Meſurata, about 390 miles. In this kingdom are to be ſeen ſome venerable remains of ancient magnificence, ſome diſtricts of remarkable fertility, and numerous ſmoaking lakes, producing a ſpecies of foſſil alkali called *trona*. Agriculture and paſturage are the principal occupations of the Fezzanners ; they do not appear to have any coin ; their medium of commerce is gold-duſt ; their houſes, or rather huts, are built of clay, and are covered with branches of trees, on which earth is laid. As rain never falls at Fezzan, this covering is a ſufficient protection. Their dreſs reſembles that of the Moors of Barbary : but, during the heats of ſummer, which are intenſe, they only wear drawers, and a cap to protect their heads from the immediate action of the ſun. To theſe, many particulars are added of their perſons, diſeaſes, and mode of cure ; of their religion, government, taxes, animal and vegetable productions. Their ſovereign, who is a tributary of the baſhaw of Tripoli, adminiſters impartial juſtice.

" The narrative proceeds to ſtate, that ſouth-eaſt of Mourzook, at the diſtance of 150 miles, is a ſandy deſert, 200 miles wide; beyond which are the mountains of Tibeſti, inhabited by ferocious ſavages, tributary to Fezzan. The valleys between the mountains are ſaid to be fertiliſed by innumerable ſprings, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibeſtians to the king of Fezzan is twenty camel-loads of ſenna.

" This kingdom is inconſiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou and Caſhna, which lie ſouth of Fezzan, occupying the vaſt region which ſpreads itſelf from the river of the Antelopes for 1200 miles weſtward, and includes a great part of the Niger's courſe. Caſhna, we are informed, contains a thouſand towns and villages ; and in Bornou, which is ſtill more conſiderable, thirty languages are ſaid to be ſpoken. The latter is repreſented as a fertile and beautiful country ; its capital being ſituated within a day's journey of the river Wod-el-Gazel, which is loſt in the ſandy waſtes of the vaſt deſert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdſmen, dwelling, like the old patriarchs, in tents, and whoſe wealth conſiſts in their cattle. Horſes and horned cattle, goats, ſheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country. (Bornou, or Bernoa, is a word ſignifying the land of Noah ; for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark.) Though they cultivate various ſorts of grain, the uſe of the plough is unknown ; and the hoe is the only inſtrument of huſbandry. Here grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two ſpecies of melons, the water and the muſk, are produced in large abundance ; but one of the moſt valuable of its vegetables is a tree called kedeyna, which, in form and height, reſembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the ſhell are both in great eſtimation, the firſt as a fruit, the laſt on account of the oil which it furniſhes when bruiſed, and which ſupplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a ſubſtitute for the oil of olives. Bees, it is added, are ſo numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. Many other particulars are added, for which we muſt refer to the work. The population is deſcribed by the expreſſion, a countleſs multitude. We ſhall paſs over the nature of their religion, which is Mohammedan ; of their government, which is an elective monarchy ; and the ſingular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceaſed ſovereign : but the account of the preſent ſultan, his wive , and his children is too curious not to be exhibited.

" The preſent ſultan, whoſe name is Alli, is a man of an unoſtentatious, plain appearance ; for he ſeldom wears any other dreſs than the common blue ſhirt of cotton or ſilk, and the ſilk or muſlin turban, which form the uſual dreſs of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his ſeraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are ſaid to be 500 in number, and he himſelf is deſcribed as the reputed father of 350 children, of whom 300 are males ; a diſproportion which naturally ſuggeſts the idea that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection the joy of ſeeing herſelf the ſuppoſed parent of a future candidate for the empire, ſometimes exchanges her female child for the male offſpring of a ſtranger.

" We are told that fire-arms, though not unknown to the people of Bornou, are not poſſeſſed by them.

" South-eaſt from Bornou, lies the extenſive kingdom of Begarmee ; and, beyond this kingdom, are ſaid to be ſeveral tribes of negroes, idolaters, and feeders on human fleſh. Theſe, we are told, are annually invaded by the Begarmeeſe ; and when they have taken as many priſoners as their purpoſe may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarmee. It is farther ſaid, that if any of them, exhauſted by fatigue, happen to linger in their pace, one of the horſemen ſeizes on the oldeſt, and cutting off his arm, uſes it as a club to drive on the reſt.

" We are not much diſpoſed to give credit to this relation. That the negroes, who are ſold for ſlaves, are different from the other Africans, is not probable ;

and

and that they ſhould be driven along with the mangled limbs of their aſſociates, utterly exceeds belief.

The empire of Caſhna bears a great reſemblance to that of Bornou.

"After peruſing what is here related of the extent, population, fertility, manufactures, and commerce of theſe regions, we may be permitted to wonder at their having remained altogether unknown to Europeans. We cannot but ſuſpect conſiderable exaggerations. That the interior parts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from Cairo and Tripoli, and which are often abſent three years, ſufficiently evince: but that they are divided into regular and civilized ſtates, may be a queſtion. A thouſand towns and villages in one empire, and thirty different languages ſpoken in the other, manifeſt a diſpoſition in the ſhereef Imhammed to enlargement, or, at leaſt, to retail looſe reports. That they ſhould be acquainted with, yet not poſſeſs fire-arms, nor make any attempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to take the fiſh that abound in its waters, but little accords with the hiſtory of their commerce, and of their progreſs in manufactures.

"Let us, however, make all poſſible deductions, and be ever ſo incredulous as to ſome particulars, the proſpect which this narrative opens to us of the interior of Africa (the greater part of which we have been accuſtomed to conſider as conſigned, by nature, to perpetual ſterility and deſolation) muſt afford great pleaſure; and though, as we have already remarked, it is far from being ſatisfactory, or from having anſwered the object of the miſſion, it may be regarded by the ſociety as that ſort of evidence which ſhould encourage them to perſevere, and ought to induce Europeans, without delay, actually to explore the central provinces of the African continent."

MONOMOTAPA.

This country is bounded by the kingdom of Safala, on the eaſt; by the mountains of Caffraria, on the weſt; by the river Del Spiritu Santo, on the ſouth; and the river Cuama, which ſeparates it from Monoemugi, on the north. It is divided into ſeven provinces or petty kingdoms, the governors of which are vaſſals to the emperor; the capital town of the whole country is Manica.

The air is eſteemed ſalutary, and the ſoil fertile, producing ſugar-canes, and a great number of fine trees. There are no beaſts of burden in this country, but many elephants, and vaſt herds of horned cattle. Gold is alſo found in plenty here.

The people, who are not very numerous, are only cloathed from their waiſts downwards. Their arms are bows and arrows, darts, poinards, cutlaſſes, and ſabres: and it is aſſerted, that there are ſome warlike females in this country, who, like the ancient amazons, cut off their left breaſts, that they may ſhoot their arrows with more freedom. The emperor aſſumes great ſtate and magnificence, and has 1000 wives, but only one reigns as empreſs, and her eldeſt ſon ſucceeds to the throne.

MONOEMUGI

Joins to Monomotapa, and is divided into ſeveral principalities. The air is in general exceeding hot, and very unhealthy. The natural produce of this kingdom is gold, palm-wine, oil, and ſuch quantities of honey, that half of it is loſt every year, the inhabitants not being able to conſume it. Theſe people vary according to the principality they reſide in; thoſe of Alaba are a cruel race, called Galas, who offer human ſacrifices, and ſpare none that are hardy enough to venture through their country. Others wander from place to place, and ſubſiſt by plunder; and many of them are ſaid to be cannibals. Amber-beads are the current coin of this country, gold and ſilver being ſo common, that it is of no value among them.

ZANGUEBAR

Includes the countries of Magadoxa, Melinda, Mombaza, Quiloa, Moſambique, and Sofala; all of which are either in alliance with, or ſubject to the Portugueſe. Magadoxa is a barren country: the people are a mixture of Pagans, Mahometans, and Chriſtians. Melinda is a very pleaſant, fruitful, and healthy country: it contains ſeventeen churches, nine religious houſes, the governor's palace, the town-hall, and the magazine, all which exceed in grandeur any thing of the kind to be found in Africa. They carry on a conſiderable trade with the Portugueſe, in gold, ivory, ſlaves, &c. Mombaza, to the ſouth of Melinda, reſembles it greatly in ſoil, produce, &c. The peninſula of Quiloa enjoys a fruitful ſoil, with a very unſalutary air; however, many excellent ſugar-canes are produced here. Part of the inhabitants are Pagans, and the reſt idolaters. The king, it is ſaid, pays an annual tribute of gold to the Portugueſe, amounting to 100,000 cruſadoes. Moſambique lies ſouth of Quiloa. The air is hot, and the ſoil in moſt places ſandy and barren. This country produces gold, elephants teeth, all the tropical fruits, black cattle in abundance, hogs, and ſheep. The Portugueſe ſhips take in refreſhments here. Sofala is ſituated ſouth of Moſambique, and is in ſome parts a barren deſert, while others are remarkably fruitful. Gold is found in great plenty here: the inhabitants aſſert that the mines yield annually upwards of four millions of metigals at twelve ſhillings each. This country is ſuppoſed to be the ancient Ophir. The capital, ſituated on a river, is about ſix leagues from the ſea-coaſt, and in the poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe, who built a ſtrong fort there in 1500. Their chief trade conſiſts in gold, ambergris, ſlaves, and ſilk ſtuffs.

ETHIOPIA

Comprehends Nubia, Abyſſinia, Aboſh or Abex, and Anian. It is bounded to the north by Egypt and the deſert of Barca; to the ſouth, by Zanguebar and Caffraria; to the eaſt by the Red Sea and the eaſtern ocean; and to the weſt by Guinea, Nigritia, and Zaara.

Nubia is bounded by Egypt, on the north; by Abyſſinia, on the ſouth; by the coaſt of Abeſh, on the eaſt; and by Zaara and Nigritia, on the weſt. Its dimenſions have not yet been aſcertained by geographers, and the ſame uncertainty attends its government and religion; but among them are found Chriſtians, Jews, Mahometans, and Pagans. This country is ſaid to abound in gold, muſk, ſandal-wood, and ivory; here are alſo elephants, horſes, camels, lions, and every other animal, both wild and tame, to be met with in the neighbouring country.

ABYSSINIA

Has now ſcarce any communication with other parts of the world; Abex, which extends itſelf along the weſtern coaſt of the Red Sea, being in the poſſeſſion of the Turks, and part of it ſurrounded with mountains. The inland parts are ſaid to be exceeding fertile, being diverſified with woods and plains well planted with palm-trees, dates, and cedars, and watered by ſeveral noble rivers, particularly the Nile. Abyſſinia abounds with gold, ſilver, copper, and precious ſtones. Its animals are horſes, zebras, elephants, camels, dromedaries, oxen, ſheep, mules, aſſes, &c. here are alſo prodigious numbers of large locuſts, which are excellent eating; flying and other ſerpents are alſo ſeen here, particularly one ſort, which is ſo much of the colour of the duſt in which it harbours, and on which it ſubſiſts, that it is not eaſily avoided, though

though its ſting is attended with immediate death, both to man and beaſt.

In their perſons the Abyſſinians do not at all reſemble the negroes of Guinea, the ſouth part of Africa; having, on the contrary, regular features, and ſome of them being very handſome. The olive complexion is eſteemed the fineſt by them, and next to that the jet black. They poſſeſs a vaſt ſhare of vivacity and natural wit, are of a teachable diſpoſition, and fond of learning, but enjoy very few opportunities of attaining it. Perſons of rank among them wear veſts made of ſilks, ſtuffs, or cotton; but the poor people have only a ſmall piece of ſkin or coarſe ſtuff, wrapped about their waiſts. In their eating they abſtain from all things prohibited to the Jews, and their drink is mead, metheglin, and a liquor made from wheat or rice.

The Abyſſinians exchange their gold, emeralds, and horſes with the Turks, for ſilks, ſtuffs, calicoes, linens, and carpets. The Jews are ſaid to be the only weavers and ſmiths among them; and as for other handicrafts, every man breeds up his children to the trade or profeſſion that he uſes himſelf. Their religion ſeems to be a mixture of Chriſtianity and Judaiſm, greatly reſembling that of the Copts of Egypt, both in its manner and form.

The power of the Abyſſinian monarch was formerly unlimited, but at preſent he can tranſact no affairs of conſequence without the concurrence of the grandees. He paſſes the principal part of the year in the field, attended by great bodies of horſe and foot, with whom he makes a tour through different parts of his dominions; and on every occaſion aſſumes great ſtate.

Abex and Anian are bounded on the north and weſt by Egypt and Abyſſinia; on the eaſt by the Red Sea, and the Indian, Ethiopic, or Eaſtern Ocean; and on the ſouth by Zanguebar; extending from the fifth degree of north latitude to the twentieth.

Anian, ſituated upon the eaſtern ocean, is a ſandy barren deſert. The air is exceeding hot, and the chief part of the inhabitants conſiſt of ſome Arab tribes, that live in camps, for there are very few towns. The principal place in it is Adea.

Abex, ſituate to the northward of Anian, is in poſſeſſion of the Turks, who keep ſtrong garriſons in Suaquem and Arquico, which are the two principal ports, and about 150 miles diſtant from each other. This country is in general a fruitful tract, abounding in moſt of the neceſſaries of life.

The hiſtory of this continent is at once imperfect and unintereſting. Probably theſe countries never afforded any events worthy being recorded. Buried in ignorance from the earlieſt ages, and ſeparated from other nations by extenſive deſerts of burning ſands, the ancients knew very little of the inhabitants of theſe countries. Some voyages were indeed made to their coaſts; but all the intelligence they have tranſmitted to poſterity, amounts to no more than that they were an ignorant, rude, inhoſpitable people, and deſtitute of every particular that conſtitutes humanity, except the form. They conſidered them as a different ſpecies of beings, or at leaſt, that a ſavage life during a long ſeries of years had ſo impaired their faculties, that they were incapable of improvement. They ſtill continue in the ſame deplorable ignorance, ſo that it is in vain to expect any hiſtorical monuments in this country.

It muſt be ſhocking to every reaſonable mind to reflect, that upwards of 200 years the European nations have traded with Africa in human fleſh, and encouraged in the negro countries wars, rapine, deſolation, and murder, that the Weſt India iſlands may be ſupplied with that commodity. The annual exportation of poor creatures from Africa for ſlaves, hath exceeded 100,000, numbers of whom are driven down like ſheep, perhaps 1000 miles from the ſea-coaſt, who are generally inhabitants of villages that have been ſurrounded in the night by armed force, and carried off to be ſold to our traders; and it appears, that from Santallpollonia to Athera, which is upwards of 250 miles, the police and puniſhment of all crimes are ſupported by the ſlave trade.

This ſhameful practice is become ſo prevalent among the natives, that they who commit crimes or treſpaſſes againſt their laws, are, at the deciſion of twelve elders, ſold for ſlaves for the uſe of their government, and the ſupport of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the higheſt crimes, and whenever they are detected, ſubject the whole family to ſlavery. But any individual condemned to ſlavery for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own perſon, by furniſhing two ſlaves in his room.—When a man commits any of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are conſigned to ſlavery; if a woman be guilty, the female part is ſold.

An Engliſh gentleman, who lately viſited all the chiefs of the negroes in our ſettlements, remarks to the following effect: "While on the coaſt, I ſaw ſuch inſtances of cruelty relative to the ſlave trade, as made my very boſom bleed. This traffick in crimes makes the chiefs vigilant: nor do our planters, who purchaſe them, uſe any pains to inſtruct them in religion, to make them amends for the oppreſſion thus exerciſed on them. I am ſorry to ſay, they are unnaturally averſe to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portugueſe, French, and Spaniards, in their ſettlements, ſucceed in their attempts to inſtruct them, as much to the advantage of the commerce as of religion. It is for the ſake of Chriſtianity, and the advantages accompanying it, that Engliſh ſlaves embrace every occaſion of deſerting to the ſettlements of theſe nations." As the truth of theſe remarks is confirmed by daily obſervation, it is therefore certainly high time for the legiſlature to enact laws for putting an end to this moſt infamous of all trades, ſo diſgraceful to the Chriſtian name, and ſo repugnant to the principles of our conſtitution. As a means to remedy this evil, the negroes already in our iſlands ſhould be properly treated, made free, and encouragement given to their population. There are ſufficient numbers to cultivate the ſugar plantations without any future ſupply, and which would be more profitable to the planters, as well as the kingdom in general. But we need ſay nothing further on this head, as we find that ſome reſpectable, generous-hearted perſons, impreſſed with tender feelings for the miſeries of their fellow-creatures in this reſpect, have taken the matter in hand, whoſe laudable endeavours and remonſtrances, aided by thoſe of others of like benevolent ſentiments, we truſt will be conducive to aboliſh this nefarious traffick, and thereby avert the juſt vengeance of Heaven, long impending over us on that account.

CHAP. IV.

THE AFRICAN ISLANDS.

Situation, Extent, Produce, Inhabitants, Mountains, Rivers, Animals, &c.

THESE iſlands are very numerous; ſome of them are ſituated in the Eaſtern or Indian Ocean, and others in the Weſtern or Atlantic. The chief of the former are Zoeſtra, Babel-Mandel, the Comora Iſlands, Madagaſcar, Bourbon, and Mauritius: but, beſides theſe, a multitude of ſmaller iſlands, ſome of them hardly any thing more than a barren rock, are ſcattered in this immenſe ocean, particularly near the Equator, and on both ſides of the Iſland of Madagaſcar, as will be perceived by conſulting the map of Africa.

Zoestra,

ZOESTRA, by ſome thought to be the Dioſcorides of Ptolemy and Pliny, is ſituated in 12 deg. 10 min. north lat. and in 53 deg. 16 min. eaſt long. about thirty leagues to the eaſtward of Cape Gardaſu, on the moſt eaſterly point of the continent of Africa. It is eighty miles in length, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where formerly ſuch European ſhips as had loſt their paſſage to India uſed to take ſhelter. It is a populous and plentiful iſland, yielding moſt ſorts of plants and fruits common between the Tropics; and alſo frankincenſe, gum-tragacanth, aloes, ambergris, dragon's-blood, and coral. The weather is exceeding hot, though there are ſeveral lofty mountains in the iſland, whoſe ſummits are perpetually covered with ſnow. The inhabitants came originally from Arabia, profeſs the Mahometan religion, and are governed by a ſheik, who is probably tributary to the Turks.

BABEL-MANDEL is ſituated at the entrance of the Red Sea, in 12 deg. 6 min. north lat. and in 44 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. about forty-four miles from the Arabian and Abyſſinian ſhores. Its ſituation rendered it of the utmoſt conſequence, while the trade to India was carried on by the Red Sea, the entrance of which it entirely commands; hence the long wars between the Abyſſinians or Ethiopians, who contended with great fury for the poſſeſſion of this iſland; but ſince the diſcovery of a paſſage to the Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, the importance of the iſland has greatly declined, and it is now entirely abandoned. The iſland is of little value, being not five miles in circumference, and a barren, ſandy ſpot.

The COMORA ISLANDS are Joanna, Mayotta, Mehilla, Angezeia, and Comora; ſituated between 10 and 14 deg. of ſouth lat. and between 41 and 46 deg. of eaſt long. They lie in the ſtreight called the Channel of Moſambique, about midway between Madagaſcar and the continent of Africa. The principal iſland is Joanna, which claims a ſovereignty over, and exacts tribute from the others. It is about thirty miles long, and fifteen broad, and affords plenty of proviſions, and ſuch fruits as are common to the torrid zone. The inhabitants are negroes of the Mahometan perſuaſion, and entertain our ſeamen with great humanity. The India ſhips bound to Bombay uſually put in here for refreſhments.

MADAGASCAR is the largeſt of the African iſlands, and is ſituated between 10 and 26 deg. of ſouth lat. and between 43 and 51 deg of eaſt long. It lies about 300 miles to the eaſtward of the coaſt of Africa; is near 1000 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 250 in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The ſea rolls with great rapidity, and is exceeding rough between this iſland and the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or paſſage, through which all European ſhips generally paſs, unleſs prevented by ſtorms, in their voyage to and from India.

Few iſlands in the world are more pleaſant, fertile, and deſirable than Madagaſcar. It is adorned with a pleaſing variety of hills, vallies, woods, and open plains; watered with numerous rivers, and the air is rendered cool and healthy by the conſtant breezes from the ſea. It abounds in ſugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables of various kinds, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious ſtones, iron, copper, tin, and ſome ſilver.

The iſland of Madagaſcar was diſcovered in 1506, by Lawrence Almeyda; but the Perſians and Arabs knew it from time immemorial, under the name of Sarandib. The whole iſland is divided into twenty-eight provinces, which are, Anoſſi, Manapani, the Valley of Amboule, Vohitzan, Watte-Manahore, Yoondre, Etomampo, Adohimouſſy, Erengdranis, Vohitz-Anghombes, Manacarongha, Mantatane, Antaveres, Ghalemboule, Tamatave, Jahave, Voulou-Voulou, Andaſoutchy, Manghabey, Adeimoutchy, Mandrarey, Ampatre, Caremboule, Mahafalbey, Houlouvey, Sivah, Yoandrhou, and Machicores.

The natives are called Malegaches, or Madecaſſes. They are portly in their perſons, and riſe above the middle ſtature. The colour of their ſkin is different: among one tribe it is of a deep black, and among another tawny: ſome have a copper-coloured tint; but the colour of the greater part is olive. All thoſe who are black have woolly hair, like the negroes on the coaſt of Africa: thoſe who have a complexion ſimilar to that of the Indians and Mulattoes, have as lank hair as the Europeans.—Their noſes are not flat; they have a broad open forehead; their lips are thin; and their features are regular and agreeable.

Theſe people generally diſplay in their countenance a peculiar character of frankneſs and good-nature. They never ſhew a deſire of learning any matters, but thoſe which relate to the ſimpleſt wants of mankind; and this deſire is always extremely moderate: they are very indifferent reſpecting knowledge which cannot be obtained without reflection. A general want of care, and a general apathy, renders every thing that requires attention, inſupportable to them. Sober, light, and active, they ſpend the greateſt part of their lives in ſleeping, and in amuſing themſelves.

With reſpect to religion, they have neither moſques nor temples, and entertain a very imperfect notion of Mahomet. They offer ſacrifices of beaſts and rice on particular occaſions, and many of them obſerve the Jewiſh ſabbath. They have alſo ſome knowledge of the principal events recorded in Sacred Hiſtory, as the creation of the world, the fall of man, the lives of Noah, Abraham, Moſes, and David; and hence ſome have conjectured that they are deſcended from the Jews. Perhaps the colony that firſt ſettled here were compoſed of Arabians and Jews, who by a long promiſcuous intercourſe, have formed a religion partaking equally of both. The Pagan inhabitants are idolaters, and, like thoſe on the continent of Africa, worſhip ſtocks and ſtones. No hiſtorical accounts of this country are to be depended on till the year 1642, when a French officer obtained permiſſion from Cardinal Richlieu for nine years, excluſive of all others, to ſend ſhips and forces to Madagaſcar, and the neighbouring iſlands, in order to eſtabliſh a colony, plantation, and commerce. This gentleman erected a ſociety for this purpoſe, under the name of a French Eaſt-India Company, and the grant was drawn out, with the addition of ten years more privilege, or, in other words, extended to the year 1661. In the interim, that is immediately ſubſequent to the making out of the grant in 1642, the firſt ſhip was ſent under the command of Captain Coquet, who was going to load ebony at Madagaſcar, on the account of himſelf and ſome private merchants; but had orders to take with him two governors, whoſe names were Pronis and Fouquenbourg, and twelve other Frenchmen; theſe being commanded to land and remain there, till the arrival of a ſhip from France, which was to ſail in November.

Coquet got to Madagaſcar in September, having, in his way, anchored at the Iſle of Bourbon, which he took poſſeſſion of in the name of the King of France; touching afterwards at the Iſle of St. Mary, he did the ſame; and arriving at the Bay of Antongil, in Madagaſcar, he acted in a ſimilar manner. Pronis and Fouquenbourg were at length landed in the port of St. Lucia, in the province of Manghabei.

The expected ſhip from France arrived on the firſt of April, in the enſuing year. It was named the St. Lawrence, and was under the command of Captain Giles Reſimont. This officer brought ſeventy men with him to reinforce Pronis. The inhabitants, jealous that the French would obtain too firm a footing in their country, meditated an oppoſition; but their intentions were prevented, or at leaſt delayed,

by the prudent conduct and timely presents of Pronis. Upon this success, Pronis sent twelve men to penetrate into the province of Matatan, six of whom were cut off by the natives, and the rest compelled to retreat; and soon after Captain Resimont's son, and six sailors, were murdered in the province of Vohitsbang. This opposition was owing to the secret intrigues of the leading men in Anossi, who, from their maritime situation, did not dare to offend the French themselves, but stirred up the people of other provinces to oppose and murder them upon all occasions.

In 1644, Pronis thought proper to remove from St. Lucia to the Bay of Tholongare, where he began to fortify himself; and having reduced almost the whole province of Anossi by force of arms, he built Fort Dauphin, the situation being excellent, the harbour commodious and finely sheltered, and the entrance very convenient for shipping of any burthen. Behind the fort, he erected several other buildings, with large enclosures, which produced various sorts of fruits, kitchen herbs, &c.

In the year 1650 the fort took fire by some unforeseen accident, and was totally destroyed. Soon after, however, it was rebuilt, and strongly garrisoned; the French being always at variance, and frequently at war with the natives.

In the year 1651, the celebrated French governor, Flacourt, at the head of eighty Frenchmen, and a great number of armed negroes, ravaged the country to a considerable distance from the fort, carrying off great quantities of cattle, and destroying all the houses and huts in his way. This occasioned the natives to conceive an extraordinary aversion to the French; and what added to their dislike was, that whenever any prisoner fell into the hands of the French, they looked upon them all in an equal light, and sold them indiscriminately to the then Dutch governor of the island of Mauritius, not making any distinction between deeans or lords, freemen or slaves; or shewing any greater respect to their ladies, when captives, than to women of a lower rank. The French finding, at length, that the idea of conquering Madagascar was chimerical, and that the danger and expences of maintaining a colony, and keeping up a fortress here, were not recompensed by the profits accruing from the settlement, thought proper at once to abandon the island, and all projects relative to it.

Mauritius, or Maurice-Island, is situated in 20 deg. 15 min. south lat. and 56 deg. 8 min. east long. It is of an oval figure, about 150 miles in circumference, and has the advantage of an excellent harbour, capable of holding fifty sail of the largest ships, secure against all winds; the water is 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is at once both healthy and agreeable. The island is watered with several rivers, and the finest ebony in the world grows upon its mountains. The soil, though not remarkable for its fertility, affords pasture sufficient for vast numbers of black cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. Rice, tobacco, and all kinds of tropical fruits are produced here in plenty. This island was discovered by the Dutch in 1598, who gave it the name of Maurice-Island, in honour of Prince Maurice their stadtholder. It continued for some time in their possession, but at present it belongs to the French, who have given it the name of the Isle of France.

The Isle of Bourbon is situated in 21 deg. 9 min. south lat. and in 54 deg. 12 min. east long. It is of an oval figure, and about ninety miles in circumference. It has no harbour, but several good roads, though these are not always sufficient to shelter ships against the furious storms which generally happen at the shifting of the monsoons. On the southern extremity of the island is a large volcano, which continually throws out prodigious quantities of flame, smoke, and a sulphureous lava, and appears dreadful in the night to mariners, as the adjacent sea is full of sunken rocks. The climate, though extremely hot, is very healthy, being constantly refreshed with cooling breezes from the sea. The hurricanes already mentioned are often dreadful; they seem to shake the very foundations of the island, while the inhabitants are filled with terror. Brooks and streams of water are found in almost every part of the island, by which the soil is rendered extremely fertile in fruits and pasture. Tobacco flourishes here exceedingly, though not a native plant of the island. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin in great plenty. Aloes, white pepper, and all the tropical fruits abound here. The pastures feed great numbers of black cattle, goats, and hogs. The rivers are well stocked with fish, and the coast with land and sea tortoises. Ambergris, coral, and shells remarkable for their beauty, are found on the shore. The French, on their expulsion from Madagascar, in 1672, retired to this island, where they have now several considerable towns. A governor is also established here, and their East-India ships stop at this island for refreshments. There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar, and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no description of them has yet been given.

Having thus described the principal islands in the Eastern or Indian Ocean, it remains that we pass round the Cape of Good-Hope, and survey those that are scattered in the Western, or Atlantic Ocean, that immense collection of water, which separates Europe and Africa from America. The islands in the Atlantic Ocean are very numerous, but the principal are St. Helena, Ascension, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes-Island, Fernandopo, Cape-Verd islands, Goree, the Canaries, the Madeiras, and the Azores.

St. Helena is situated in 16 deg. 4 min. south lat. and in 6 deg. 4 min. west long. It is a very high and steep rock, situated in the midst of the ocean, about twenty miles in circumference, and accessible only at the landing-place, in a valley on the east side of the island; but even here the waves dash with such impetuosity against the shore, that it is difficult landing; and a battery of guns almost level with the water defends it. The only anchoring-place is in the road called Chapel-Valley Bay. Though the island appears at sea as a barren rock, the inland parts are agreeably diversified with vallies and plains, adorned with fruit-trees. The English plantations there afford potatoes, yams, plantains, bananas, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; but most part of the latter is generally destroyed by rats, so that the flour made use of there is wholly imported from England; and in a scarcity, they eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Some bullocks, hogs, and plenty of poultry, are found on this island, which belongs to the English East-India Company, being given to them by Charles II. There are about 200 families upon it, who greatly resemble the English both in their persons and manners. The East-India homeward-bound ships take in water and fresh provisions here, in exchange for shirts, drawers, or any light clothes, pieces of calico, silks, muslin, arrack, sugar, &c. but the island is so small, and the wind so much against the outward-bound ships, that they very seldom see it. The Company's affairs there are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the Company, besides a public table, well furnished, for the entertainment of all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers.

Ascension-Island is situated in 17 deg. of west long. and the 7th of south lat. 600 miles north-west of St. Helena. It received its name from being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day; and it is a mountainous, barren, uninhabited island, about twenty miles in circumference; but the East-India ships usually touch here, to furnish themselves with turtle,

turtle, which are found in great plenty, and are very large, ſome of them weighing above 100 pounds each.

ST. MATTHEW is a ſmall iſland lying in 6 deg. 1 min. weſt long. and 1 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. 300 miles to the north-eaſt of Aſcenſion-Iſland, and was diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who planted and kept poſſeſſion of it for ſome time, but afterwards deſerted it. As this iſland has little in it to invite other nations to ſettle there, except a ſmall lake of water, it now remains uninhabited.

ST. THOMAS, PRINCES-ISLAND, ANABOA, and FERNANDOPO, are all ſituated in the Gulph of Guinea, between Congo and Benin. They were firſt diſcovered by, and are now in poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe, and furniſh their ſhipping with freſh water and proviſions as they paſs by. We are informed, there are 15,000 Negro Chriſtians in St. Thomas's inſtructed to read and write, who daily attend divine worſhip, clean and well clothed; a circumſtance which redounds greatly to the honour of the Portugueſe government, at the ſame time that it reflects diſgrace on our Weſt-India legiſlators, for their neglect in this particular.

CAPE DE VERD ISLANDS owe their appellation to a cape of that name on the African coaſt, near the river Gambia, oppoſite to which they lie, at the diſtance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. weſt long. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1460, and are about twenty in number, of which the following are the chief, namely, St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonaviſta, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, and are ſubject to the Portugueſe; the others are barren rocks. The air in general is very hot, and in ſome of them very unwholeſome. Europeans, or their deſcendents, and negroes, inhabit theſe iſlands.

ST. JAGO is the largeſt, moſt fertile, and the beſt inhabited of them all. It is 150 miles in circumference, but many parts of it are mountainous, and a great deal of the land is barren. Its produce is ſugar, cotton, ſome wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits; but the plant of moſt conſequence is madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Roots and garden ſtuff of all kinds abound here, as well as hogs and poultry. The monkies in this iſland are eſteemed handſomer than thoſe of any other part of the world. They are exceeding ſmall, and of a green colour, except their faces, which are black. The Portugueſe viceroy reſides in this iſland.

On the eaſt ſide of the iſland ſtands BAYA, or PRAYA (famous for an action between an Engliſh and French ſquadron in a former war) it has a good port, and is ſeldom without ſhips; thoſe outward-bound to Guinea, or the Eaſt-Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touch here for freſh water and proviſions.

MAYO, or MAY, and SAL, abound in ſalt, and the Engliſh trade with the inhabitants of the former for vaſt quantities of this commodity. The ſalt is made by the heat of the ſun from the ſea-water, which, at ſpring-tides, is received into a ſort of pan, formed by a ſand-bank, extending along the coaſt for two or three miles. The ſalt coſts nothing but a ſmall gratuity for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on aſſes to the boats; the negro governor, however, expects a ſmall preſent from every commander that loads with ſalt, and delights in being invited on board their ſhips. The Engliſh veſſels, which annually reſort hither to lade with ſalt, frequently amount to 100, and there is generally a man of war to protect them. They likewiſe often take in a freight of aſſes, which they carry to Barbadoes, and other Britiſh plantations. The ſea-water is ſo clear on this coaſt, that an Engliſh ſailor, who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving. The inhabitants of this iſland, even the governor and prieſts, are all negroes, and ſpeak the Portugueſe language.

FOGO is remarkable for having in it a volcano, which continually emits ſulphureous exhalations, and the eruptions and flame, like thoſe of Mount-Ætna, ſometimes burſt forth with ſuch violence, that the adjacent parts are in a manner covered with pumice-ſtones.

The inhabitants of all theſe iſlands are Europeans, or deſcendents of families originally from Europe, and a great number of negroes: theſe latter, who inhabit the iſlands of Mayo, profeſs the Roman Catholic religion.

The ISLAND of GOREE is ſituated within cannon-ſhot of Cape-Verd, in 14 deg. 43 min. north lat. and 17 deg. 20 min. weſt long. It was ſo called by the Dutch, from an iſland and town of the ſame name in Holland. It is a ſmall ſpot, not exceeding two miles in compaſs, but being deemed a place of importance, from its ſituation for trade ſo near the Cape-Verd, it has therefore been a bone of contention between European nations. The Dutch firſt took poſſeſſion of it; and from them the Engliſh took it in 1663; but the Dutch retook it in 1665; the French ſubdued it in 1677, and in their poſſeſſion it remained till 1759, when the Britiſh arms being every where triumphant, it was reduced by Commodore Keppel, but reſtored to the French in 1763. It was retaken by the Engliſh in the war of 1774, but at the peace of 1783 was again reſtored to the French, in whoſe poſſeſſion it now remains.

The CANARIES, formerly called The Fortunate Iſlands, are ſituated between the 12th and 19th deg. of weſt long. and between the 27th and 29th deg. of north lat. they lie about 150 miles ſouth-weſt of Morocco. They are ſeven in number, viz. Grand Canaria (or Great Canary, which gives name to all the reſt) Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Fuerteventura, and Lancerota. Theſe iſlands were firſt diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but when the Romans deſtroyed that republic, a ſtop was put to navigation, particularly on the weſtern coaſt of Africa, and theſe iſlands were again buried in obſcurity for many ages. At laſt, in 1405, they were once more viſited by the Spaniards. When they firſt landed, the natives, who were very numerous, ſpoke a different language from any of the nations on the continent. They were robuſt, active, and well ſkilled in the management of bows, arrows, and darts. They were alſo idolaters, worſhipping the ſun and ſtars. When they became acquainted with the Spaniſh language, they could give no account of their anceſtors, or from what country they came. In their ſtature and complexion, they reſembled the natives of the north of Africa, but they retained none of their cuſtoms, were maſters of no ſcience, nor did they know there was any country in the world beſides their own. Having ſtruggled for the preſervation of their liberties till 1460, they were then forced to yield to the ſuperior force of their invaders, who tranſported a great number of them into Spain, where they ended their days in ſlavery. Thoſe who were ſuffered to remain on the iſland, endeavoured to ſecure their ancient eſtates by ſubmitting entirely to the Spaniſh yoke, and are now remarkable for their probity and civility to ſtrangers.

Theſe iſlands enjoy a pure and temperate air, and the ſoil is ſo fruitful, that it frequently yields two crops in a year. They abound in the moſt delicious fruits, among which are grapes from whence that rich wine is made, known to us by the name of Canary, and of which it is ſaid, that in time of peace 10,000 hogſheads are annually exported to England. Cattle, &c. are very numerous here; and among the birds, are thoſe little beautiful creatures that bear

 the

the country's name, and are now ſo common, and ſo much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel thoſe ſung by them when confined in a cage in a foreign country.

TENERIFFE is about fifty miles in length, and twenty in breadth. The country is fertile, though much incumbered with mountains, particularly that called the Peak, which, according to the accounts of ſome navigators, may be ſeen in clear weather at the diſtance of 120 miles. The Peak is an aſcent in the form of a ſugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and, according to the account publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, near three miles perpendicular.

Its appearance at ſun-ſet is very ſtriking; when the ſun was below the horiſon, and the reſt of the iſland appeared of a deep black, the mountain ſtill reflected its rays, and glowed with a warmth of colour which no painting can expreſs. There is no eruption of viſible fire from it, but a heat iſſues from the chinks near the top, too ſtrong to be borne by the hand when it is held near them.

The air and climate are ſaid to be remarkably healthful, and particularly adapted to afford relief in phthiſical complaints. By reſiding at different heights in the iſland, ſuch a temperature may be procured as is beſt ſuited to the conſtitution. Perſons may continue where the air is mild and ſalubrious, as they may aſcend till the cold becomes intolerable; but no perſon, it is ſaid, can live comfortably within a mile of the perpendicular height of the Peak after the month of Auguſt.

The road of Santa Cruz (ſays Captain Cook, who touched at this famous iſland in his laſt voyage) is ſituated on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland, before the town of the ſame name. It is ſaid to be the principal road of Teneriffe for ſhelter, capacity, and the goodneſs of its bottom. The water to ſupply the ſhipping, and for the uſe of the inhabitants of Santa Cruz, is derived from a rivulet that runs from the hills, which is conveyed into the town in wooden troughs. As theſe troughs were repairing at the time Captain Cook viſited the iſland, freſh water was extremely ſcarce.

It might naturally be concluded, from the appearance of the country about Santa Cruz, that Teneriffe is a barren ſpot; Captain Cook was convinced, however, from the ample ſupplies his people received, that it not only produced ſufficient to ſupply its own inhabitants, but alſo enough to ſpare for viſitors. Though wine is the chief produce of the iſland, beef may be had at about three-pence ſterling a pound. The oxen, however, are ſmall, lean, and boney. Sheep, goats, hogs, and poultry, may be had on terms equally reaſonable. A great variety of fruits are to be had in plenty; as pears, figs, grapes, mulberries, muſk-melons, &c. beſides others that were not then in ſeaſon. The pumpkins, potatoes, and onions, which grow here, are excellent.

On this iſland, Indian corn is produced and ſold at about three ſhillings and ſix-pence per buſhel. The fruits and vegetables are, in general, very cheap. Though the inhabitants are but indifferently ſupplied with fiſh by the adjoining ſeas, they are engaged in a conſiderable fiſhery on the coaſt of Barbary, and the produce of it ſells at a very moderate price.

Voyagers aſſure us, that Teneriffe is a more eligible place than Madeira for ſhips to touch at which are bound on long voyages: but the wine of the latter is infinitely ſuperior to that of the former. The difference of their prices is almoſt as conſiderable as their qualities; for the beſt Teneriffe wine was ſold for 12l. a pipe, whereas a pipe of the beſt Madeira was worth conſiderably more than double that ſum.

The country riſes behind the town of Santa Cruz gradually to a moderate height; afterwards it continues to riſe ſouth-weſtward towards the celebrated Peak of Teneriffe. But our voyagers were much diſappointed in their expectations with reſpect to its appearance, and particularly as to its height.

Eaſtward of Santa Cruz, the iſland appears perfectly barren. Ridges of high hills run towards the ſea, between which are deep vallies, terminating at mountains that run acroſs, and are higher than the former. Mr. Anderſon went on ſhore to one of theſe vallies, intending to reach the top of the remoter hills; but time would not permit him to get further than their baſe. The lower hills produce great quantities of the *Euphorbia Canarienſis*. The people on the ſpot imagine its juice to be ſo cauſtic as to corrode the ſkin; but Mr. Anderſon convinced them to the contrary, by thruſting his finger into a plant full of it. The inhabitants dry the buſhes of euphorbia, and carry them home for fuel. The city of Santa Cruz, though not large, is well built. The churches have not a magnificent appearance without, but they are decent and tolerably handſome within. Almoſt facing the ſtone pier, which runs into the ſea from the town, is a marble column, lately erected, enriched with human figures which reflect honour to the ſtatuary.

The city of Laguna is ſituated about the diſtance of four miles from Santa Cruz. Mr. Anderſon and three others took a view of it; but the ſight of it did not reward them for their trouble, as the roads were very bad, and their cattle but indifferent. Though the place is extenſive, it hardly deſerves to be dignified with the name of a city. There are ſome good houſes, but the diſpoſition of the ſtreets is very irregular. Laguna is larger than Santa Cruz, but much inferior to it in appearance.

From Santa Cruz to Laguna, the road runs up a ſteep, barren hill; but lower down they ſaw ſome fig-trees and corn-fields. The corn, however, is not produced here without great labour, the ground being greatly encumbered with ſtones. Nothing elſe preſented itſelf deſerving notice, except a few aloe plants in flower on the ſide of the road.

In this iſland the laborious work is chiefly performed by mules, horſes being ſcarce, and reſerved for the uſe of the officers. Oxen are alſo much employed here. Some hawks and parrots were ſeen, which were natives of the iſland; as alſo the ſea-ſwallow, ſea-gulls, partridges, ſwallows, canary-birds, and blackbirds. There were alſo lizards, locuſts, and three or four ſorts of dragon-flies.

A gentleman of acknowledged veracity informed Mr. Anderſon, that a ſhrub is common here agreeing exactly with the deſcription given by Linnæus of the tea-ſhrub, as growing in China and Japan. It is conſidered as a weed, and large quantities of it are rooted out of the vineyards every year. The Spaniards, however, who inhabit the iſland, ſometimes make uſe of it, and aſcribe to it all the qualities of the tea imported from China. The ſame gentleman mentioned to Mr. Anderſon another botanical curioſity, which is called the *impregnated lemon*. It is a diſtinct and perfect lemon encloſed within another. There is alſo a certain grape growing here, which is deemed an excellent remedy in phthiſical complaints.

From near the top of the Peak ſmoke continually iſſues; but they have had no earthquake or eruption ſince 1704, when the port of Garrachica was deſtroyed, being filled up with the burning lava that flowed into it; and houſes are now built where ſhips formerly lay at anchor.

A very conſiderable trade is carried on at Teneriffe, 40,000 pipes of wine being annually made there, which is conſumed in the iſland, or made into brandy, and ſent to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. Indeed, the wine is the only conſiderable article of the foreign commerce of Teneriffe, unleſs we reckon the large quantities of filtering-ſtones brought from Grand Canaria.

The inhabitants found here when the Spaniards diſcovered the Canaries, are no longer a diſtinct race of people, having intermarried with Spaniſh ſettlers: their

their deſcendants, however, may be known from their being remarkably tall, ſtrong, and large-boned. The men are tawny, and the women are pale. The inhabitants of Teneriffe, in general, are decent, grave, and civil, retaining that ſolemn caſt which diſtinguiſhes thoſe of their country from others. The ancient inhabitants of this iſland were called Guanches. The origin of them is not certainly known, but their ſepulchral caves are very remarkable. They had an uncommon veneration for the corpſes of their anceſtors, which were depoſited in caves formed by nature in the rocks. They were preſerved in goat-ſkins, bound round by belts of the ſame, ſo exactly and uniformly encloſing the body, as to excite admiration, each round being juſt proportioned to the part; and this method preſerved the bodies. The eyes, which are cloſed, the hair, ear, noſe, teeth, lips, and beard, are found entire. They are placed on wooden couches, which the natives had the art of rendering ſo hard, that they are impenetrable to iron. Some of the caves contained 2 or 300 bodies.

GRAND CANARIA, or GREAT CANARY, is about 150 miles in circumference. The capital, called Palma, is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the iſland, and has a caſtle, but its beſt defence is a vaſt number of ſunken rocks, which render the approach to the ſhore very dangerous. It is an epiſcopal ſee; the inquiſition, the ſupreme council, or aſſembly of the ſtates of the ſeven iſlands, and ſeveral convents of monks, friars, and nuns, are eſtabliſhed here.

PALMA is ſituated about fifty miles to the weſt of Teneriffe, and 200 weſt of the continent of Africa. It lies in 29 deg. north lat. and 18 deg. weſt long. It is about thirty miles long, twenty broad, and ſeventy in circumference. This iſland, beſides ſugar and wines, produces gum-dragon and pitch; pine-apples are alſo plentiful here. Poultry and animals are much the ſame here as in Canaria; except, indeed, among the animals, it particularly abounds with rabbits. It is ſubject to earthquakes; and in 1750, a large body of fire iſſued from a volcano in one of the mountains, and took its courſe with great rapidity to the town of Palma, from whence it ſpread to the ſea, and there diſcharged itſelf.

On the north-eaſt part is a lofty and ſpacious mountain called the Cauldron, from having a hollow in it. The deſcent within the cauldron, which proceeds gradually from the ſummit, contains a ſpace of about 30 acres, and on the declivity of the inſide are ſeveral ſprings that form a ſtream which iſſues out from the extremity of the mountain. Near the ſea ſhore, on the ſouth ſide of the iſland is a medicinal well of hot water, and at a village called Uguar, is a cave, at the extremity of which is a curious grotto with the roof ſtuck with large flakes of ſlate ſtones, from between which conſtantly iſſues a flow of clear and wholeſome water.

In the winter the air is ſo exceeding ſharp up the mountain, that the inhabitants are obliged to keep fires burning night and day; whereas near the ſea-ſide they only have them for cooking and other occaſional purpoſes. In the months of July, Auguſt, and September, the heat near the ſea ſhore is intolerable, while in the mountainous parts the air is pleaſant and refreſhing.

Their beſt vines grow in a ſoil called the Brenia, where it is ſaid they make at leaſt 12,000 caſks of wine every year. The wines differ in their quality from thoſe made in the other iſlands; but they are very rich, and have an excellent flavour. They have likewiſe great plenty of honey, and moſt kinds of fruit, the latter of which grow in ſuch abundance, that they export great quantities of them to the other iſlands.

Palma, the principal town in this iſland, ſo called after its name, is tolerably large, and well inhabited. The houſes are low, but ſpacious; and in one part of the town is a very handſome church. A conſiderable trade is carried on here in wines, which are exported to various parts, but particularly to the Weſt-Indies.

There is another very neat town in this iſland, called St. Andrew's where there are four engines for making ſugar; but the land hereabouts is very poor, ſo that the inhabitants are ſupplied with grain, and other neceſſary articles, from the iſland of Teneriffe.

The chief port is called Palma; and is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the iſland. The road is about a quarter of a mile from the ſhore; and though it is open to the eaſterly winds, the ſhips ride with great ſafety.

The iſland of HIERO, having neither ſpring, fountain, nor well, is ſaid to have been formerly ſupplied with water by means of a particular ſpecies of trees, which yielded a large quanity in the night, when their tops were always enveloped in a cloud; but now the inhabitants ſave the rain-water in ciſterns, and, when that fails, filtrate brackiſh water through ſand.

GOMERA is ſituated to the weſt of Teneriffe, in 28 deg. north lat. and 18 deg. weſt long. from London. It is about 30 miles long. 20 broad, and 60 in compaſs. This is a very plentiful iſland, being watered by many rivulets that flow from the mountainous parts, and give fertility to the vallies beneath: beſides this, water may be had in any part of the iſland, by digging to the depth of about ſix feet. The inhabitants have great plenty of all the neceſſaries of life, particularly cattle, poultry, wine, roots, fruit, honey, and ſugar. There is but one ſmall town, near the ſea-ſhore, and called after the name of the iſland.

FUERTEVENTURA is about 24 leagues diſtant from Grand Canaria. It is about 65 miles in length, and of a very unequal breadth, conſiſting of two peninſulas, joined by an iſthumus of 12 miles over. On the north ſide there is a haven called Chabras, and another, which is very commodious, towards the weſt. Wheat, barley, kine, goats, and orchel, are found in this iſland, which belongs to the lord of Lancerota.

The iſland of LANCEROTA, or Langarote, lies in 28 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 13 deg. 5 min. weſt long. It is ſituated about 18 leagues ſouth-eaſt of Grand Canaria, and is nearly 32 miles long, and 22 broad. The whole iſland is parted in the middle by a ridge of rocks, on which feed goats, ſheep, camels, genets, and aſſes.

The vallies are dry and ſandy, reſembling the rye fields in England; but they yield tolerable good barley and wheat: the firſt harveſt being about April, and the ſecond in September. The principal commodities are goats fleſh and orchel, and the whole is an eſtate or earldom, belonging to the family of Herrara, the head of that family being always lord of Fuerteventura and Lancerota. The people, however, in both iſlands have the liberty of appeal to the king's judges in Grand Canaria. Boats go from hence weekly to Grand Canaria, Teneriffe, and Palma, laden chiefly with dried goats fleſh, which is uſed in the manner of bacon, and is not bad eating.

This iſland was attacked in 1596, and taken by the Engliſh under the command of Leonidas, Earl of Cumberland, who, after ranſacking it, departed the iſland.

Lancerota is very high, and may be ſeen at a great diſtance, its appearance being black and barren. The principal port, which lies on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland, is called Porte de Naos, and the harbour is tolerably ſecure for ſmall veſſels; indeed, it is deemed the beſt belonging to the Canary Iſlands, and is much frequented for its conveniency in repairing and cleanſing ſhips. This port is without any town, or indeed houſes, except ſtore-houſes, magazines, and barracks for ſoldiers. The caſtle at the weſt end of

the harbour is of no conſequence, as a ſhip of force might eaſily batter it down. A channel divides Lancerota from the little iſland called Gracioſa, which is uninhabited; and this channel is named the harbour of El Rio. Near this harbour is a ſalt-work in Lancerota, which turns to a tolerable account.

Kubicon, or Cayas, is the principal town of this iſland. It is about ſix miles from Porte de Naos, and is what was formerly called Lancerota. At preſent it contains about 200 indifferent houſes.

The inhabitants of this iſland chiefly uſe rain water, which is caught in pits and ciſterns adapted for that purpoſe, as they have but few wells or ſprings. The breed of horſes has dwindled and degenerated in this iſland, as well as in Fuerteventura. Aſſes are preferred here as they are there, and for the ſame reaſons. The aſſes, indeed, in both theſe iſlands, are uſed not only for carrying burthens and riding, but for ploughing up the land; ſo that they are deemed of general utility.

No venomous creature infeſts either Lancerota, or Fuerteventura, except the black ſpider. This, however, is ſufficient to terrify the people, as its ſting is extremely painful, and very dangerous.

The ſeas which interſect and ſurround theſe iſlands afford the inhabitants plenty of fiſh, particularly cod, much finer than what is caught on the banks of Newfoundland; and a very ſingular fiſh, called the picudo, or ſea pike, the bite of which is as venomous as that of a viper; yet, when dreſſed, it is pleaſant and wholeſome food.

The MADEIRAS, which conſiſt of three iſlands, are ſituated between the 17th and 18th deg. of weſt long. and between the 32d and 33d of north lat. they lie about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many weſt of Sallee in Morocco.

Mattera, the principal iſland of the three, which has given name to the others, is about 75 miles in length, 60 in breadth, and 180 in circumference.—Though there is ſome reaſon to ſuppoſe that this iſland was not unknown to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, till the Portugueſe diſcovered it in 1519, took poſſeſſion of it, and are, even at this time, almoſt the only people who inhabit it. According to ſome authors, John Machin, an Engliſhman, diſcovered this iſland in 1344; but, allowing this to be true, it is certain that the Engliſh never made any ſettlement. At their firſt landing, the Portugueſe, finding the country little better than a thick foreſt, gave it the name of Madeira, or Mattera, and, in order to render the land capable of cultivation, ſet fire to the woods. It is now very fertile, yielding corn, ſugar, honey, wax, and the moſt delicious fruits; particularly oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and grapes. It is ſaid that this was the firſt place in the weſt, where the ſugar manufacture was ſet on foot, and indeed the produce exceeds that of every other country, being extremely beautiful, and poſſeſſing a natural ſcent of violets: but the Portugueſe, finding that the profit on this article began to decline, have deſtroyed the chief part of their ſugar canes, and planted vineyards, which produce ſeveral ſorts of excellent wines, particularly Madeira, malmſey, and tent, of all which the inhabitants make and ſell prodigious quantities. It is ſaid that no leſs than 10,000 hogſheads are annually exported, the chief part of which go the Weſt Indies, particularly Barbadoes, where the heat of the climate adds greatly to its perfection: it is afterwards ſent to England. Beſides numerous groves of cedar trees, with which the whole iſland is adorned, it produces thoſe which yield dragon's blood, maſtic, and other gums. It abounds alſo with boars and other wild beaſts, and with all ſorts of fowls. The inhabitants excel even thoſe of Genoa in making ſweetmeats, marmalades, and perfumed paſtes, and likewiſe in preſerving citrons, oranges, &c.

The moſt conſiderable town in the whole iſland is ſituated at the bottom of a large bay, on the ſouth part of it, and called Fonchial. It is defended towards the ſea by a high wall and a battery of cannon, which, together with the large ſtones that cover the beach, and the violent ſurf that continually beats againſt it, renders the place very ſecure againſt the attacks of an enemy.

Of the other two iſlands, that called Porto Santo, which is only eight miles in circumference, lies at a ſmall diſtance from Madeira, and is under the juriſdiction of the ſame biſhop and governor. It is exceeding fertile, and abounds in excellent honey and wax. The other is ſcarce worthy notice, being not only of very ſmall extent, but likewiſe entirely barren; for which reaſon the Portugueſe have given it the expreſſive appellation of the Deſolate Iſle.

The AZORES, likewiſe called the Weſtern Iſlands, are ſituated between the 25th and 32d deg. of weſt long. and between the 37th and 40th of north lat. lying almoſt in the mid-way between Europe, Africa, and America. They are nine in number, viz. Santa Maria, St. Miguel, Tercera, St. George, Gracioſa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were diſcovered in the middle of the 15th century, by Joſhua Vanderberg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Liſbon, was by ſtreſs of weather driven to theſe iſlands, which he found deſtitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemiſh Iſlands. On his arrival at Liſbon, he boaſted of this diſcovery, on which the Portugueſe ſet ſail immediately, and took poſſeſſion of them, to whom they now belong, and were by them called Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons which they found there.

The moſt conſiderable of theſe iſlands is St. Miguel, or St. Michael, being 100 miles in circumference. It is very fertile and populous, producing plenty of corn and wine, and containing upwards of 50,000 inhabitants, excluſive of eccleſiaſtics, monks, and nuns. Its two principal towns and harbours are Porta Delgada and Villa Franca. This iſland was twice invaded and plundered by the Engliſh in the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

All theſe iſlands have one or more harbours; but the beſt among them is in Tercera, which is very ſpacious, and guarded by two forts, that at the ſame time defend Angra, the capital. This city is the reſidence of the governor of the Azores, and the biſhop. It alſo contains eight convents, ſeveral courts and offices, and five churches, beſides the cathedral, and is a populous well built town.

The reſt of the iſlands are equally fertile, and it may be obſerved of the Azores in general, that they enjoy a very clear and ſerene ſky, with a ſalubrious air, but are ſubject to violent earthquakes, by which they have frequently ſuffered, and likewiſe by inundations.

Before we take leave of Africa, it may be neceſſary to remark, what we have hinted before, that notwithſtanding the amazing diſcoveries of Columbus, anno 1492, there ſtill remain ſome countries, either abſolutely unknown, or very ſuperficially ſurveyed. It is, however, certain, that the rivers in this quarter of the globe bring down large quantities of gold, and that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country bleſſed with a variety of climates, ſome of them the fineſt in the world. But it muſt at the ſame time be acknowledged, that the moderns are acquainted only with the ſea-coaſts of Africa, and thoſe very imperfectly; the internal parts being little known to us: nor have we any ſatisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, productions, or trade, which may in a great meaſure be aſcribed to the rude and barbarous ſtate wherein the natives have continued for a ſucceſſion of ages, which, together with the great danger that muſt attend penetrating into a country over-run with the moſt ferocious animals, render a complete ſurvey of it abſolutely impracticable.

A NEW

A NEW

HISTORICAL AND COMMERCIAL

SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY.

AMERICA.

INTRODUCTION.

IN this fourth diviſion of the terraqueous globe, ſeveral important objects preſent themſelves to our conſideration, namely, a deſcription of the New World, comprehending the continent of America, the Weſt-Indies, and various iſlands and places in the ſouthern hemiſphere.

Few diſcoveries have produced greater conſequences than that of America, which, being ſeparated by vaſt and boiſterous oceans from the reſt of the world, continued ſeveral thouſand years unknown. Venice and Genoa had long poſſeſſed the valuable commerce of the Eaſt, then carried on by the Red Sea; and, in conſequence of that lucrative traffick, were become the greateſt maritime powers of Europe; but though, by frequent voyages, ſeveral improvements had been introduced in the practical part of navigation, and mathematical learning began to be eſteemed in Europe; yet the knowledge of mankind was even then very imperfect, and hardly extended beyond their ſenſible horizon. However, from the ſubſequent relations, it will appear, that even the ages of ignorance are not deſtitute of men, whoſe geniuſes, ſoaring far above the contracted ſphere of their cotemporaries, make diſcoveries in ſcience thought impoſſible, and form deſigns which at once excite the envy and aſtoniſhment of mankind. As this fertile and extenſive country owes leſs to the hand of art, and more to that of nature than any other quarter of the globe; we ſhall therefore, previous to a geographical account of it, give our readers a circumſtantial detail of its firſt diſcovery.

The 15th century ſeems to have been an æra allotted by Providence for changing the diſpoſitions of mankind, and enriching the world with the moſt important diſcoveries; ſuch as, the invention of printing, the making of gunpowder, the improvement of navigation, the revival of ancient learning, and the reformation of religion—events which will render that period famous to the lateſt poſterity. It was towards the cloſe of it, when Chriſtopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, poſſeſſed of great knowledge, penetration, and ſkill in the mathematics, conceived the ſtupendous project of ſailing weſtward to the Indies, and of opening to his country a new ſource of opulence and power. This noble propoſal being rejected by the Genoeſe as chimerical, Columbus, ſtung with indignation and diſguſt, retired from his country, and applied to the court of France; but the French, with their uſual levity and ſelf-ſufficiency, laughed at and ridiculed both the projector and his deſign. A ſimilar application was made to Henry VII. of England; but the cautious politics of that prince prevented his embarking in a great but uncertain undertaking. He met with no better encouragement from the Portugueſe, who, contenting themſelves with creeping along the coaſt of Africa, and diſcovering one cape after another, had no thoughts of venturing boldly into the open ſea, and of riſking the whole at once. Columbus, however, whoſe ſpirit was too great to be broken by theſe repeated diſappointments, at length applied to the court of Spain, where, after eight years attendance, he met with ſucceſs, chiefly through the ſuperior penetration and intereſt of Queen Iſabella, who patronized the plan, and raiſed money upon her jewels to defray the expence of the expedition.

In the year 1492, Columbus ſet ſail with three ſhips only, upon the moſt adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man; and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage, he had many difficulties to encounter with; the moſt affecting was, the variation of the compaſs, then firſt obſerved, and which ſeemed to indicate that the laws of nature were altered on an unknown ocean, and the only guide he had left was ready to forſake him; and his ſailors, always diſcontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and inſiſted on their return, but by his own firmneſs and perſeverence, after a voyage of thirty-three days, he landed on one of the Bahama iſlands.

On Thurſday, the 11th of October 1492, about ten at night, the admiral firſt diſcovered a light upon the iſland of Guanahani, or St. Salvador, as the admiral named it, in conſideration that the ſight of it delivered both him and his men from periſhing. About two in the morning, the ſhip called the Pinta, the beſt ſailer of the three, and which, therefore, uſually kept a head of the admiral, gave the ſignal for land, which was ſeen with the naked eye, when they were ſcarce two leagues from the ſhore, by Roderick de Triana, one of the common ſeamen on board the Pinta, who had not, however, a reward that was promiſed to the firſt diſcoverer, it being adjudged that the admiral was the firſt diſcoverer, becauſe he ſaw a light on the iſland the night before. The crew of the Pinta inſtantly ſang the Te Deum, as a hymn of thankſgiving to God, and were joined by thoſe of the other ſhips, with tears of joy, and tranſports of congratulation. This office of gratitude to heaven was followed by an act of juſtice to their commander; they threw themſelves at the feet of Columbus,

with

with feelings of ſelf-condemnation mingled with reverence, and implored him to pardon their ignorance, incredulity, and inſolence.

The day appearing, the ſhips came to an anchor very near the iſland, which they computed to be about fifteen leagues in length, and found it to be populous, well planted, and watered with a great lake, but generally flat, low land, without hills: the natives came down crowding to the ſhore, and ſeemed aſtoniſhed at the ſight of the ſhips; and the admiral believing there was no great danger to be apprehended from them, went on ſhore, richly dreſſed, in his boat, with the royal ſtandard, and a naked ſword in his hand; as did the other two captains in their boats with warlike muſic and colours flying. They no ſooner came on ſhore, but they kneeled down, gave God thanks for their ſucceſs, and kiſſed the ground with tears of joy; after which the admiral ſtood up, and having reared the royal ſtandard, called the iſland by the name of St. Salvador, taking poſſeſſion of it in the name of their Catholic majeſties, with great ſolemnity; after which his people recognized him their admiral and viceroy, and ſwore to obey him during the voyage.

The Indians, in the mean time, ſtood gazing at the Spaniards, without attempting to oppoſe them, while they were thus taking poſſeſſion of their country; and the admiral ordered ſome ſtrings of glaſs-beads, caps, and toys of ſmall value, that made a glittering ſhow, to be diſtributed amongſt the natives; at which they ſeemed infinitely pleaſed, and immediately hung the beads about their necks, teſtifying, by all the ſigns imaginable, the value they ſet upon theſe preſents. They were all perfectly naked, of a middle ſtature, and olive complexion, their features juſt, only their foreheads of the largeſt; their eyes black as well as their hair, which was generally cut ſhort about their ears, though others wore it long, and tied up; ſome of them alſo had their bodies painted with a kind of vermillion, and others only painted their faces with it. The principal ornament about them was a thin gold plate, in the form of a creſcent, which hung from the noſe over the upper-lip, and on their arms were ſpears, pointed with the bones of fiſh. When the admiral returned to his ſhips, they followed him; ſome ſwimming, and others in their canoes, a veſſel made out of the body of a tree, ſome of which would hold forty men and others not more than two. When they came on board, they brought parrots and cotton-yarn, and all the merchandize they had to exchange for European trifles. They ſeemed to ſet a value upon every piece of broken glaſs or earthen-ware, jumping into the ſea, and ſwimming to ſhore with ſuch trifles, with abundance of joy. But they admired nothing more than the ſwords, and bright arms of the Spaniards, being at that time perfectly ignorant of the uſe of iron.

The admiral demanding, as well as he could by ſigns, from whence they had their gold plates, they pointed to the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, where they gave the Spaniards to underſtand, there were ſeveral large countries well furniſhed with that precious metal. The admiral rowed in his boats round the iſland, to diſcover if there was any thing worth ſettling there, being followed by the iſlanders every where, who ſeemed to adore him and his people, as if they were come from heaven. From this iſland he ſailed to another of the Bahama iſlands, which he called St. Mary of Conception, and having viewed this, and ſeveral more of theſe iſlands, and found nothing to invite him to ſtay here, he took ſeven of the natives with him, and ſet ſail for the great Iſland of Cuba, which lies to the ſouthward of the Bahama iſlands, arriving there on Sunday, the 28th of October: here they found ſome houſes on the ſhore, but the people all fled up into the mountains on their approach; whereupon two Spaniards and two Indians were ſent up into the country to get intelligence; who, returning again the 5th of November, reported they travelled about twelve leagues within the land, that they came to a town conſiſting of fifty large timber-houſes, thatched, which contained about 1000 people, who came with great reſpect, and kiſſed the two Spaniards' feet, giving them boiled roots to eat. They entreated them alſo to remain in their country; and, when they ſaw them reſolved to return to their ſhips, would accompany their gueſts thither; for the two Indians had informed the natives there was no danger to be feared from the Spaniards. There were ſeveral other towns the Spaniards reported they had ſeen in their journey, where they were hoſpitably entertained, and ſaid the country was well planted with oaks, pines, palms, and cotton-ſhrubs, and ſown with Indian corn. But it being demanded of the natives, if they had any gold or precious ſtones, they pointed towards the eaſt, intimating, that in a great country, called Bohio, and which the Spaniards afterwards named Hiſpaniola, there was plenty of theſe things. Whereupon the captain determined to ſail eaſtward, and taking twelve of the natives of Cuba, men, women, and children, with him, the huſband of one of the women, and father of two of the children, who had been carried on board, came in a canoe to the ſhip, and deſired he might alſo go with them, and not be parted from his wife and children; whereupon the captain ordered him to be taken on board; and ſetting ſail from Cuba the 5th of December, arrived the next day at the iſland of Bohio, about ſixteen leagues to the eaſtward of Cuba; and here obſerving the country to reſemble that of Spain in ſeveral particulars, he gave it the name of Hiſpaniola; called its principal port Nativity; built a fort, placed a garriſon in it of thirty-three men, and then returned to Spain to give an account of his expedition.

The Spaniſh court was then at Barcelona; he entered that city in triumph, and was received by the court with the utmoſt demonſtrations of joy; and by the people with the loudeſt acclamations. He had the honour of publicly preſenting the plan, and of giving an account of his diſcoveries, to the king and queen of Spain perſonally. The Spaniards now were as eager to promote his deſigns, as they had before been dilatory. He ſet ſail a ſecond time, with a fleet of ſeventeen veſſels, containing 1500 men. In this ſecond voyage, he diſcovered Jamaica, and other iſlands; but the admiration which firſt attended his actions, being changed into envy, his enemies prejudiced the court againſt him, and he was obliged to return to Europe to juſtify his conduct.

After having cleared himſelf from the aſperſions of his foes, he proceeded on his third, and moſt important voyage; the ſucceſs of which is thus deſcribed: "On the 1ſt of Auguſt 1498, the man ſtationed in the round top ſurpriſed them with the joyful cry of land. They ſtood towards it, and diſcovered a conſiderable iſland, which the admiral called Trinidad, a name it ſtill retains. It lies on the north coaſt of Guiana, near the mouth of the Orinoco. This river, though only of the third or fourth magnitude in the New World, far ſurpaſſes any of the ſtreams in our hemiſphere. It rolls towards the ocean ſuch a vaſt body of water, and ruſhes into it with ſuch impetuous force, that when it meets the tide, which on that coaſt riſes to an uncommon height, their colliſion occaſions a ſwell and agitation of the waves, no leſs ſurpriſing than formidable. In this conflict, the irreſiſtible torrent of the river ſo far prevails, that it freſhens the ocean many leagues with its flood. Columbus, before he could perceive the danger, was entangled among thoſe adverſe currents, and tempeſtuous waves; and it was with the utmoſt difficulty that he eſcaped through a narrow ſtreight; which appeared ſo tremendous, that he called it La Boca del Drago. As ſoon as the conſternation which this occaſioned permitted him to reflect upon the nature of an appearance ſo extraordinary, he diſcerned in it

a ſource of comfort and hope; he juſtly concluded, that ſuch a vaſt body of water, as this river contained, could not be ſupplied by any iſland, but muſt flow through a country of immenſe extent, and of conſequence, that he was now arrived at that continent which it had long been the object of his wiſhes to diſcover. Nor was he miſtaken; for it amply anſwered his expectations." Many reaſons obliged him to return to Hiſpaniola, in his way to which he diſcovered the iſlands of Cubagua and Margarita, which afterwards became remarkable for their pearl fiſhery.

This great man, however, was obliged to ſubmit to innumerable mortifications; for ſuch were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that after all his ſervices in making one half of the world known to the other, he was treated like a traitor, and carried to Europe in irons. When he arrived in Spain, the court began to be aſhamed of their ungenerous treatment of this great man, and orders were inſtantly iſſued to ſet him at liberty. He vindicated his conduct, in the preſence of the king and queen, in the moſt ſatisfactory manner, and gave ample evidence of the malevolence of his enemies. Ferdinand and Iſabella expreſſed their ſorrow for what had happened, diſavowed their knowledge of it, and joined in promiſing him protection and future favour. This great man, however, retained a deep ſenſe of the indignity with which he had been treated; the fetters that he had been loaded with were conſtantly hung up in his chamber, and he gave orders that when he died they ſhould be buried in his grave. But, notwithſtanding the ill treatment which he had received, he undertook another voyage, in order to make further diſcoveries; in the courſe of which he underwent great fatigues; and, returning to Spain, ended his life at Valladolid, on the 20th of May 1506, in the 59th year of his age; dying, it is ſaid, with abundance of reſignation, under a ſenſe, no doubt, that the moſt important ſervices, attended by the moſt ſurpriſing ſucceſs, were thrown away upon an ungrateful nation: he ſaw they could not procure him a continuance of the fame he had ſo juſtly acquired, or a moment's repoſe in his old age; and that there was no reſt, or real felicity to be found on this ſide the grave. After his death indeed, his Catholic majeſty was ſo juſt to this great man, as to bury him magnificently in the cathedral of Seville, and to erect a tomb to his memory, with an inſcription, importing,

A new-found world, Columbus brave
To Caſtile and to Leon gave.

Columbus had the glory of rendering one half of the world known to the other; a glory ſo much the more precious, as it was unſullied by cruelty or rapine, which disfigured all the exploits of thoſe who came after him, and completed his plan. The ſucceeding governors of Cuba and Hiſpaniola endeavoured to purchaſe, by the blood of the natives, thoſe advantages which Columbus had obtained by his wiſe conduct and moderation. The above-mentioned iſlands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew their ſituation; and the inſatiable avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of perſuaſion, hurried them on to acts of the moſt ſhocking violence and barbarity againſt thoſe unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treaſure. The ſlaughter once begun, they ſet no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hiſpaniola, which contained 3,000,000 of the inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de la Caſas, a witneſs of thoſe atrocious depopulations, ſays, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy ſavages, almoſt naked and unarmed, were purſued like deer in the thick of the foreſts, devoured by dogs, killed by gun-ſhot, or ſurpriſed and burnt in their habitations. The ſame want of regard either to juſtice or mercy marked the future proceedings of the Spaniards; impelled by a thirſt for gold, Cortez and Pizarro made entire conqueſts of the rich kingdoms of Mexico and Peru, and, after numberleſs acts of the baſeſt treachery and tyranny, reduced the ſurviving parties to the moſt abject bondage and ſubjection. Theſe conqueſts were no leſs extraordinary for the trivial means by which they were accompliſhed, than for the ſhortneſs of time in which they were completed; for, from the departure of Columbus, in 1492, to the entire reduction of Chili; which happened in 1541, ſeven large kingdoms, inhabited by a vaſt number of warlike nations, were reduced under the Spaniſh yoke.

CHAP. I.

A General Deſcription of the Manners, Cuſtoms, Government, Religion, Character, &c. of the Natives of America.

WE now proceed to the ſtudy of thoſe particulars reſpecting different nations, which has always been conſidered as one of the moſt important branches of human learning. Perhaps in America only, it is poſſible to attain a thorough knowledge of mankind, unbiaſſed by education, unimproved by learning, and untainted by corruption. Though divided into an infinite number of nations and tribes, they differ very little from each other in their manners and cuſtoms, and all form a ſtriking portrait of the moſt diſtant nations. Whoever examines with attention the manners of the Americans, ſtudies, in ſome meaſure, the antiquities of all nations; and from which conſiderable light may be thrown upon many paſſages in ancient writers, both ſacred and profane.

The Americans are tall, and have ſtraight limbs: their bodies are ſtrong, but of a ſpecies of ſtrength rather adapted to ſupport a ſeries of hardſhip, than to perform laborious work: it is the ſtrength of a beaſt of prey, rather than that of a beaſt of burden. Their bodies and heads are flattiſh, the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, and ſtrong, as that of a horſe. They have no beards. The colour of their ſkin is of a reddiſh brown, which, being admired among them, is improved by the conſtant uſe of bears fat and paint.

The character of the Indians is founded upon their circumſtances and way of life; on any ſerious occaſion they are grave even to ſadneſs; obſervant of thoſe in company; reſpectful to the aged; of a temper cool and deliberate, they never ſpeak before they have well conſidered the matter, and are ſure the perſon who ſpoke before them has entirely finiſhed. Hence they have the greateſt contempt for the vivacity of the Europeans, who continually interrupt each other, and frequently ſpeak all together. Nothing is more edifying than their behaviour in their aſſemblies and public councils. Every man there is heard in his turn, according as his years, his wiſdom, or his ſervices to his country have ranked him. No indecent condemnation or ill-timed applauſe is ever heard. The young attend for inſtruction. Here they learn the hiſtory of their nation; here they are inflamed with the ſongs of thoſe who celebrate the heroic actions of their anceſtors; and here they are taught the intereſts of their country, and the manner in which they ought to be purſued, The laws of hoſpitality are ſacred among them. Their generoſity to their friends is unbounded; but to the enemies of his country, or to thoſe who have privately offended,

the American is implacable. He conceals his ſentiments, he appears reconciled, until by ſome treachery or ſurpriſe he has an opportunity of executing a horrible revenge. To ſuch extremes do the Indians puſh their friendſhip or their enmity; and ſuch indeed, in general, is the character of all uncultivated minds.

The prevailing paſſion of the Americans is liberty in its fulleſt extent. To this they ſacrifice every thing. This is what renders a life of uncertainty and want ſupportable; and their education is directed principally to cultivate and cheriſh this diſpoſition. They know no puniſhment but death; and even when this is inflicted, it is rather a conſequence of a ſpecies of war declared againſt a public enemy, than an act of judicial power executed on a citizen or ſubject. This free diſpoſition is general, and though ſome tribes are found in America, with a head, whom they call a king, his power is rather perſuaſive than coercive, and he is reverenced as a father more than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no priſons, no officers of juſtice. The other forms, which may be conſidered as a ſpecies of ariſtocracy, have no more power. In ſome tribes, indeed, there ſubſiſts a kind of hereditary nobility, who, when they come to years of diſcretion, are entitled to a ſeat and vote in the council of their nation, from which the reſt are excluded. Their great council is compoſed of theſe heads of tribes and families, with ſuch whoſe capacity has raiſed them to the ſaid degree of conſideration. Theſe councils are public, and in them all matters which concern the ſtate are propoſed and determined. Here their orators are employed, and diſplay thoſe talents which diſtinguiſh them for eloquence and the knowledge of buſineſs, in both which ſome of them are admirable. Their principal ſkill conſiſts in giving an artful turn to affairs, and in expreſſing their thoughts in a bold, figurative manner, ſtronger than the refined nations of Europe can bear, and with geſtures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expreſſive.

The ſame council of their elders regulates whatever regards the internal peace and order of the ſtate. Their ſuits are few and quickly decided, having neither property nor art ſufficient to render them perplexed or tedious. Criminal matters come before the ſame juriſdiction, when they are ſo flagrant as to become a national concern. In ordinary caſes, the crime is either revenged or compromiſed by the parties concerned. The ſupreme authority of the nation beholds the action without concern, and never rouſes its ſtrength, nor exerts the fulneſs of a power more revered than felt, but upon the ſame ſignal occaſion. Then the power ſeems equal to the occaſion. Every one haſtens to execute the orders of their ſenate; nor ever was there an inſtance of diſloyalty or rebellion known among this people. Governed as they are by manners, not by laws, example and education inſpire them with the moſt religious regard for their conſtitution, and the cuſtoms of their anceſtors.—Family love, ſo rare among us, is a virtue among them, of which all partake. Friendſhips are found among them that may vie with thoſe of fabulous antiquity; and where ſuch friendſhips exiſt, the families concerned congratulate themſelves as upon an acquiſition that promiſes to them a mutual ſtrength, and to their nation the greateſt honour and advantage.

This band of friendſhip connects the whole ſociety; and the loſs of any one of their people, whether by war or a natural death, is lamented by the whole town to which he belongs. No buſineſs, however important, is taken in hand, no rejoicing, however intereſting the occaſion, is heard, till all the pious ceremonies due to the dead are performed; and theſe are always executed with the greateſt ſolemnity. The dead body is waſhed, anointed, and painted, ſo as in ſome meaſure to abate the horrors of death. It is then followed by the whole village with mourning and lamentations to the grave, and there interred in the moſt pompous ornaments of the deceaſed.—His bow and arrows, together with the things he moſt valued, and proviſions for the long journey he is to take, are placed by him in the grave. After the funeral, thoſe who are nearly allied to him conceal themſelves a conſiderable time in their huts to indulge their grief. The compliments of condolence are never omitted, nor are preſents wanting on this occaſion. After ſome time, they reviſit the grave, they renew their ſorrow, they clothe the remains of the body in new ornaments, and repeat the ſolemnities of the firſt interment.

But the moſt ſtriking inſtance of their friendſhip, and, at the ſame time, the greateſt inſtance of their regard to their deceaſed brethren, is what they call the feaſt of the dead, or the feaſt of ſouls: a feaſt celebrated every eight or ten years. The day for this ceremony is appointed in the council of their chiefs, who give orders for every thing neceſſary for celebrating it with pomp and magnificence. The riches of the nation is exhauſted on this occaſion, and all the ingenuity of the Indians diſplayed. The neighbouring people are invited to partake of the feaſt, and be witneſſes of the ſolemnity. All thoſe who have died ſince the laſt feaſt of ſouls are now taken out of their graves. Thoſe who have been interred at the greateſt diſtance from the villages are diligently ſought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcaſes.

The horror of this general diſinterment is painted in a ſtriking manner, by the ingenious Lafitau:—"Without queſtion, ſays that elegant writer, the opening of theſe tombs diſplays one of the moſt ſtriking ſcenes that can be conceived;—this humbling portrait of human miſery, in ſo many images of death, wherein ſhe ſeems to take a pleaſure in painting herſelf in a thouſand ſhapes of horror, in the ſeveral carcaſes, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered, others have a ſort of parchment upon their bones, ſome look as if they were baked and ſmoked, without any appearance of rottenneſs; ſome are juſt turning towards the point of putrefaction, while others are ſwarming with the worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to ſtrike us moſt, the horror of ſo ſhocking a ſpectacle, or the tender piety and affection of theſe poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing ſurely deſerves our admiration more, than the eager diligence and attention with which they diſcharge this melancholy duty of their tenderneſs; handling the carcaſes, loathſome and diſguſting as they are, cleanſing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their ſhoulders through tireſome journeys of ſeveral days, without being diſcouraged by their inſupportable ſtench, and without ſuffering any other emotions to ariſe, than thoſe of regret for having loſt perſons who were ſo dear to them in their lives." When all the bodies they can poſſibly collect are brought to the great rendezvous of mortality, they are dreſſed in the fineſt ſkins they can procure. A feaſt is held on this ſolemn occaſion, when their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourſes that took place between them are recounted. A large pit is dug in the ground, and the bodies re-interred with pomp, with mourning, and with lamentation. In this manner they endeavour to ſoothe the calamities of life by the honours they pay to their dead; honours which are the more cheerfully paid, becauſe each in his turn expects to receive them himſelf. Though among theſe ſavage natives this cuſtom is impreſſed with ſtrong marks of the ferocity of their nature, an honour for the dead, a tender feeling of their abſence, and a revival of their memory, are ſome of the moſt excellent inſtruments for ſmoothing our rugged

nature

nature into humanity. In civilized nations ſuch ceremonies are leſs practiſed, becauſe other inſtruments for the ſame purpoſes are leſs wanted; but it is certain a regard for the dead is ancient and univerſal.

The principal occupations of a North American Indian are hunting and war. He is never conſidered as a brave and uſeful man among his tribe, till he has increaſed the ſtrength of his country with a captive, or adorned his hut with the ſcalp of an enemy. When their chiefs reſolve upon a war, they do not always declare what nation they mean to attack, that the enemy upon whom they intend to fall may be off his guard. Sometimes whole years are ſuffered to elapſe, that the vigilance of the enemy may be entirely ſuſpended by the uncertainty of the danger: in the mean time, they are not idle at home. The principal captain ſummonſes the youth of the town to which he belongs, the war-kettle is ſet on the fire; the war-ſong and dances commence; the hatchet is ſent to all the villages of the ſame nation, and to all its allies, who are expected not only to adopt their enmities, but to have their reſentment wound up to the ſame pitch of reſentment with themſelves: the fire catches, the war-ſongs are heard in all parts, and the moſt hideous howlings, without intermiſſion, day and night, are heard over that whole tract of country. The women add their cries to thoſe of the men, lamenting the friends they have loſt either in war, or by a natural death, and demanding their places to be ſupplied by captives from the enemy. A variety of ceremonies ſucceed; none are forced into the war; but when they have given ſmall billets of wood to the war-captain, they are conſidered as enliſted, and it is then death to recede. All the warriors have their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with daſhes and ſtreaks of vermillion, which give them a moſt horrid appearance. They then exchange their clothes with their friends, and diſpoſe of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a conſiderable diſtance, to receive thoſe laſt tokens of their inviolable friendſhip and eſteem.

The requiſite qualities of an Indian warrior are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a ſurpriſe, and patience and ſtrength to endure the intolerable fatigues and hardſhips which always attend it. The nations of Indians in America are ſeparated by vaſt deſert frontiers, and hid in the boſoms of thick, gloomy, and almoſt boundleſs foreſts: theſe muſt be traverſed before they meet an enemy, who often reſides at ſo great a diſtance as it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe muſt prevent either quarrel or danger. But it ſhould be remembered, that the Indians take no pains to give their wars even a colour of juſtice. Their only motives for attacking an enemy are either to obtain the glory of the victory, or to procure captives, in order to increaſe the ſtrength of their nation, or to furniſh them with victims for the exerciſe of their brutal fury.

The nation they intend to attack is ſometimes wholly ignorant of any danger, and falls an eaſy prey to the unexpected fury of the invaders; but it more frequently happens that the nation devoted to deſtruction has notice of the deſign, and is prepared to take the ſame advantage of the leaſt want of vigilance in the aggreſſors. They never fight in the open field but on ſome very extraordinary occaſions. Secrecy is the ſoul of all their actions, and on this the ſucceſs of the expedition entirely depends. During their tedious march they light no fire to warm themſelves, or dreſs their victuals, but ſubſiſt wholly on the miſerable pittance of a little meal mixed with water; they lie cloſe to the ground during the whole day, and march only in the night, and even then with the greateſt precaution. When they diſcover an army of the enemy, they throw themſelves flat on their faces among the withered leaves, the colour of which their bodies are painted to reſemble exactly. They generally let a part paſs unmoleſted, and then riſing a little, and ſetting up a moſt tremendous ſhout, which they call the War-hoop, they pour a ſtorm of muſket-bullets upon the enemy. The party attacked returns the ſame cry, and every man ſhelters himſelf behind a tree, and returns the fire of the adverſe party the moment they riſe themſelves from the ground to give the ſecond fire. After fighting for ſome time in this manner, they leave their covert, and ruſh upon each other with ſmall axes, which they dart with great addreſs and dexterity. The conteſt is ſoon decided, and the conquerors ſatiate their ſavage fury with the moſt horrid inſults and barbarities on the dead bodies of the enemy, which they ſcalp, and treat in a manner ſhocking to humanity.

The fate of a North American Indian, who has the misfortune to be taken priſoner, is ſtill more ſevere, unleſs he has the good fortune to pleaſe the capricious humour of the enemy; it being cuſtomary to offer a ſlave to each cottage that has loſt a friend, and he is either received into the family, or ſentenced to death. If the former, the priſoner is adopted in the place of the father, ſon, or huſband that is loſt; and no other mark of captivity remains, than a prohibition of returning; to attempt this would be certain death: but if the priſoner is refuſed, it is no longer in the power of any one to ſave him. The nation is aſſembled; a ſcaffold is raiſed, and the priſoner is faſtened to the ſtake. He immediately opens his death-ſong, and prepares for the enſuing ſcene of cruelty with a moſt undaunted courage, while his perſecutors make ready to put it to the utmoſt proof by every torment which the mind of man, ingenious in miſchief, can invent. The priſoner ſuffers all their tortures with a conſtancy and reſolution that appears more than human. Not a groan, not a ſigh, not a diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him; he poſſeſſes his mind entirely in the midſt of his torments; and (aſtoniſhing to relate!) the women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into ſomething worſe than furies, will even outdo the men in this horrid tragedy. It is ſhocking to dwell on a ſcene of cruelty, which degrades human nature to a degree below the ferocious beaſts of the foreſt: let it ſuffice to ſay, that the torments inflicted, could only be invented and executed by perſons nurſed in barbarity, and wholly deſtitute of the common feelings of mankind for objects in diſtreſs. Theſe circumſtances of cruelty, however, ſerve to ſhew, in the ſtrongeſt light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity and infernal rage the paſſions of men may carry them, when untamed by the refinements of poliſhed ſociety, and uninfluenced by the benign dictates of Chriſtianity; a religion that teaches compaſſion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practiſed in other inſtitutions; and which will tend to make us more ſenſible, than ſome appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of civilized life, and the light of literature, which, if they have abated the force of natural virtues, by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewiſe the ſting of our natural vices, ſoftened the ferocity of the human race, improved their intellectual powers, rendered men more uſeful members of ſociety, and, in ſome meaſure, deſerving of the character of rational and accountable beings.

Religion is little known, and leſs practiſed by the American Indians: if we except the inhabitants of Mexico and Peru. The Indians have no temples. Some of them have very little idea of a God: others entertain better notions; they hold the exiſtence of a Supreme Being, eternal and incorruptible, who has power over all things that exiſt. Satisfied with this acknowledgment, they pay him no ſort of worſhip. There are, indeed, nations, who ſeem to pay ſome religious homage to the ſun and moon; and as moſt of them have a notion of the exiſtence of inviſible beings who intermeddle in their affairs, they often

often mention demons and other ſpirits, particularly one whom they call Areſkoui, or the god of war, whom they always invoke before they march againſt an enemy. They have alſo ceremonies that ſeem to ſhew they had once a more regular form of religious worſhip; for they make a ſort of oblation of their firſt fruits; obſerve certain ceremonies at the new and full moon, and have in their feſtivals many things that very probably flowed from a religious origin, though they now perform them as things handed down from their anceſtors, without knowing or enquiring into the reaſon. Though deſtitute of religion, they abound in ſuperſtitions. They are great obſervers of omens and dreams, and pry into futurity with the greateſt eagerneſs. Hence their country abounds in diviners, augurs, and magicians; and on their predictions they firmly rely in all their affairs, whether they relate to health, to war, or to hunting.

Agriculture, and the whole care of the family, devolves upon the women: but though they bear the laborious weight of œconomy, they are far from being the ſlaves they appear, and are not at all ſubject to the great ſubordination in which they are placed in countries where they ſeem to be more reſpected. On the contrary, all the honours of the nation are on the ſide of the women. They even hold their councils, and have their ſhare in all deliberations which concern the ſtate; nor are they found inferior to the part they act. Polygamy is practiſed in ſome nations, but it is not general. Incontinent before wedlock, but after marriage the chaſtity of their women is remarkable. The puniſhment of the adultereſs, as well as the adulterer, is in the hands of the huſband himſelf; and it is often ſevere, as it is inflicted by one who is at once the injured party and the judge.

The continent of America, often known by the name of the New World, extends from about 80 deg. north lat. to the Streights of Magellan, in 53 deg. ſouth lat. ſome geographers extend it to the ſouthern extremity of Terra del Fuego, in the lat. of 55 deg. 42 min. but as that country is an iſland, it ought not to be conſidered in the dimenſions of the American continent. The breadth is very various; in ſome places it ſtretches from the 35th to the 136th deg. of long. It is above 9000 Engliſh miles in length, and enjoys the principal climates of both hemiſpheres. It is bounded on the north by unknown countries; on the ſouth by the Southern Ocean; on the eaſt by the Atlantic; and on the weſt by the Great South Sea, or Pacific Ocean. It conſiſts of two large continents, joined together by a narrow neck of land, called the Iſthmus of Darien; and diſtinguiſhed by the epithets north and ſouth. A great variety of iſlands are ſcattered on both ſides of America; but the moſt remarkable are ſituated in a large gulf formed by the coaſts of the northern and ſouthern continents, and thoſe of the Iſthmus of Darien. Some of theſe iſlands are very large, moſt of them fertile, and the greater part full of inhabitants. They are called the Weſt Indies, and will be deſcribed in their proper place.

Theſe continents are ſubdivided into a great number of parts; but before we proceed to lay down theſe ſubdiviſions, and to deſcribe the different countries, it will be proper to take notice of ſome mountains and rivers, which, as it were, diſdain to be confined within the limits of any particular province. The moſt remarkable mountains in South America, form that prodigious chain called the Andes, or Cordilleras. This ridge begins in the Terra Magellanica, the ſouthernmoſt country of South America, traverſes the kingdom of Chili, the provinces of Buenos Ayres, Peru, and Quito; where, contracting themſelves, as it were, for a paſſage through the Iſthmus of Darien, they again expand their ample dimenſions, and continue their courſe through the provinces and kingdoms of Nicaragua, Guatemala, Coſta Rica, St. Miguel, Mexico, La Puebla, and others; with ſeveral arms or ramifications for ſtrengthening, as it were, the conjunction between the northern and ſouthern continents of America. In the province of Quito the Andes form a double chain, called the Cordilleras of the Andes; and between theſe two ridges, the city of Quito, and a large extent of fertile lands are ſituated. The mountains which form the Andes extend above 5000 Engliſh miles in length: nor is their height leſs remarkable than their extent; their ſummits are always covered with ſnow, even in the midſt of the torrid zone. Many of them are volcanoes, and the greater part of them mines of the moſt precious metals. North America has alſo ſeveral lofty and extenſive chains, the principal of which are called the Allegany, or Apalachian mountains.

North America is watered by innumerable rivers, ſome of which are very remarkable, and will be deſcribed in their reſpective provinces. The river Miſſiſſippi, riſing from unknown ſources, runs a prodigious courſe from north to ſouth, and receives the vaſt tribute of the Ohio, the Ouabache, and other immenſe rivers, navigable almoſt to their very ſources, and laying open the inmoſt receſſes of that continent. Near the heads of theſe rivers are five great lakes, or rather ſeas of freſh water, communicating with each other, and all with the ocean by the river St. Laurence. Theſe afford ſuch an inlet for commerce, as muſt be productive of the greateſt advantages, whenever the adjacent countries ſhall be fully inhabited by an induſtrious and civilized people. The eaſtern ſide of North America is watered by the noble rivers of Hudſon, Delawar, Suſquehanna, Patowmack, and ſeveral others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation. Many parts are indeed ſo interſected with navigable rivers and creeks, that great numbers of the planters may, without exaggeration, be ſaid to have each a harbour at his own door.

South America has three of the largeſt rivers in the world, the river of the Amazons, the river Plata, and the river Oroonoko. The firſt has its ſource in the lake of Lauricocha, near the city of Guanaco, in 11 deg. ſouth lat. In its courſe, it receives all the rivers and ſtreams iſſuing from the eaſtern Cordilleras of the Andes, between its ſource, and the government of Popayan, and at laſt becomes rather a ſea than a river, and falls into the ocean under the equinoctial. Its length, reckoning its turnings and windings, is at leaſt 3300 miles. The river Plata riſes in the audience of the ſame name in the eaſtern Cordillera of the Andes, and after running through many territories, and adding fertility to a great extent of country, falls into the ocean with ſuch rapidity, that the water is freſh many leagues from the land. The Oroonoko has its riſe near Popayan, in Terra-Firma, and, after a courſe of 700 miles, falls into the ſea in 9 deg. 13 min. north latitude.

The vaſt extent of South America, which lies on each ſide of the equator, occaſions it to have a variety of ſoils as well as climates. Here are produced moſt the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in other parts of the world, and many of them more valuable and in greater quantities. Europe has been ſupplied with ſuch immenſe quantities of gold and ſilver from America, that thoſe valuable metals are become much more common than formerly; and the gold and ſilver of Europe now bear little proportion to the high price they bore upwards of a century ago. This country alſo produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethyſts, and other coſtly ſtones, which, by being brought in great numbers into Europe, have contributed likewiſe to reduce their value.

Spaniſh America, beſides the chief part of the above-mentioned productions, abounds with a great number of other commodities, which, though of leſs

price, are of much greater uſe. They conſiſt of cochineal, indigo, annatto, logwood, braſil, fuſtic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ginger, cocoa, ſugar, cotton, tobacco, barillas, red-wood, the balſams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili; Jeſuits-bark, mechoacan, ſaſſafras, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, which, before the diſcovery of America, the Europeans bought of the Venetians and Genoeſe at an extravagant price. The ſoil of this continent is ſo fertile, that many exotic productions are raiſed here in great perfection. A variety of excellent fruits alſo grow wild here, as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatons, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants.

America, ſo far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by the Spaniards, Engliſh, and Portugueſe; for the French and Dutch having only ſome forts upon Surinam and Guiana, ſcarcely deſerve to be conſidered as proprietors of any part of the ſouthern continent. The Spaniards, who were the firſt diſcoverers of this country, have the largeſt and richeſt portion, extending from New Mexico and Louiſiana, in North America, to the Streights of Magellan, in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Braſil, which belongs to the Portugueſe.

Before the late unhappy war, Great-Britain was, next to Spain, the moſt conſiderable proprietor of America: ſhe derived her claim to North America from the firſt diſcovery of that continent by Sebaſtian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about ſix years after the diſcovery of South America by Columbus. This country was at firſt called Newfoundland, and it was a long time before the Engliſh attempted to ſettle it. The great Sir Walter Raleigh firſt ſhewed the way, by planting a colony in the ſouthern part, to which he gave the name of Virginia, in honour of his miſtreſs Queen Elizabeth. From this period, till the concluſion of the late war, the French laid a claim to, and actually poſſeſſed Canada and Louiſiana, which included all that extenſive inland country reaching from Hudſon's-Bay, on the north, to Mexico and its gulf on the ſouth; regions which all Europe could not people in many ages: but no territory, how extenſive ſoever, nor could the moſt boundleſs empire gratify the ambition of that aſpiring nation; wherefore, during the moſt ſolemn treaties, they continued to make gradual advances upon the Engliſh back ſettlements, and rendered their acquiſitions more ſecure and permanent, by a chain of forts well ſupplied with all kinds of warlike ſtores. They laboured at the ſame time, by various arts, induſtriouſly to gain the friendſhip of the Indians, even by intermarriages, and not only trained theſe ſavages to the uſe of arms, but infuſed into them the moſt unfavourable notions of the Engliſh, and the ſuperior ſtrength of their nation.

The Britiſh colonies, thus hemmed in, and confined to a ſlip of land along the ſea-coaſt, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals and natural enemies of Great-Britain, began in 1755 to take the alarm. The Britiſh empire in America, ſcarcely raiſed from its infant ſtate, was threatened with a total diſſolution. In their diſtreſs, they ſolicited the aſſiſtance of the mother country. The bulwarks and thunder of England, accompanied with powerful armies, commanded by a ſet of heroes, the Scipios of that age, were ſent to their relief. A long war ſucceeded, in which the coloniſts took an active part, and ſucceſs every-where attended the Britiſh arms; ſo that after a very bloody and obſtinate conteſt, the French were driven from Canada and its dependencies, and obliged to relinquiſh all that part of Louiſiana lying on the eaſt ſide of the Miſſiſſippi. Thus at an immenſe expence, and with the loſs of many brave men, our colonies were preſerved and ſecured to us, whereby we had poſſeſſion of a territy, which, from north to ſouth, extended near 400 miles in a direct line; but to the weſtward our boundaries reached to countries unknown, even to the native Indians; a tract ſuppoſed to be nearly equal to all Europe. But all our flattering proſpects reſpecting the American poſſeſſions are now annihilated by the late unhappy war, which, after a continuance of eight years, with a prodigious expence of blood and treaſure, terminated in their entire diſunion from Great-Britain, and in the eſtabliſhment of a new republic, ſtyled, *The Thirteen United States of America.* This vaſt country is waſhed all the way by the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt, and by the Gulf of Mexico on the ſouth.

The Spaniards, Engliſh, and French, poſſeſs the multitude of iſlands which lie between the two continents of North and South America. Three or four ſmall iſlands indeed belong to the Dutch, but theſe, in any other hands, would be of no conſequence; and the Danes have one or two, but they are too inconſiderable to entitle the owners to a claim on America. The French, it is ſaid, have lately ceded to Sweden the ſmall iſland of St. Bartholomew.

In deſcribing the ſituation, extent, and boundaries of the numerous colonies which now compoſe that great empire, we have totally rejected the accounts given us by partial writers, who have wandered ſo widely from the truth, and who ſeem either unacquainted with the ſubject, or have been at no pains to conſult the lateſt and moſt authentic materials. This we thought neceſſary to premiſe, that the reader may be prepared for the following Table, being compoſed from the lateſt treaties and partitions, and the beſt maps and drawings; the ſureſt guides in giving the geography of theſe important provinces.

The following Tables, exhibit the Situation of the Countries which compoſe North-America with reſpect to each other, and the ſeveral Particulars relative to each.

Colonies.	Length.	Breadth.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.	Belonging to
New Britain	850	750	318,750		Great-Britain
Province of Quebec	600	200	100,000	Quebec	Ditto
New Scotland, New Brunſwick	350	250	57,000	Halifax, Shelburne	Ditto
New England*	550	200	87,000	Boſton	United States
New York	300	150	24,000	New York	Ditto
New Jerſey	160	60	10,000	Perth Amboy	Ditto
Pennſylvania	300	240	15,000	Philadelphia	Ditto
Maryland	140	135	12,000	Annapolis	Ditto
Virginia	750	240	80,000	Williamſburgh	Ditto
North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia	700	380	110,000	Edenton, Charleſton, Savannah	Ditto
Eaſt Florida, Weſt Florida	500	440	100,000	St. Auguſtine, Penſacola	Spain
Louiſiana	1200	645	516,000	New Orleans	Ditto
New Mexico and California	2000	1000	600,000	St. Fee, St. Juan	Ditto
Mexico, or New Spain	2000	600	318,000	Mexico	Ditto

* It may be neceſſary to obſerve here, in order to prevent miſtakes, that though the above Table, containing the territories now belonging to the United States of America, is ſtrictly accurate; yet as New-England therein compriſes four provinces, viz. New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſett's-Bay, Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations, with Connecticut; and Pennſylvania includes Delaware; thoſe four, therefore when added to the reſt beginning at New-York, will compoſe the whole Thirteen Provinces claimed by, and appropriated to the Americans, when they withdrew their allegiance from Great-Britain, and aſſerted in Congreſs their independence, on the 4th of July 1776; and which provinces are generally arranged in the following order: New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſett's-Bay, Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns.	Belonging to
Terra Firma	1400	700	Panama	Spain
Peru	1800	500	Lima	Ditto
Amazonia	1200	960	Little known	
Guiana	780	480	Surinam, Cayenne	Dutch and French
Braſil	2500	700	St. Salvador	Portugal
Paraguay	1500	1000	Buenos Ayres	Spain and Jeſuits
Chili	1200	500	St. Jago	Spain
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia	700	300	Not ſettled	Ditto

CHAP. II.

NEW-BRITAIN.

Its Situation, Boundaries, Mountains, Rivers, Soil, Woods, Vegetables, Animals, Natives, and Hiſtory.

THIS country, which lies round Hudſon's-Bay, and is commonly called the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehending Labrador, New North and South Wales, is ſituated between 50 and 62 deg. of north lat. and between 50 and 95 deg. of weſt long. It is bounded by unknown lands and frozen ſeas about the pole, on the north; by the Atlantic ocean and Baffin's Bay, on the eaſt; by the bay and river of St. Laurence and Canada, on the ſouth; and by unknown lands, on the weſt.

The mountains towards the north are exceeding lofty, and their tops perpetually covered with ſnow: as the winds blow from thence three quarters of the year, the winter all over this country is extremely ſevere and cold.

The chief rivers are the Mooſe, Severn, Rupert, Nelſon, Albany, and Black River. Hudſon's-Bay, which includes ſeveral others, is the principal; its extent in length is about 690 miles, its northern boundry is placed at Davis's Streights; the other chief ſtreights are thoſe of Hudſon and Belleiſle.

The ſoil of this country is in general barren, owing to the great ſeverity and rigour of the climate; even the hardy pine-tree is not ſeen, and the cold womb of the earth produces only ſome miſerable ſhrubs; every kind of European ſeed brought hither has periſhed; but as the place from whence the ſeed comes is of great moment, it is therefore probable that the ſeed of corn brought from the northern parts of Sweeden and Norway, might thrive better in this inhoſpitable climate.

The woods in this part of the world abound in mooſe-deer, elks, ſtags, rein-deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, ermins, martens, ſquirrels, wild-cats, and hares. The fowls found here are geeſe, buſtards, ducks, partridges, and many other ſorts, both wild and tame. In the

ſeas

A
CORRECT MAP
of
NORTH AMERICA.

Supplement
to
CAROLINA

CANADA

LAKE HURON

LAKE ONTARIO

LAKE ERIE

NORTH IROQUOIS

NEW YORK

NEW HAMPSHIRE GRANTS

MASSACHUSETS

SAGADAHOK

NOVA SCOTIA

ATLANTIC OCEAN

LONG ISLAND

PENSYLVANIA

MARYLAND

VIRGINIA

NORTH CAROLINA

SOUTH CAROLINA

GEORGIA

ILLINOIS

TWIGHTWEES

OHIO INDIANS

CHICASAWS

CHEROKEES

APALACHES

Ancient Hurons

Petun N

Ancient Eries

Senecas

Mingos

Cayugas

Onondagas

Delewares

Shawanoos

Wawyanthanes

Pyankashees

Pickawillanees

Ohio or Allegany R.

Mississippi R.

Cherokee R.

Tennessee R.

Kentucky R.

Illinois ancient Villages

Halfway Cross

Walkers English Factory

Fort Diego

Fort St George

Fort Augusta

Fort Charles Town

Fort Barrington

Fort Frederica

Fort Savanah

Fort Moore

Fort Prince George

Fort Loudoun

Fort Dobbs

Fort Cumberland

Fort Frederick

Fort Johnston

Fort Granville

Fort Dunmore

Fort Pitt

Fort Duquesne

Fort Augusta

Fort Halifax

Fort Shirley

Fort Edward

Fort Cumberland

Fort Lawrence

Fort Sackville

Fort Chartres

Fort Massac

Fort Pontchartrain

Fort Niagara

Fort Frontenac

Fort Toronto

Fort Detroit

Fort Michilimackinac

Fort Duquesne

Fort Presque Isle

Fort Venango

Fort Le Boeuf

Fort Machault

Fort Erie

Fort Schlosser

Fort Chambly

Fort St Frederic

Fort St Francis

Fort St Therese

Fort St Louis

Fort St Leon

Fort St Mary Hurons

Fort Sandusky

Fort Miamis

Fort Ouiatanon

Fort Vincennes

Fort Orange

Fort Hunter

Fort Stanwix

Fort Schuyler

Fort Oswego

Fort George

Fort Edward

Fort William Henry

Fort Ticonderoga

Fort Crown Point

Fort Saratoga

Fort Miller

Fort Albany

Fort Nassau

Fort Amsterdam

Fort Casco B

Fort Pemaquid

Fort Richmond

Fort Frederick

Fort Halifax

Fort Western

Fort Shirley

Fort Edward

Fort Cumberland

Fort Lawrence

Fort Sackville

Fort Chartres

Fort Massac

Fort Pontchartrain

Fort Niagara

Fort Frontenac

Fort Toronto

Fort Detroit

Fort Michilimackinac

Fort Duquesne

Fort Presque Isle

Fort Venango

Fort Le Boeuf

Fort Machault

Fort Erie

Fort Schlosser

Fort Chambly

Fort St Frederic

Fort St Francis

Fort St Therese

Fort St Louis

Fort St Leon

Fort St Mary Hurons

Fort Sandusky

Fort Miamis

Fort Ouiatanon

Fort Vincennes

Fort Orange

Fort Hunter

Fort Stanwix

Fort Schuyler

Fort Oswego

Fort George

Fort Edward

Fort William Henry

Fort Ticonderoga

Fort Crown Point

Fort Saratoga

Fort Miller

Fort Albany

Fort Nassau

Fort Amsterdam

Fort Casco B

Fort Pemaquid

Fort Richmond

Fort Frederick

Fort Halifax

Fort Western

C Cod

C Henry

C Charles

C Hatteras

C Lookout

Edinton

Bath

Albany

Boston

Philadelphia

Baltimore

Annapolis

Williamsburg

Richmond

Petersburg

Norfolk

Newyork

Newhaven

Hartford

Springfield

Portsmouth

Salem

Marblehead

Plymouth

Bedford

Burlington

Trenton

Princeton

Lancaster

Reading

Bethlehem

Easton

Wyoming

Carlisle

Shippensburg

Fredericksburg

Alexandria

Winchester

Staunton

Lexington

Charlestown

Dorchester

Queenstown

Chestertown

Easton

Salisbury

Snowhill

Princess Ann

Hampton

Yorktown

Gloucester

Jamestown

Suffolk

Edenton

Chickshunk I

Roanoke Inlet

Michariee I

Whitencecomet I

Bath

Pamlico

Hatteras Inlet

Beaufort Inlet

Core Bank

Drum Inlet

Ocracoke

Portsmouth

Currituk Inlet

Currituk Sound

Albemarle Sound

Pamlico Sound

Neuse R

Cape Fear R

Pedee R

Santee R

Broad R

Saludo R

Savannah R

Alatamaha R

Flint R

Chattahoochee R

Apalachicola R

Mobile R

Tombigbee R

Alabama R

Coosa R

Tallapoosa R

Tennessee R

Cumberland R

Ohio or Allegany R

Mississippi R

Illinois R

Wabash R

Miami R

Scioto R

Muskingum R

Kanhawa R

Monongahela R

Allegany R

Susquehanna R

Delaware R

Hudson R

Mohawk R

Oswego R

Niagara R

St Lawrence R

Lake Champlain

Lake George

Lake Winnipiseogee

Connecticut R

Merrimack R

Kennebec R

Androscoggin R

Penobscot R

St Croix R

Bay of Fundy

Gulf of St Lawrence

Gulf of Mexico

Bahama Channel

Florida Channel

Cape Florida

Cape Sable

Cape Canaveral

Cape Romain

Cape Hatteras

Cape Cod

Cape Ann

Cape Sable

Cape Breton

Cape Race

Cape Rosier

Cape Tormentine

Cape Chignecto

Cape Split

Cape Blomidon

Cape Sable

Cape Canso

Cape Ray

Cape Anguille

Cape Pine

Cape Spear

Cape Bonavista

Cape Freels

Cape Bauld

Cape Charles

Cape Henry

Cape Lookout

Cape Fear

Cape Romain

Cape Florida

Cape Sable

Cape Canaveral

ſeas are found whales, morſes, ſeals, cod, and a white fiſh preferable to herrings; and the rivers and freſh waters furniſh plenty of pike, perch, carp, and trout.

One general remark here may not be improper: it is this, that the animals of America are neither ſo large nor ſo fierce as thoſe of Aſia and Africa; and even thoſe which are ſent hither from Europe are found to degenerate. The tapurette, which is the largeſt animal found in the New World, does not exceed in ſize a well grown calf; whereas the Aſiatic elephant often grows to above fifteen feet in height; and there is ſtill a greater diſproportion between the lama of America, and the African camel. The tyger of Bengal has been ſometimes known to meaſure twelve feet in length, while the congar, or tyger of America, does not exceed three; and the American toqua and toquaretti are deſpicable, in compariſon of the Aſiatic leopard and panther. It is obſervable, however, that though the quadrupeds of the new continent are greatly inferior in ſize to thoſe of the old, they are much more numerous; the goat, exported from Europe to South America, will, in a few generations, become much leſs, as well as more prolific, and, inſtead of one or two kids at a time, generally produces five, ſix, and ſometimes more. The wiſdom and goodneſs of Providence is very conſpicuous, in cauſing the ſmalleſt animals to multiply in the greateſt proportion, and the moſt formidable to be leſs prolific; for had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion been endued with the ſame degree of fecundity with the rabbit or the rat, all the arts of man would not have been ſufficient to check their outrage, and we ſhould ſoon perceive them become the tyrants of thoſe who now call themſelves the maſters of the creation, to the endangering the utter extirpation of the human ſpecies.

In ſummer the animals in the northern extremities of America are of a variety of colours, as in other parts of the world: but as ſoon as the winter approaches, they gradually change; the beaſts and many of the birds, becoming as white as the ſnow with which the ground is covered. Even the dogs and cats carried from England to Hudſon's-Bay, are ſubject to the ſame alteration, and acquire a much longer, ſofter, and thicker fur, than they had in their own climate.

The lands near the ſouth parts of Hudſon's-Bay produce large timber and plenty of herbage, and, if properly cultivated, might yield corn. About Fort Nelſon, the country, which is low and marſhy, produces juniper, birch, poplar, and a ſmall tree of the ſpruce kind; but there is little other herbage, beſides moſs.

The Eſquimaux Indians, who inhabit the inland parts of Labrador, are the moſt cowardly, ferocious, and untractable people in America. They lead a vagrant life, have no ſettled habitations, nor do we know of any villages or towns among them; but they are extremely numerous, and ſo miſchievous, that often, during the night, they will cut the cables of ſhips, that they may enjoy their wrecks in the morning. They trade with the European veſſels, exchanging the furs of their country for knives, ſciſſors, pots, kettles, and other hardware; but they are never ſuffered to come on board in too great numbers, inſtances having been known where they have maſtered the crew, and plundered the ſhip. The food of theſe, and the American Indians in general, conſiſts chiefly in what they take by hunting and fiſhing. They clothe themſelves in winter with beaver ſkins, which they oil and greaſe in the ſame manner as they do their own in ſummer, which prevents both the cold and heat from penetrating them. They wear a kind of buſkins on their legs, and ſhoes of deer ſkins; they uſe alſo beaver ſkins and furs for their beds and covering in the night. A number of Indian men, and ſome women, come down annually, in about ſix hundred canoes, to Fort-Nelſon, in order to trade with the Engliſh. Theſe people are of a darker complexion, and ſmaller ſize than thoſe of Labrador, but they are much more gentle and tractable. They wear ſcarce any cloaths in ſummer, but anoint themſelves with bear's greaſe, or the oil of ſeals, which defends them from the attacks of muſquetoes, bugs, and other troubleſome inſects. Many of them come from very diſtant countries, and their voyages are rendered ſtill longer, by being obliged to go on ſhore every day to hunt for proviſions, their canoes, or kiacks, which they manage very dexterouſly, being only large enough to contain two perſons, and a parcel of beaver-ſkins. The people of this country bear no reſemblance in their ſhapes and faces to the ſouthern Americans; but are much more like the Laplanders and Samoïeds of Europe, from whom they are very probably deſcended.

The commerce with this country is carried on by a company conſiſting of nine or ten perſons, called the Hudſon's-Bay company, who, in 1670, obtained an excluſive charter for trading to this bay, and they have acted under it ever ſince with great benefit to themſelves, though comparatively with little advantage to Great-Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this excluſive company, whoſe intereſted, not to ſay iniquitious ſpirit, has been the ſubject of long and juſt complaint. The company employ four ſhips, and 130 ſeamen. They have ſeveral forts; viz. Prince of Wales's Fort, Churchill River, Nelſon, New Severn and Albany, which ſtand on the weſt ſide of the bay. In May 1782, the French took and deſtroyed theſe forts, ſettlements, &c. by which the company ſuſtained a loſs of near 500,000l. They export commodities to the value of 16,000l. and in return they bring home to the amount of 29,340l. which yield to the revenue 3,734l. This includes the fiſhery in Hudſon's-Bay. Small as this commerce is, it affords immenſe profits to the company, and even ſome advantage to our manufactures here; for as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, ſuch commodities of Britiſh manufacture are ſent them, as we have great plenty of, ſome of which would not meet with a market elſewhere. In exchange for theſe, they have deer, beaver, and other ſkins, caſtor, feathers, whalebone, and blubber. Since our conqueſt of Canada, the trade of this company is leſs advantageous; but the profit it affords in its preſent reſtrained ſtate, prove inconteſtably the immenſe benefit that would accrue to Great-Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudſon's-Bay.

HISTORY OF NEW-BRITAIN.

Theſe northern countries and ſeas were not diſcovered till long after the other parts of the new world were known; and might perhaps ſtill have remained in obſcurity, had not the active genious of mankind prompted them to make diſcoveries of a very different nature. As early as the year 1576, a project ſtarted in England, for the diſcovery of a North-Weſt paſſage to China, and the Eaſt-Indies. Frobiſher only diſcovered the main of New-Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and thoſe tracts which bear his name; but failing in his principal attempt, the deſign was laid aſide till the year 1585, when John Davis ſailed from Portſmouth, and ſurveyed the coaſts of Labrador; but did not extend the diſcoveries of his predeceſſor. Hudſon a very able ſeaman, and experienced, made three voyages, the firſt in 1607, the ſecond in 1608, and the third in 1610. Fearleſs of dangers, and proof againſt the piercing cold of the climate, this intrepid mariner penetrated as far as 80 degrees and a half north latitude; he even wintered here, and would, in all probability, have

finiſhed the diſcovery, had not his men mutinied, and committed their brave commander, with ſeven of his faithful adherents, to the fury of the icy ſeas, in an open boat; where they were either ſwallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhoſpitable ſhore, deſtroyed by the ſavages. This was an irreparable loſs to the public, as moſt of the diſcoveries he had made were buried with him. Other attempts towards a diſcovery were made in 1612 and 1667; and a patent for planting the country, with a charter for a company, was obtained in 1670. Captain Ellis, in 1746, wintered as far north as 57 degrees and an half; and Captain Chriſtopher attempted further diſcoveries in 1761.

Beſides theſe voyages, which ſatisfy us that we muſt not look for a paſſage on this ſide of the latitude 67 degrees north, we are indebted to the Hudſon's-Bay Company for a journey by land; which throws much additional light on this matter, by affording what may be called demonſtration, how much farther north, at leaſt in ſome parts of their voyages, ſhips muſt go, before they can paſs from one ſide of America to the other. The northern Indians, who come down to the company's factories to trade, had brought to the knowledge of our people a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of the Copper-Mine-River. The company, being deſirous of thoroughly inveſtigating this matter, directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their ſervice, who, from his ſkill in the ſciences, was extremely well qualified for the purpoſe, to proceed over land, under the convoy of thoſe Indians, for that river; which he had orders to ſurvey, if poſſible, quite down to its exit into the ſea; to make obſervations for fixing the latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings both of it, and of whatever occurred worthy of notice in the courſe of his journey.

Mr. Hearne accordingly ſet out from Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill River, on December 7, 1770, and on the 13th of June 1771 reached the Copper-Mine-River, and found it all the way, even to its exit into the ſea, incumbered with ſhoals and falls, and emptying itſelf into it over a dry flat of the ſhore, the tide being then out, which ſeemed, by the edges of the ice, to riſe about twelve or fourteen feet. This riſe, on account of the falls, will carry it but a very ſmall way within the river's mouth, ſo that the water in it was not in the leaſt brackiſh; Mr. Hearne is, however, ſure of the place it emptied itſelf into being the ſea, or a branch of it, by the quantity of whale-bone and ſeal-ſkins which the Eſquimaux had at their tents, and alſo by the number of ſeals which he ſaw upon the ice. It appears by the map which Mr. Hearne drew of this ſingular journey, that the mouth of the copper-mine lies in lat. 72 deg. N. and long. 25 deg. W. from Churchill-River, that is, about 119 deg. W. of Greenwich.

Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper-Mine to Churchill, laſted till June 30, 1772; ſo that he was abſent upwards of a year and a half. The unparalleled hardſhips he ſuffered, and the eſſential ſervice he performed, have met with a ſuitable recompence from his employers. This gentleman has been ſeveral years governor of Prince of Wales's-Fort, on Churchill-River, where, in 1782, he was taken priſoner by the French; but he afterwards returned to his ſtation. We now ſee, from the particulars of this extenſive diſcovery, that the continent of North-America ſtretches from Hudſon's-Bay, ſo far to the north-weſt, that Mr. Hearne travelled near 1,300 miles before he arrived at the ſea; and that the whole of his track to the northward of 61 deg. N. lat. lay near 600 miles due weſt of the weſtern coaſt of Hudſon's-Bay; at the ſame time that his Indian guides were certain that a vaſt tract of land ſtretched ſtill further in the ſame direction.

CHAP. III.

CANADA.

Situation, Extent, Climate, Mountains, Rivers, Animals, Foreſts, Produce, Lakes, Inhabitants, Government, and Religion.

THIS country, after its reduction by the Engliſh, in the war of 1756, was formed into a Britiſh colony, called the Province of Quebec. It is ſituated between 61 and 81 deg. weſt long. and between 45 and 52 deg. north lat. its length is 600 miles, breadth 200, and contains 100,000 ſquare miles. It is bounded on the north and eaſt, by New-Britain and Hudſon's-Bay; on the ſouth, by Nova-Scotia, New-England, and New-York; and on the weſt by unknown lands.

All that vaſt tract on the back of the Britiſh ſettlements, from Canada and the Lakes, to the Pacific Ocean, which waſhes America on the weſt, is perfectly unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and ſituation of the country, it is ſuppoſed to be fruitful: it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom uſed to reſort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, when that city was in the hands of the French. In ſome of theſe inhoſpitable regions, their nights are from one to ſix months, and the earth bound up in impenetrable ſnow; ſo that the miſerable inhabitants live under-ground great part of the year; but when the ſun reviſits them, they have a day of equal length.

The climate of Canada varies greatly in this extenſive tract; but along the banks of the river St. Laurence, it is prodigiouſly cold in winter, and exceeding hot in ſummer, as moſt of thoſe parts of America commonly are, which do not lie too far to the northward. The reſt of the country, as far it is known, being interſected with large woods, lakes, and rivers, is ſtill colder. Notwithſtanding the length and ſeverity of the winters here, the ſoil is in general very good, and in many parts affords a pleaſing view by its fertility, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other ſorts of grain, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco is alſo much cultivated here, and thrives well. The iſle of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence, are remarkable for the richneſs of their ſoil; and the meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed vaſt numbers of great and ſmall cattle.

Some authors aſſert, that ſilver has been found in the mountains of Canada: this may be true, but we do not find that any great advantage has hitherto been made by it. Near Quebec, however, is a fine lead-mine; and coals are found in great plenty here.

The rivers in this province are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep, running through a prodigious tract of territory. The principal are, the Outawais, St. John's, Seguinay, Deſprairies, and Trois Rivieres, but they are all ſwallowed by the river St. Laurence, which has its ſource in the lake Ontario, and, after a courſe of near 750 miles, falls into the ſea at Cape Roſieres. It receives the Outawais at Montreal, forms ſeveral fine iſlands, and meets the tide above 400 miles from its mouth. It is navigable for large ſhips many miles above Quebec, and at Cape Roſieres, where it falls into the ſea, it is above 90 miles in breadth, and is ſo deep, that, in the war of 1756, ſhips of the line contributed to reduce that capital. It has ſeveral falls or cataracts in its courſe, ſo that the navigation is interrupted; but the difficulties might be eaſily ſurmounted, and the navigation continued to Lake Ontario. In its progreſs it forms a great variety of bays, harbours, and iſlands, many of them fruitful, and extremely pleaſant. The

French have a great many ſettlements made on its banks, where the ſoil is very fruitful, and all the neceſſaries of life may with very little trouble be procured. It is not improbable that Canada, and thoſe vaſt regions to the weſt, will be enabled of themſelves to carry on a conſiderable trade upon the great lakes of freſh water which theſe countries environ.

Here are fine lakes; that of Ontario, which is the ſmalleſt, is not leſs than 200 leagues in circumference, and therefore larger than any other piece of freſh water in the old world. The lake Eri, or Oſwego, is longer, but not ſo broad, and about the ſame in extent. The lake Huron is much broader than either of the former, and about 300 leagues in circuit. The Lake Michigan is about equal to that of Huron in circumference, but narrower and longer; and lake Superior far exceeds all the reſt. It has ſeveral large iſlands, and is not leſs than five hundred leagues in circumference. A ſmall flux and reflux have been obſerved, but not regulated by the courſe of the moon, but riſing and falling as it were inſtantaneouſly; the ſurface of the rocks near the banks being covered and uncovered ſeveral times in a quarter of an hour, even when a calm prevails, and the ſurface of the lake is ſmooth and level. They are all navigable by veſſels of very conſiderable burden, and all communicate with one another. The navigation is indeed ſtopped between lake Ontario and lake Erie, by the moſt tremendous cataract in the world, called the Falls of Niagara. The ſtreight which connects the two lakes is here about two miles broad, but ſeparated by an iſland into two ſtreams, the largeſt of which is about half a mile in breadth. This ſtream, which forms the grandeſt part of the cataract, is croſſed by a rock in the form of a half moon, from which the water tumbles near 160 feet perpendicularly. Imagination itſelf can hardly paint a more awful ſcene than this amazing ſheet of water hurled headlong from ſo great a height on the rocks below. The traveller is ſtruck with conſternation at ſo tremendous a ſight, while his ears are deafened with the prodigious roarings of the waters. The vapours ariſing from the cataract form a kind of cloud, or pillar of ſmoke, which in calm ſerene weather may be ſeen at a great diſtance; and when the ſpectator is in a proper poſition with regard to the ſun, this cloud or vapour exhibits a beautiful rainbow. The noiſe of this cataract is plainly heard at fifteen miles diſtance. Many beaſts and water-fowl loſe their lives by attempting to croſs the river at the iſland already mentioned, where the ſtream is extremely rapid, ſo that before they can reach the further ſhore, they are hurried over the precipice and daſhed to pieces. Many of the Indians have met with the ſame fate either by drunkenneſs, or want of care. Perhaps no place in the world is frequented by ſuch a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which theſe birds feed. Theſe lakes, whenever the adjacent countries are ſettled by a civilized and commercial people, muſt prove of the greateſt advantage; the adjacent country indeed ſeems to have been intended by nature for the ſeat of a numerous and trading people. We have already obſerved, that the river St. Laurence communicates with lake Ontario; and as that river might be rendered navigable, a communication would be opened with the Atlantic Ocean, and conſequently with all the parts of Europe.

As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of Britiſh America, and as Canada is upon the back of the United States, and contains almoſt all the different ſpecies of animals, wood, and vegetables that are found in theſe colonies, we ſhall here ſpeak of them at ſome length, in order to avoid repetitions. The animals make the moſt curious and hitherto the moſt intereſting part of the natural hiſtory of Canada, which abounds in ſtags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weaſels, large grey ſquirrels, hares, and rabbits. In the ſouthern parts of it are found great numbers of wild bulls, various kinds of roebucks, deer of a ſmall ſize, goats, wolves, &c. and the marſhes, lakes, and pools, throughout the country, are filled with beavers, of which remarkable animal ſome further account will doubtleſs be expected.

The beaver is near four feet in length, its head greatly reſembling that of a mountain rat. The ſnout is long, the eyes ſmall, the ears ſhort, round, and hairy on the outſide, but ſmooth within. The legs, particularly the fore ones, are ſhort, and the nails of the fore feet ſtand obliquely, and are hollow like quills; but the hind feet are flat, and furniſhed with membranes or webs between the toes. The tail, which is almoſt oval, is a foot in length, an inch thick, four inches broad at the root, five in the middle, and three at the extremity. It is covered with ſcales, indented in ſuch a manner as to be eaſily ſeparated after the death of the animal. The jaws are amazingly ſtrong, and each furniſhed with ten teeth, two inciſive and eight molar. They live from fifteen to twenty years, and the female generally brings forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, never continues any length of time in the water, but cannot exiſt without frequently bathing in it. Beavers are of different colours, black, brown, white, yellow, and ſtraw colour; the black and the white are the moſt valuable. The fur of the beaver is of two kinds, the dry and the green; the firſt is the ſkin before it has been applied to any uſe, and the ſecond are the furs, ſeveral of which being ſewed together, are worn by the Indians, who rub them over with unctuous ſubſtances, which render them pliable, and at the ſame time give the fine down which is manufactured into hats, &c. that oily quality proper for mixing with the dry fur, when worked. Of late years both the Dutch and the Engliſh have diſcovered the art of making excellent cloths, gloves, and ſtockings, from the beaver fur. The ſkin is not the only thing for which this animal is valuable; it produces that uſeful drug called caſtoreum, contained in bags formed by nature for this purpoſe only, in the lower part of the belly. The fleſh of the beaver is ſaid to be exceeding good eating; the tail is eſteemed the moſt delicious diſh that can be imagined. The ſagacity of theſe animals in erecting their huts, and providing againſt the approach of winter, is ſo amazing, that the ſavages ſuppoſe them rational creatures, who live in ſocieties, and are governed by a leader or chief, like themſelves. It muſt indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to ſerve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and ſeverity of it, are ſufficient to ſhew the near approaches of inſtinct to reaſon, and even, in ſome inſtances, the ſuperiority of the former. The Americans have two or three different ways of taking beavers; they ſometimes ſhoot them, at others take them in traps, which laſt method they prefer, becauſe it does not damage the ſkin. There is a diminutive ſpecies of beaver, called the muſk-rat, which reſembles that animal in every reſpect but the tail, and affords a very ſtrong muſk.

The buffalo of Canada is larger than that of Europe, but their appearance is much the ſame; the body is covered with a black wool, which is very valuable, and the hide is as ſoft and pliant as chamois leather, but ſo exceeding ſtrong, that the Indian bucklers, which are made of it, are almoſt proof againſt a muſket-ball. The elk is of the ſize of a horſe or mule, and its colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. They delight in cold climates, where, during the winter, they live upon the bark of trees. When this animal is hunted, he becomes very violent; ſometimes ſpringing furiouſly on his purſuers, and

trampling them to death. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal ſpends his fury on theſe, he takes proper meaſures to kill him. Wolves are exceeding ſcarce in Canada, but they afford the fineſt furs in all the country. The black foxes are alſo very uncommon there, but highly valued. Thoſe of other colours are common; and ſome on the Upper Miſſiſſippi are of a ſilver colour, and very beautiful. The Canadian wood-rat, which is likewiſe of a fine ſilver colour, is as large again as the European rat, and has a fine buſhy tail: the female has a bag under her belly, which ſhe opens and ſhuts at pleaſure; and here ſhe conceals her young when purſued. The pole-cat of Canada is entirely white, except the tip of the tail, which is as black as jet. When purſued, he lets fly his urine to annoy the aſſailants, which, it is ſaid, infects the air for a quarter of a league round: hence he is called by the inhabitants the devil's brat, or the ſtinkard. There are two ſorts of bears in this country; one of a reddiſh, and the other of a black colour; but the firſt is the moſt dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce; for he is never known to attack a man, unleſs when wounded or oppreſſed by hunger. There is a carnivorous animal found here, called the Carcajou, which is of the cat kind, with a tail of ſuch prodigious length, that Charlevoix declares he has twiſted it ſeveral times round his body. It is ſaid that this animal, winding himſelf about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twiſt its ſtrong tail round its body, and tear open its throat in an inſtant. There are three ſorts of ſquirrels in Canada; one of which is called the flying ſquirrel; it has, however, no wings; but on each ſide a looſe ſkin, extending from the fore to the hind feet, to which it is connected. This the creature can ſtretch out like a ſail, and the air which it contains, buoys him up in ſuch a manner, that he can leap from tree to tree forty paces aſunder. This little animal is eaſily tamed, and very lively, except when aſleep, which is often the caſe; and he puts up wherever he can find a a place, in one's ſleeve, pocket, or muff; he firſt pitches on his maſter, whom he will diſtinguiſh among twenty perſons. The Canadian roe-buck is a domeſtic animal; and the porcupine not ſo large as a middling ſized dog. We have been thus circumſtantial in our deſcription of theſe animals, becauſe in their furs conſiſt the chief commerce of the country, and to theſe we owe the materials for many of our manufactures.

The foreſts of Canada contain two kinds of eagles, the largeſt of which have a white head and neck, but the others are entirely grey. The falcons, goſhawks, and tercels, are exactly the ſame as in Europe. The partridges are red, grey, and black, with long tails, which they ſpread out like a fan, and make a fine appearance: wood-cocks are very ſcarce, but ſnipes and water-fowl are exceeding plentiful. Twenty-two different ſpecies of ducks are found in Canada, and a great number of ſwans, turkeys, geeſe, buſtards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but they are always at a diſtance from the inhabited part of the country. A Canadian raven is by ſome writers affirmed to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Thruſhes and goldfinches, reſembling thoſe of Europe, are found here; but the chief ſinging bird of Canada is the white bird, a ſpecies of ortolan, very ſhewy, and remarkable for proclaiming the return of ſpring. The wood-pecker is a beautiful bird, but far exceeded by the fly-bird, which is ſuppoſed to be equalled by none of the feathered tribe; with all his plumage he is not larger than a cock-chafer, and makes a noiſe with his wings like the humming of a large fly: his legs are not thicker than a ſmall needle; and from his bill, which is of the ſame ſize, a ſmall ſting proceeds, with which he pierces the flowers, and, by that means, nouriſhes himſelf with the juice: the head of the male is adorned with a beautiful black tuft; his breaſt is red, his belly white, his back, wings, and tail, green, while ſpecks of gold, ſcattered all over the plumage, add greatly to its beauty, and an almoſt imperceptible down produces the moſt delightful ſhades that can be imagined.

The vaſt rivers and lakes in this country, particularly that of St. Laurence, contain a prodigious variety of fiſh, among which are ſea-wolves, ſea-cows, porpoiſes, the lencornet, the goberque, ſalmon trouts, turtles, lobſters, the chaouraſou, the achigau, the gilt-head, and ſturgeon. The ſeal, or ſea-wolf, ſo called from its howling, is an amphibious creature, and very large; ſome of them are ſaid to weigh 2000 pounds: a deſcription of it has been given in our account of Greenland. The ſea-cow is larger than the ſea-wolf, but reſembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickneſs and length of a man's arm, which, when full grown, have the appearance of horns, and are very fine ivory. Some of the porpoiſes caught in the river St. Laurence are ſaid to yield an hogſhead of oil, and waiſtcoats are made of their ſkins, which, beſides the excellent property of being exceeding ſtrong, are muſket-proof. The lencornet is a ſpecies of cuttle-fiſh, of an oval figure: there are two ſorts of them, which differ only in ſize, ſome being as large as a hogſhead, and others only a foot long; but the latter only are caught, which is done by torch-light. The chaouraſou is an armed fiſh, reſembling a pike, and covered with ſcales proof againſt a dagger: ſome of them are above five feet long, and about the thickneſs of a man's thigh: the colour is a ſilver grey, and there grows under the mouth a long bony ſubſtance, ragged at the edges. This creature lives upon birds; to procure which, he conceals himſelf among the reeds, in ſuch a manner, that nothing of him can be ſeen but the above weapon, which he holds erect above the ſurface of the water. The fowls, miſtaking it for a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no ſooner ſettled, than the fiſh opens his mouth, and darts ſo ſuddenly on the prey, that it ſeldom eſcapes. The goberque has the taſte and ſmell of a ſmall cod. The ſturgeon is from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick; but there is a ſmall ſpecies, the fleſh of which is very delicate. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs in no material reſpect from thoſe of the Nile. The achigau and the gilt-head are fiſh peculiar to the river St. Laurence.

Canada furniſhes a variety of reptiles, among which the rattle-ſnake is the moſt remarkable. Some of theſe are as big as a man's leg, and long in proportion: but the moſt remarkable part of this animal is the tail, conſiſting of ſeveral hollow joints, in each of which is a ſmall round bone, that makes a rattling noiſe as the creature moves, and ſeems deſigned by Providence to give notice of its approach: it is aſſerted by authors, that a joint is added to this rattle every year. The bite of this ſnake is mortal, if the root of the rattle-ſnake plant, or ſome other ſpecific, is not immediately applied to the wound. The above plant is a ſovereign antidote againſt the poiſon, and grows in all places where the ſnake is found: it is either pounded or chewed, and applied to the wound as a plaiſter. This creature, however, ſeldom bites paſſengers unleſs trod upon, or otherwiſe provoked. The Indians, who eſteem its fleſh a great delicacy, often hunt it; and, when thus purſued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itſelf round, placing its head in the centre, and then darts itſelf with the utmoſt violence againſt its antagoniſt, who receives the bite with the utmoſt calmneſs, aſſured of an immediate cure by the above root.

Such lands as have been properly cultivated in Canada, yield large and rich crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, and other grain. All kinds of fruits found in France, even melons and grapes, are produced here, and alſo the hop plant. The meadow grounds,

grounds, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and feed numbers of great and ſmall cattle.

The greateſt foreſts in the world are in the uncultivated parts of North America, which are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itſelf. Nothing can be more magnificent to the ſight: the trees loſe themſelves in the clouds, and their prodigious variety of ſpecies cannot be numbered. The foreſts of Canada, which are amazingly extenſive, contain alſo a vaſt variety of trees, among which are two ſorts of pines, the white and the red; three ſorts of aſh-trees, the free, the mungrel, and the baſtard; three ſorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth; the male and female maple; white and red elms and poplars. The Iroquois Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, ſome of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty perſons. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there until April. Here are alſo found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infuſed in water, makes excellent vinegar; the white-thorn, the cotton-tree, the pod of which contains a very fine kind of cotton: ſeveral tufts of flowers are produced on the top of this tree, which, if ſhaken in a morning before the dew falls off, produce honey that may be boiled into ſugar; the ſun-plant, and an aquatic plant called atoca, the fruit of which is often made into an excellent confection.

The inhabitants on the banks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were very numerous before the late war; but the number of French and Engliſh ſettled in this province cannot be preciſely aſcertained, though they are ſuppoſed to be on the decreaſe. Canada and Labrador were ſuppoſed, in the year 1783, to contain about 130,000 inhabitants. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almoſt innumerable; the moſt conſiderable at preſent are, the Iroquois, the Hurons, Miamis, Nokes, Oumamis, Outagamis, Sakis, Illinois, Oubaches, Otters or Loutres, Savannois, Sioux, Aſſiniboils, and Chriſtinaux; but theſe people are obſerved to decreaſe in population where the Europeans are moſt numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, of which they are exceſſively fond.

Canada does not contain any remarkable towns, though very conſiderable efforts have been made for peopling this extenſive country. The principal places are Quebec, Trois Rivieres, and Montreal.

Quebec, the capital of all Canada, and the ſee of a biſhop, is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the ſea. It is built on a rock compoſed partly of marble and partly of ſlate. The town is divided into two parts, called the Upper and Lower Town. The fortifications, though not regular, are ſtrong. The fort, or citadel, in which the governor reſides, is a noble work; in the church of the Urſeline nuns is the tomb of Monſ. Montcalm, who commanded the French, and was killed at the battle of Quebec; in which alſo fell that young hero Wolfe, who commanded the Engliſh. The river, which from the ſea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows on a ſudden to about a mile in width. The harbour is flanked by two baſtions, raiſed twenty-five feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox: it is ſafe, commodious, and about five fathom deep. From Quebec to Montreal, in ſailing up the river St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landſcapes, the banks being in many places bold and ſteep, and ſhaded with lofty trees, and in others crowded with villages, of which there are alſo many on the iſlands, wherewith the channel of the river is interſperſed. After paſſing the Richlieu-Iſlands, in the ſummer months, the air becomes ſo mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himſelf tranſported into another climate.

The town called Trois Rivieres, or Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and takes its name from three rivers which join their ſtreams about a quarter of a mile below it, where they fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much frequented by ſeveral nations of Indians, who come hither with their furs and peltry. The adjacent country is pleaſant and fertile in corn, fruits, &c. A conſiderable number of handſome houſes ſtand on both ſides the rivers. It gives name to a diſtrict.

Montreal ſtands at the foot of a mountain, in an iſland ten leagues in length, and almoſt four in breadth, formed by the river St. Laurence. While the French poſſeſſed Canada, both the city and iſland of Montreal were private property, and were ſo well improved, that the whole iſland was a delightful ſpot, producing every thing neceſſary for the conveniences of life. Since the town has been in the hands of the Engliſh, it has ſuffered extremely by fire. When reduced by General Amherſt, it was of an oblong form, well peopled, and ſurrounded by a wall flanked by eleven redoubts, which ſerve inſtead of baſtions. The ſtreets were well laid out, and the houſes built in a very handſome manner. The ditch is about eight feet deep, and of a proportionable breadth, but dry. The fortifications have been much improved by the Engliſh. The governor's palace is a large fine building. The general hoſpital, and many elegant villas, decorate the adjacent country, which produces all the vegetables of Europe.

Reſpecting the government of Quebec, it will be neceſſary to obſerve, that the French, before the war of 1756, were very agreeably ſituated, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fiſh, fell timber, and to ſow and plant as much land as they could cultivate; and their rights and privileges were continued to them by the capitulation, when the country was reduced by the Engliſh. But by an act paſſed in 1774, his Majeſty was impowered to appoint a council, from ſeventeen to twenty-three perſons, reſident at Quebec, for managing the affairs of the province, who were veſted with authority to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government thereof. By this act, all matters of controverſy relative to property and civil rights are to be determined by the French laws of Canada; and the inhabitants are not only allowed to profeſs the Romiſh religion, but the Popiſh clergy are inveſted with a right to claim and attain their accuſtomed dues from thoſe of the ſame religion. This law gave great offence to many perſons both in England and America, and is thought to have contributed in a great meaſure towards ſpreading a ſpirit of diſaffection to the Britiſh government in the colonies. The city of London objected in ſtrong terms to the paſſing of the bill into a law, declaring, that they conceived it to be entirely ſubverſive of the great fundamental principles of the Britiſh conſtitution, &c. and in one of the petitions of the American congreſs to the king, they remonſtrated, that by the Quebec act, the limits of that province were extended, the Engliſh laws aboliſhed, and the French laws reſtored, whereby great numbers of Britiſh freemen were ſubjected to the latter; and that an abſolute government, and the Roman Catholic religion, were alſo eſtabliſhed by that act, throughout thoſe vaſt regions that border on the weſterly and northerly boundaries of the free Proteſtant Engliſh ſettlements. But notwithſtanding every argument and petition brought in oppoſition to this obnoxious bill, it paſſed both houſes, received the royal aſſent, and now ſubſiſts as a law in full force throughout the province.

Our ſettlements in North-America were ſecured by expelling the French, and at the ſame time the inhabitants enabled to attend more cloſely to agriculture, and the improvement of that country. While

the important conqueſt of Canada removed a rival power from that part of North-America, it put us in the ſole poſſeſſion of the fur and peltry trade, the uſe and importance of which is well known to the manufacturers of Great-Britain, and enables us to extend the ſcale of a general commerce.

The nature of the climate is ſeverely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, points out what Canada principally wants from Europe; wine, or rather rum, cloth, chiefly of the coarſer kind, linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a ſpecies of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While the French were in poſſeſſion of this country, the Indians ſupplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traverſed the vaſt lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible induſtry and patience, carrying their goods into the remoteſt parts of America, and trafficked with nations entirely unknown to any other Europeans. But their trade with theſe diſtant people was not the only ſervice they did their country, they habituated the Indians to commerce, and induced them to viſit the French in their ſettlements. Accordingly, people from all parts, even to the diſtance of a thouſand miles, repaired to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and laſted near three months. Many ſolemnities were obſerved on this occaſion, guards were placed, and the governor himſelf aſſiſted to preſerve order, in ſuch a concourſe of people, compoſed of ſo great a variety of ſavage nations. But it often happened that all attempts uſed to preſerve tranquillity were in vain.

The Indians are ſo remarkably fond of ſpirituous liquors, that they often give all their merchandize for a ſmall quantity of brandy; but, reflecting on their folly, are exaſperated, and foment riots and diſturbances. And what is very remarkable, many of the Indian nations actually paſſed by our ſettlement at Albany in the province of New-York, and continued their journey 250 miles further to Montreal, in order to purchaſe the very ſame commodities from the French, which they might have had from the Engliſh at Albany at a much cheaper rate; the French themſelves having before purchaſed thoſe goods from the Engliſh merchants ſettled in that country. So great an aſcendency had the French, by their polite behaviour and inſinuating addreſs, gained over the minds of the Indians.

Since we have been poſſeſſed of the whole country of Canada, our trade with that country employs thirty-four ſhips, and 400 ſeamen. The exports from thence, at an average of three years, in ſkins, furs, ginſeng, ſnake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amounted to 105,500l. and the imports from Great-Britain, conſiſting of a great variety of articles, are computed at nearly the ſame ſum. It is unneceſſary to make any remarks on the importance of this trade, which not only ſupplies us with unmanufactured materials, indiſpenſably neceſſary in many articles of our commerce, but alſo takes in exchange the manufactures of our own country, or the productions of our other ſettlements in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies.

There are certain inconveniencies, proceeding from natural cauſes, which the trade and peopling of Canada are liable to, that no attention whatever will be ſufficient to overcome; one of theſe is, the ſeverity of the winter, which is ſo exceſſive from December to April, that the greateſt rivers are frozen over, and the ſnow often lies on the ground to the depth of four and ſix feet, even in thoſe parts of the country which are ſituated three degrees of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. The falls in the river St. Laurence, below Montreal, for another inconvenience; theſe render it difficult for very large ſhips to penetrate to that emporium of inland commerce; but veſſels from 300 to 400 tons arrive there every year. Hence it will evidently appear, that our communication with Canada, and the immenſe regions beyond it, will always be interrupted in winter, till roads are formed, that can be travelled on with ſafety from the Indians, who often commence hoſtilities againſt us without any previous notice; and theſe ſavage people, without any provocation, frequently commit the moſt horrid ravages for a long time with impunity. But when their barbarities and depredations have at length rouſed the reſentment of the Engliſh, they will then even ſue for a peace, which they know we always readily grant: this being obtained, they promiſe it ſhall endure as long as the ſun and moon: hereupon a temporary ceſſation of hoſtilities takes place, till ſome freſh incident, too often accompanied with ill treatment received from our traders, gives them a freſh pretence for renewing their cruelties and inſults in the neighbouring ſettlements.

CHAP. IV.

NOVA-SCOTIA, OR NEW-SCOTLAND.

Boundaries, Situation, Extent, Rivers, Lakes, Soil and Produce, Exports, &c.

THIS country, by the French called Acadia, has the bay of St. Laurence and the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt; the ſame ocean, on the ſouth; the river St. Laurence, on the north; and Canada and New England, on the weſt. It is ſituated between the 66th and 67th degrees of eaſt long. and between the 43d and 49th of north latitude; being about 350 miles long, and 250 broad. This province was divided into two governments in 1784. That now ſtyled New Brunſwick, is bounded on the weſtward of the mouth of St. Croix river, by the ſame river to its ſource, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the ſouthern boundary of Quebec; to the northward, by the ſaid boundary as far as the weſtern extremity of the Bay of Chaleurs; to the eaſtward, by the ſaid bay to the gulf of St. Laurence to the bay called Bay Verte; to the ſouth, by a line in the centre of the bay of Fundy, from the ſaid river St. Croix, to the mouth of the Muſquat river, by the ſaid river to its ſource: and from thence by a due line acroſs the iſthmus into the Baya Verte, to join the eaſtern lot above deſcribed: all iſlands within ſix leagues of the coaſt being included in theſe limits. The rivers and lakes are very numerous. Of the former, the moſt conſiderable are thoſe of St. John, Paſſamagnadi, Penobſcot, and St. Croix, which run from north to ſouth, and fall into the Bay of Fundy; and thoſe of Riſgouche, and Nipiſiguit, which run from weſt to eaſt, and fall into the gulf of St. Laurence; and that of Chebucto, which falls into the Atlantic. Of the latter, thoſe called Keſeben and Freneuſe are very large; but there are many which have not yet received any particular names. The river St. Laurence forms the northern boundary.

A great part of this country conſiſts of the peninſula that is formed by the Bay of Fundy, Chenigto, and Green Bay; all the coaſt of which, from Cape Sable on the weſt, to Cape Canſo on the eaſt, is lined with ſhoals or ſands. Beſides the bays above mentioned, there is a great number of others all along the coaſt, particularly Gaſpé, Chaleurs, and Chedibucto, on the north-eaſt; the Bay of Iſlands, Chebucto, and La Here, on the ſouth; and the Bay of Annapolis, on the ſouth-ſide of the Bay of Fundy. In theſe bays, and other parts of the coaſt, are many fine roads and havens. The chief Capes are thoſe of Roſieres and Gaſpé on the north-eaſt; Capes Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Port, Epis, Forgery, and Canſo, on

on the eaſt; Capes Blanco, Vert, Theodore, Dore, la Heve, and Negro, on the ſouth; Cape Sable, and Cape Fourche, on the ſouth-weſt.

Though this country is ſituated within the temperate zone, its climate is rather unwholeſome, which is generally aſcribed to the ſudden tranſition from heat to cold, which is found in this part of America; a ſeven months cold being ſometimes ſucceeded by inſupportable heat, without the intervening refreſhing ſeaſons of ſpring and autumn; beſides this, the air is frequently rendered inſufferably moiſt by fogs that come from off the ſea, and ſometimes in an inſtant invelope every object in an obſcure gloom.

The ſoil of Nova-Scotia is not more favourable to vegetation than the climate is to health, the whole country being almoſt a continued foreſt. The timber is extremely proper for ſhip-building, and produces pitch and tar. Great improvements are ſaid to be making in the new ſettlements and the Bay of Fundy: a great quantity of land hath been cleared, which abounds in timber, and ſhip-loads of excellent maſts and ſpars have been ſhipped for England. Agriculture, though attempted by the Engliſh ſettlers, has hitherto made little progreſs. As the ſoil is in general thin and barren, the corn it produces is of a ſhrivelled kind, like rye, and the graſs intermixed with a cold ſpongy moſs. There are, however, ſome tracts in the peninſula to the ſouthward, which are not inferior to the beſt land in New England; and the ſoil is for the moſt part adapted to the produce of hemp and flax.

The animals found here are in common the ſame with thoſe of the other American provinces, deer, beavers, otters, &c. wild fowl, and all ſpecies of game. European quadrupeds, and fowls, which have been ſent there at different times, likewiſe ſucceed, and multiply prodigiouſly. At the cloſe of March the fiſh begin to ſpawn, when they enter the rivers in ſuch ſhoals as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and ſturgeon and ſalmon in May. But the moſt valuable appendage to Nova-Scotia is the coaſt of Cape Sables, along which is a ſeries of cod-fiſhing banks, and excellent harbours.

This country, unpromiſing as it is, and neglected for the more delightful tracts to the ſouthward, was one of the firſt European ſettlements on the continent of North America. The firſt grant of lands in it were made by James I. to his ſecretary Sir William Alexander, from whom it obtained the name of Nova-Scotia, or New Scotland. Since that period it has often changed maſters, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the Engliſh backwards and forwards. Before the French attempted any ſettlement in Canada, they had fixed themſelves in Nova-Scotia; and certainly their induſtry and vigour, while they were in poſſeſſion of this province, deſerve applauſe; for though they had infinitely more difficulties to ſtruggle with than the Engliſh have at preſent, they not only ſubſiſted with very little aſſiſtance from Europe, but alſo increaſed exceedingly. But the province being confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Utrecht, and experience during a long war having convinced them of the impropriety of ſuffering a colony of the enemy to remain here, a reſolution was taken, in the year 1749, to form a ſettlement in this province at the expence of the government. Accordingly 3000 families were tranſported into Nova-Scotia. A town was erected on the bay of Chebucto, and called Halifax, in honour of the late Earl of that name, to whoſe wiſdom and care we owe this ſettlement. The town of Halifax is very commodiouſly ſituated for the fiſhery, and has a communication with moſt parts of the province, either by land-carriage, the ſea, or navigable rivers, with an excellent harbour, capable of receiving the largeſt ſhips of war, and where they may ride with the utmoſt ſafety in all winds. This town has a very flouriſhing appearance, when all the difficulties attending an infant ſettlement in this cold climate are conſidered. It is large and well built. It has a good entrenchment of timber, ſtrengthened with a fort of the ſame materials, ſo as to be in little danger, at leaſt from an Indian enemy. Three regiments are ſtationed here to protect the inhabitants from the inſults of the ſavages, whoſe reſentment, however excited, has been found implacable againſt the Engliſh. The number of inhabitants is ſaid to amount to fifteen or ſixteen thouſand, who live very comfortably by the trade they carry on in furs and naval ſtores, by their fiſheries, and its being the reſidence of the governor, and the garriſon.

Formerly the chief town in this province was called Annapolis-Royal; but, though once the capital, it is a ſmall place, wretchedly fortified, worſe built, and very thinly inhabited. There have been ſtationed here, ever ſince the reign of Queen Anne, the remains of a regiment very little recruited. But though this place never flouriſhed, it ſtands on one of the beſt harbours in North-America, capable of containing 1000 veſſels at anchor, in the utmoſt ſecurity; it is protected by a fort and garriſon. St. John's is a new ſettlement at the mouth of the river of that name that falls into the Bay of Fundy on the weſt ſide.

The emigration of loyaliſts from the United States to this province, ſince the concluſion of the American war, hath been very great. New towns have been erected by them; but particularly at Port Roſeway, where a city named Shelburne now ſtands, which extends two miles on the waterſide, and one mile back, having wide ſtreets, which croſs each other at right angles. We are told it contains above 9000 inhabitants, excluſive of what is ſtyled the Black Town, which ſtands about a mile from Shelburne, and is ſeparated from it by a ſmall freſh-water river; this town is inhabited by 1200 free blacks, who ſerved on the king's ſide during the war. The harbour is deep, capacious, and ſecure, and the tide hath a great riſe and fall.

Thoſe loyaliſts who apply for land, obtain it in proportion to the property they poſſeſſed before the troubles commenced, allowing for ſuch as have families to provide for. The governor lately appointed over New Brunſwick is empowered, it is ſaid, in his inſtructions, to "grant, without fee or reward, to ſuch reduced officers as ſerved in his provincial corps, during the late war in North America, and who ſhall perſonally apply for the ſame, the following quantities of lands, ſubject, at the expiration of ten years, to the ſame quit-rents as other lands are ſubject to in the province of Nova-Scotia, as alſo ſubject to the ſame conditions of cultivation and improvement; that is to ſay, To every perſon having the rank of a field officer, 3000 acres; to every captain, 2000 acres; and to every ſubaltern, 1000 acres." The ſame proportion of land is allotted to the reduced officers of the navy.

The principal exports from Great-Britain to this country, conſiſt of woollen and linen cloth, and other neceſſaries for wear, of fiſhing tackle, and rigging for ſhips. Our exports, at an average of three years, before the new ſettlements, amounted to about 26,500l. The only articles we can get in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fiſhery, which, at a like average, amount to about 38,000l. The late increaſe of inhabitants induces us to ſuppoſe that they will erect ſaw mills, and endeaver to ſupply the Weſt-India iſlands with lumber of every kind, and likewiſe the produce of the fiſhery, which will prove equally beneficial to both countries. The whole population of Nova-Scotia, with the iſlands adjoining, is computed at 50,000. This ſettlement being yet in its infancy, we can form no exact eſtimate of its real utility, which, with its own proſperity and increaſe in future, will in a great meaſure depend on the induſtry and wiſe conduct of the inhabitants.

CHAP. V.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Account of their Confederation.

OUR readers will find an account, in our review of the principal tranſactions in the hiſtory of Great-Britain, of the riſe, progreſs, and moſt remarkable events of that war, between Great-Britain and her American colonies, which at length terminated in the eſtabliſhment of the United States of America; and therefore need not repeat them in this place; but ſhall only mention, that on the 4th of July 1776, the Thirteen American provinces, by a ſolemn act and declaration, renounced their allegiance to the Britiſh crown, contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendſhip for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage, &c. and from that time conſidered themſelves as Free and Independent States, and have been recognized as ſuch by all the belligerent powers. Each of the colonies, however, reſerved to themſelves alone the excluſive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation; but every ſtate is to abide by the determinations of the United States in Congreſs aſſembled, in all queſtions which are ſubmitted to them by the confederation. Delegates from each ſtate are to meet in Congreſs on the firſt of November in every year; for managing the general intereſts. On the 30th of January 1778, the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the Thirteen United Colonies of America, as Independent States. On April 19th, 1782, Holland acknowledged them as ſuch; and on the 30th of November 1782, proviſional articles were ſigned at Paris, by the Britiſh and American commiſſioners, in which his Britannic Majeſty acknowledged the Thirteen Colonies to be Free, Sovereign, and Independent States; and theſe articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. On February 5th, 1783, Sweden acknowledged them as ſuch; on the 25th of the ſame month, Denmark; in March 1783, Spain; and Ruſſia, in July following.

By the report of the committee appointed by the Congreſs for that purpoſe, the foreign debt of the United States, incurred by the late war, in obtaining their Independence, amounted to 7,885,085 dollars; and the domeſtic debt to 34,115,290; the total of which, at 4s. 6d. each, is equal to 9,450,084l. ſterling; and the intereſt at ſix per cent, is 567,005l. On the other hand, the coſt of the war to Great-Britain is moderately computed at 115,654,914l. and the additional burthen by it, ſince January 1775, is 4,557,575l. During the war, the States of America, according to authentic eſtimates, loſt by the ſword and in priſon 80,000 men; and the number of Britiſh ſoldiers killed in the ſervice amounted to 43,633 men, according to the returns at New-York.

NEW ENGLAND.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Diviſions, Rivers, Climate, Produce, Mines, Animals, Natives, Laws, Religion, Towns, Commerce, Manufactures, and Government.

THIS country is ſituated between 41 and 49 deg. of north lat. and between 67 and 74 of weſt long. It is 550 miles in length, and 200 in breadth; and bounded on the north-eaſt by Nova-Scotia; on the ſouth, by New-York; on the eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the weſt by Canada.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The north diviſion, or government	New Hampſhire.	Portſmouth.
The middle diviſion	Maſſachuſet's colony	Boſton.
The ſouth diviſion	Rhode-Iſland, &c.	Newport.
The weſt diviſion.	Connecticut.	New London. Hertford.

The principal rivers in this country are Connecticut, Thames, Patuxet, Menimack, Piſcataqua, Saco, Caſco, Kennebeck, Penobſcot, or Pentagonet.

The moſt remarkable bays and harbours are thoſe formed by Plymouth, Rhode-Iſland, and Providence plantations; Monument-Bay, Weſt harbour, formed by the bending of Cape Cod; Boſton harbour, Piſcataqua, and Caſco-Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Cod, Marble-Head, Cape Anne, Cape Nettick, Cape Porpus, Cape Elizabeth, and Cape Small-Point.

Notwithſtanding New England is ſituated near ten degrees nearer the equator than the mother-country, yet the winter begins ſooner, and continues longer, than with us. But the ſummer is extremely hot, and even more ſo than in places that lie under the ſame parallel in Europe: for the ſpace of two months, however, the ſky is perfectly clear, which renders the country ſo healthy, that it is reported to agree better with Engliſh conſtitutions, than any other of the American provinces. The length of their day at Boſton, in ſummer and winter, is pretty nearly the ſame as in London.

With reſpect to the ſoil, all the lands on the eaſtern ſhore of America are moſtly low, and in ſome parts ſwampy; but further back they riſe into hills. The north-eaſt parts of New-England are rocky and mountainous, and the earth ſhallow. Near Maſſachuſet's-Bay, the ſoil is black, and as rich as in any part of England; and here the firſt planters found the graſs above three feet high. The ſoil of the uplands is leſs fruitful, being a mixture of ſand and gravel, inclining to clay: the low grounds abound in meadows and paſtures: they commonly allot about two acres to the maintenance of a cow. The beſt meadows produce about a ton of hay to the acre; ſome produce two tons; but the hay is rank and ſour.

European grain has not been cultivated here with much ſucceſs. The wheat is very ſubject to be blaſted; the barley is a hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy: but the Indian corn, which makes the food of the common people, flouriſhes here in high perfection. The New England people not only make bread of this grain, but malt, and brew it into beer, which is not contemptible, though their common drink is cyder and ſpruce-beer; the latter is made of the tops of the ſpruce fir, with the addition of a ſmall quantity of molaſſes. They alſo raiſe in New England a large quantity of flax and hemp: all the fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. It is not unuſual to ſee ſeven or eight hundred fine peaches on a ſingle tree; and ſeven barrels of cyder have, in one ſeaſon, been preſſed from the fruit of a ſingle apple-tree.

This country is chiefly diſtinguiſhed for the variety and excellence of its timber; particularly oak, aſh, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypreſs, beech, walnut, cheſnut, hazel, ſaſſafras, ſumach, and other woods, uſed in dyeing or tanning leather, carpenters work, and ſhip-building. The oak is thought to be inferior to that of the mother-country; but the firs are of prodigious height and bulk, and furniſh the royal navy of England with maſts and yards: they alſo extract from them conſiderable quantities of pitch, tar, roſin, gums, and balm. The productions of their foreſts are of prodigious ſervice to this country, where ſhip-building makes a very conſiderable branch of trade.

The iron mines of New England are truly valuable: the metal is of an excellent temper, and, if improved, may

may become a great national benefit: copper and lead are alſo found, but in no great plenty.

All kinds of European animals thrive here, and multiply exceedingly. Horned cattle are very numerous, and ſome of them very large. Oxen have been killed of eighteen hundred weight. Hogs alſo are numerous, and particularly excellent; ſome are ſo large as to weigh eighteen ſcore. The horſes are ſmall, but extremely hardy. They have alſo a great number of ſheep, and of a very good kind; but the wool, though of a ſtaple ſufficiently long, is not near ſo fine as that of England: they however manufacture a great deal of it with ſucceſs. Elks, deer, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, beavers, otters, bears, monkies, martins, racoons, ſubbs, wolves or wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other wild and tame animals, are found in this province, moſt of them in great abundance: but one of the moſt ſingular animals of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moſe, or mooſe-deer. There are two ſpecies of this animal; the light grey mooſe, and the large black mooſe: the former often herd thirty or more together, is a very fine animal, and reſembles the ordinary deer: the latter, or black mooſe, is a very ſtately creature, about twelve feet high: his body about the ſize of a bull; his neck reſembles a ſtag, and his fleſh is extremely grateful; the horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, where they ſpread twelve feet, and have ſhoots or branches to each horn, which ſpread about ſix feet. When he traverſes a wood or thicket, he lays his horns on his back, in order to prevent their being entangled in the boughs. Theſe prodigious horns he ſheds every year. The black mooſe does not ſpring or riſe like the common deer in going; but one of the largeſt ſize has been ſeen, in his common walk, to ſtep over a gate five feet high: when unharboured, he will run a courſe of twenty or thirty miles, before he ſtands at bay; and, when cloſely purſued, generally takes to the water. The Indians hunt this creature, and generally with ſucceſs, notwithſtanding his great ſwiftneſs.

Few countries abound more with fowls, as turkies, geeſe, partridges, ducks, wigeons, dappers, ſwans, heathcocks, herons, ſtorks, black-birds, all ſorts of barn-door fowl, vaſt flights of pigeons, ravens, crows, &c. Among a vaſt variety of reptiles, rattle-ſnakes, toads, and frogs, abound in the uncleared parts of the province, where, with the owls, they make in the ſummer evenings a moſt hideous noiſe.

Nor are the New England ſeas and rivers leſs prolific than the land. They abound in fiſh; and even whales of ſeveral kinds are found here: the whale-bone, however, is ſaid to be leſs valuable than that of Greenland. A terrible fiſh, called the whale-killer, is alſo found in theſe ſeas: it is from twenty to thirty feet long, with remarkably ſtrong teeth and jaws. Ten or twelve of theſe fiſh will attack a large whale, and often deſtroy him; but they frequently pay dear for their temerity; a ſingle ſtroke from the tail of the whale being ſufficient to put an end to the conteſt; and therefore they are very careful not to come within the reach of that part. At the mouth of the river Penobſcot is a mackerel fiſhery; and vaſt quantities of cod are taken during the winter ſeaſon.

The moſt populous and flouriſhing parts of Great-Britain, do not make a much better appearance than the cultivated parts of New England, which reach above ſixty miles back: with reſpect to population, the number of conſiderable and trading towns, and the manufactures carried on in them, this country is greatly ſuperior to any other of the colonies. Here are many gentlemen of conſiderable landed eſtates, which they let to farmers, or manage by their ſtewards or overſeers; but the greater part of the people are compoſed of a ſubſtantial yeomanry, who cultivate their own freeholds, without a dependence on any but Providence, and their own induſtry. Theſe freeholds generally paſs to their children in the manner of gavel-kind, which prevents the far greater part of them from being able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. This manner of inheriting has remarkable good effects: it keeps the people within bounds of their original happy mediocrity, or, if neceſſity urges, makes them more ready to go backward into the uncultivated parts of the province, where land may be had at an eaſy rate, and in large portions. By this means, and from the form of their government, they acquire a very free, bold, and republican ſpirit. The common ſort of people in no part of the world are ſo independent, or poſſeſs ſo many of the conveniencies of life: they are uſed, from their infancy, to the exerciſe of arms; and they have a militia, which, conſidered as ſuch, is by no means contemptible, but their military ſtrength is now greatly augmented.

Dr. Douglaſs, a well-informed writer, who publiſhed at Boſton an account of the Britiſh colonies in America, about the year 1752, computes the number of inhabitants at 354,000; and proportions them in the following manner:

Maſſachuſet's Bay	200,000	: in 1783,	they were	350,000
Connecticut - -	100,000	——	——	206,000
Rhode Iſland - -	30,000	——	——	50,000
New Hampſhire	24,000	——	——	82,000
	354,000			688,000

So that, by this calculation, the number of inhabitants has ſo amazingly increaſed by new ſettlers from various parts of Europe, and by a very rapid population, that they at preſent amount to near 700,000, including Negroes, and a ſmall number of Indians.

Throughout the whole populous and fertile province of Connecticut, the greateſt care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept ſtreight by means of a board; a practice learnt of the Indian women, who abhor all crooked people; ſo that deformity is very uncommon here. The men are in general robuſt, ſtout, and tall. The women are fair, handſome, and genteel; and in their manners and behaviour, reſerved and modeſt. They are not deeply verſed in the laws or myſteries of whiſt or quadrille, nor have they any great acquaintance with plays and operas; but they will converſe freely upon matters relative to hiſtory, geography, and other literary ſubjects. They are extremely hoſpitable to ſtrangers and travellers in this country.

In this part of America, the church of England is far from being in a flouriſhing condition; in ſeveral places, the number of auditors do not amount to twelve perſons; and in the year 1768, the four provinces contained upwards of 700 religious aſſemblies, of which thirty-ſix only obſerved the forms of the church of England; but the form of its worſhip having lately undergone ſome material regulations in theſe parts, by reducing it to more moderate Anti-trinitarian principles, ſo as to make it more nearly reſemble that of the Preſbyterians, it is therefore thought that the profeſſors of that denomination will ſoon become more numerous. The Connecticut province hath alſo provided a biſhop for the Epiſcopalians among them, by ſending one of their number to Scotland, to be ordained by the non-juring biſhops of the Epiſcopal Church in that kingdom, which ceremony was performed at Aberdeen. Every particular ſociety or church of Diſſenters is independent of all other eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction; nor does there lie any appeal from their puniſhments or cenſures. The miniſters of Boſton depend entirely on the liberality of their hearers for ſupport, a voluntary contribution being made for them by the congregation, every time divine ſervice is celebrated. It is but lately that they ſuffered any member of the church of England to have a ſhare in the magiſtracy, or to be elected a member of the Commons, or Houſe of Repreſentatives.

Their

Their laws were formerly very ſevere againſt Quakers. To bring one in, was a forfeiture of 100l. to conceal one, 40s. an hour; to go to a Quaker's meeting, 10s. to preach there, 5s. A Quaker, not an inhabitant, was ſubject to baniſhment; and if he returned, death. Vagrant Quakers were ſentenced to be whipped, branded with the letter R on the left ſhoulder, and baniſhed; if they returned, death: but theſe, and ſome other ſevere eccleſiaſtical laws are now repealed, in conſequence of the diffuſion of more humane and equitable principles. Calviniſm, from the principles of the firſt ſettlers hath been very prevalent in New England, many of whoſe inhabitants obſerve the Sabbath with ſtrictneſs; but their obſervance of it hath of late been much diminiſhed. Since their independence, there is no eſtabliſhed religion in the province, but every ſect is allowed the free exerciſe of their religion, and is equally under the protection of the laws.

It is not improbable that this province will, in a courſe of years, make a conſiderable figure in the republic of letters; ſince we find, that on the 4th of May 1780, an act was paſſed by the Council and Houſe of Repreſentatives of Maſſachuſet's-Bay, for incorporating and eſtabliſhing a ſociety for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and ſciences; it is intitled, The American Academy of Arts and Sciences; the firſt members were named in the act; and they were never to exceed 200, nor to be fewer than forty. It was declared in the act, that the end and deſign of the inſtitution of the ſaid Academy, was, to promote and encourage the knowledge of the Antiquities of America, and of the Natural Hiſtory of the country, and to determine the uſes to which its various natural productions might be applied; to promote and encourage medicinal diſcoveries; in mathematical diſquiſitions, philoſophical inquiries and experiments; aſtronomical, meteorological, and geographical obſervations; improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce; and, in ſhort, to cultivate every art and ſcience which might tend to advance the intereſt, honour, dignity, and happineſs of a free, independent ſtate. This act, which was calculated for promoting the above-mentioned laudable purpoſes, was framed and eſtabliſhed as a law, ſince the commencement of the late war between Great-Britain and the colonies, and even while that war was carried on with great animoſity on both ſides.

No perſon can be arreſted in this province, if there are any means of ſatisfaction; nor impriſoned, unleſs there be a concealment of effects. Adultery was formerly death to both parties.

Boſton is the chief town of the county of Middleſex, and of all New England; it was formerly the chief of the Britiſh empire in America. It ſtands on a peninſula at the bottom of Maſſachuſet's-Bay, about eight miles from its mouth, and is well fortified. The approach to the harbour by ſhipping is narrow; but within it there is room enough for 500 ſail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the iſlands of the Bay ſtands Fort William, the moſt regular fortreſs in the Britiſh plantations: no ſhip can approach the town, without paſſing directly under the guns of the fort. About two leagues from the city is a light-houſe, erected on a rock, which, in time of war, makes ſignals to the caſtle, and the caſtle to the town. At the bottom of the bay, which is ſpacious enough to contain a numerous navy, is a pier, near 2000 feet in length, with a row of merchants' warehouſes on the north ſide. The city lies in the ſhape of a half-moon round the harbour, being in length about two miles, and in ſome places near three quarters of a mile broad. Here are ten churches of different denominations, a fine town-houſe, a printing-office, and ſeveral bookſellers ſhops. Here alſo the governor reſides, the general aſſembly and the chief courts of judicature are held, and here are tranſacted the affairs of the whole province. There is a market every Thurſday, and fairs for three days together, beginning on the firſt Tueſday in May, and the laſt Tueſday in October. Above 600 ſhips have been laden here in a year, for Europe and the Britiſh plantations, with lumber, beef, pork, fiſh, &c. The neck of land which joins the peninſula on which the city is built to the continent, is not above fifty yards wide. An adjoining diſtrict, called Charles-Town, was deſtroyed ſince the commencement of the late civil war.

Cambridge-Town, commonly called Newton, is ſituated on the northern branch of Charles River, about three miles from Boſton, in which are ſeveral good ſtreets; but is moſt conſiderable for its univerſity, conſiſting of three colleges. It is governed by a preſident, five fellows, and the treaſurer, who have each of them a competent revenue ſettled on them.

Salem, Portſmouth, Newhaven, Newport, and the other towns of New England, are in general neatly built, and commodiouſly ſituated on fine navigable rivers, with good harbours, but have nothing remarkable in them.

New England is remarkable for its commerce; its own productions furniſh a large quantity of goods for exportation; but this is far from forming the whole trade of this province, their ſhips are the chief carriers of all the colonies of North-America, eſpecially to and from the Weſt-India ſugar iſlands. The principal commodities of the country are pig and bar iron, which, under the Britiſh government, was imported into England duty free; maſts, yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they make large contracts for the royal navy; pot and pearl aſhes, pipe ſtaves, lumber, boards; all ſorts of proviſions, which they ſend to the French, Dutch, and Britiſh ſugar iſlands; as corn, biſcuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheeſe, apples, cyder, onions, dried mackerel and cod fiſh. They alſo ſend to thoſe iſlands, cattle, horſes, planks, hoops, ſhingles, pipe ſtaves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calves ſkins, and tobacco. Their peltry trade, which was formerly very conſiderable, is now of ſmall account. They have very valuable fiſheries on their coaſt, in mackerel and cod, which employ a vaſt number of hands, and of which they are at great pains to reap the advantage. With the produce of theſe fiſheries, they trade to Spain, Italy, the Levant, and the Weſt-Indies, to a conſiderable amount annually.

The manufactures of this country are daily improving. They make coarſe linen and woollen cloth for home conſumption; hats are alſo made here, and ſold in a clandeſtine manner, in all the other colonies, where they are eagerly purchaſed. Sugar-baking, the diſtillery, paper-making, and ſalt-works are in an improving ſtate. The buſineſs of ſhip-building is one of the greateſt and moſt profitable employments of this country. Ships are often built here upon commiſſion; but the greateſt number on their own account. The merchants of New England, as ſoon as a ſhip is conſtructed, load her with the produce of the country, as naval ſtores, fiſh, and train oil, and ſend her out on a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Levant; where, after diſpoſing of the cargo, they engage with the merchants in carrying goods from one port to another, till an opportunity offers of ſelling the ſhip to advantage, which is generally done in a very ſhort time. This lucrative branch of commerce is now on the decline. In the year 1738, they built at Boſton forty-one large ſhips, burden in all 6,324 tons; in 1743 only thirty; in 1749 they were reduced to fifteen, making in the whole no more than 2,450 tons of ſhipping. Since which we had no exact account; but it is ſuppoſed to continue much in the ſame ſtate. The ſhips and veſſels built at the other towns in New England, are not included in this account.

†

Before

Before the late unhappy differences, the value of Britiſh manufactures and Indian commodities ſent to this province from the mother-country, on an average of three years, amounted to about 395,000l. and the imports to Great-Britain, about 370,500l. but both are greatly decreaſed, though the trade has been reviving for ſome time.

The hiſtory and government of New England next demand our attention. This part of North America is at preſent divided into the four provinces of New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſet's, Rhode-Iſland, and Connecticut. In 1606, James I. had erected two companies by letters patent, with a power to ſend colonies into thoſe parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, being the north-eaſt coaſt of America. However, as no ſettlements were made in conſequence of this authority, the companies contented themſelves with ſending out a few ſhips to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fiſh on their coaſt. Things continued in this ſtate, till the acceſſion of Charles I. when they were far from mending. This prince, who gave himſelf up entirely to church and churchmen, finiſhed his ill conduct by placing Dr. Laud at the head of the church: this prelate, at the very time when religious diſſenſions, by which England was torn in pieces, had become warm and furious, perſecuted all ſects of nonconformiſts with unrelenting ſeverity; which, inſtead, of raiſing terror, produced a ſort of indignant hatred in the ſufferers, who became every day more averſe from liſtening to the leaſt terms of argeement with ſurplices, organs, common prayer, or communion tables at the eaſt end of the church; and there was no part of the known world whither they would not fly for liberty of conſcience.

A number of the ſame perſuaſion had taken refuge in Holland at the beginning of James's reign; but even in that country, where every ſect of religion is tolerated, they were equally unhappy. They were not perſecuted indeed, but narrowly watched. In this ſtate of indolent ſecurity, their zeal began to have dangerous languors for want of oppoſition; and, being deſtitute both of power and conſequence, they became tired of their aſylum, and deſirous of reſiding where they had no ſuperior. Accordingly, an agent was diſpatched to England, who agreed with the company who had obtained a charter for an excluſive trade to North America, under the title of the Plymouth Council, for a tract of land in the New World for forming a ſettlement. The royal permiſſion was alſo obtained, and a number of thoſe people embarked for America, then little better than a thick and gloomy foreſt.

This colony gave the name of New Plymouth to the place where they firſt ſettled. The number of adventurers was but ſmall, they landed at a bad ſeaſon of the year, and were ſupported only by their own private funds. The winter was dreadfully cold, and the country covered with wood, afforded very little for the refreſhment of perſons rendered ſickly by a tedious voyage, or for the ſuſtenance of an infant colony. The conſequences were ſuch as might have been expected; near half of them periſhed by the ſcurvy, by want, and the ſeverity of the climate. They who ſurvived, however, were not diſpirited either by the loſſes or the hardſhips they were ſtill doomed to endure. Supported by that vigour which then formed the character of Engliſhmen, and by the ſatisfaction of being beyond the reach of the arm of ſpiritual power, they reduced, by unremitted labour, the ſavage country to yield them a tolerable livelihood, and by degrees a comfortable ſubſiſtence. This eſtabliſhment was made in the year 1621. In the mean time, the ſame claſs of people in England being haraſſed by the arm of eccleſiaſtical authority, many of them retired to their brethren in America. The colony now began to wear the face of proſperity, and, by the end of the year, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorcheſter, Charles-Town, and Boſton, of which the latter has ſince become the capital of New England.

It might be naturally expected that the inhabitants of New England, who had themſelves ſo lately fled from perſecution, would have been diſpoſed to grant the greateſt freedom to others in ſimilar circumſtances. Many of them were bigotted; and, though they had felt the weight of perſecution themſelves, they had no charity for thoſe who profeſſed ſentiments different from their own. The very doctrine of any kind of toleration was ſo odious to the greateſt part, that one of the firſt perſecutions in this country was exerciſed on a ſmall party among themſelves, who were hardy enough to mention that the civil magiſtrate had no power to uſe compulſory methods in the affairs of religion. The fury of unbridled zeal was let looſe; and, after the people had been haraſſed by all the vexatious methods that could be deviſed, they were driven from their farms, and forced to fly for ſhelter to another diſtrict. They ſettled to the ſouthward of their brethren, near Cape Cod, where they formed a new government on their own principles, and built a town which they called Providence; and ſuch is the connection between juſtneſs of ſentiment and external proſperity, that the government of Rhode-Iſland, though ſmall, became extremely populous and flouriſhing. In a word, as perſecution gave riſe to the firſt ſettlement in New England, ſo ſubſequent perſecutions among themſelves gave riſe to new colonies, and thus facilitated the ſpreading of the people over the whole country; and, in proceſs of time, America became the main aſylum of all diſcontented and enterpriſing ſpirits; and ſuch were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that, in 1637, a proclamation was publiſhed, prohibiting any perſon from ſailing thither, without an expreſs licence from the government. It is ſaid, that, for want of ſuch a licence, Oliver Cromwell, and others of that party, were prevented from going to New England, after they had taken ſhipping with that intent.

Theſe provinces, namely, New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſet's, Rhode-Iſland, and Connecticut, were impowered by their charter to eſtabliſh ſuch order, and form ſuch laws as they thought requiſite, provided they were not contrary to the laws of England. Strangers to the qualifications neceſſary in legiſlators, and violent enthuſiaſts, the firſt ſettlers imitated the ancient Jewiſh polity in almoſt every reſpect; they adopted the books of Moſes as the laws of the land. Theſe were ill ſuited to the occaſion, and therefore were ſoon after laid aſide. Few charters were ever more ample than thoſe granted to the firſt ſettlers of New England. The coloniſts were indeed almoſt independent of their mother-country. Not only the power of making laws was veſted in them, but they alſo enjoyed the privilege of chooſing their own magiſtrates, the governor, the council, and the aſſembly. But it ſeems even theſe powers were not ſufficient; for, towards the end of Charles the Second's reign, the Maſſachuſets colony were accuſed of violating their charter, as was the city of London, and deprived of it by a judgment in the King's-Bench. From that time they continued without a charter till the Revolution; the bigotted reign of James the Second was a very improper ſeaſon for Diſſenters to apply for favours. But ſoon after his abdication, when Engliſh liberty was reſtored, the coloniſts of New England obtained a new charter, but much inferior in extenſive privileges to the former. The appointment of the governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, were veſted in the crown; the command of the militia was placed in the hands of the governor, as captain-general of the province; all judges, juſtices, and ſheriffs, intruſted with the execution of the laws, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor had a negative in the

choice of counſellors, peremptory and unlimited. He was not obliged to give a reaſon for what he did in this particular, or reſtrained to any number; authentic copies of the ſeveral acts paſſed by the colony, as well as others, were to be tranſmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but, if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were preſented, they were not afterwards repealable by the crown: no laws, ordinances, or elections of magiſtrates, or any acts of government whatever, were valid, without the governor's aſſent in writing; and appeals for ſums above 300l. ſterling were made to the king and council. But, notwithſtanding theſe reſtrictions, the Maſſachuſets colony ſtill enjoyed many valuable privileges: they not only choſe the members of the aſſembly, or lower houſe of parliament, but that aſſembly, with the governor's concurrence, choſe the council, which reſembled the Engliſh houſe of lords; and the governor himſelf depended upon the aſſembly for his annual ſupport. The ancient colony of Plymouth and territory called Main, are united to the Maſſachuſets government.

The colony of New Hampſhire, as a royal government, was more dependent on the mother-country; the council, as well as the governor, were appointed by the crown. In other reſpects, the government of New Hampſhire and that of Maſſachuſets-Bay were the ſame.

The colony of Connecticut never forfeited their charter; but enjoyed all the privileges granted at their firſt ſettlement.

There were originally three ſorts of governments eſtabliſhed by the Engliſh on the continent of America, viz. royal governments, charter governments, and proprietary governments. A royal government was properly ſo called, becauſe the colony was immediately dependent on the crown, and the king remained ſovereign of the colony. A charter government was ſo called, becauſe a company, incorporated by the king's charter, was in a manner veſted with ſovereign authority. A proprietary government was ſo denominated, becauſe the proprietor, either by purchaſe or gift, had a kind of regal authority.

In conſequence of the independence of the colonies on the legiſlative authority of Great-Britain, the government of New England has been entirely changed. By an order from the council at Boſton, the declaration of the American congreſs, abſolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the crown of Great-Britain, and declaring them free and independent, was, on the 25th of July 1776, publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the ſtate-houſe in that town; and, in October 1780, a conſtitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Maſſachuſets, with a declaration of rights, was agreed to and eſtabliſhed by the inhabitants of that province; the preamble to which repreſented, that "the end of the inſtitution, maintenance, and adminiſtration of government, is, to ſecure the exiſtence of the body politic; to protect it, and to furniſh the individuals who compoſe it with the power of enjoying, in ſafety and tranquillity, their natural rights, and the bleſſings of life; and that whenever theſe great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take meaſures neceſſary for their proſperity and happineſs," &c. It was in this conſtitution provided, among other things, that no peaceable ſubject ſhould be hurt, moleſted, or reſtrained, in his perſon, liberty, or eſtates, for worſhipping God in the manner and ſeaſon moſt agreeable to the dictates of his own conſcience: it was alſo enacted, that all religious ſocieties, &c. ſhould at all times have the excluſive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting with them for their ſupport and maintenance; that no ſubordination of any ſect or denomination to another ſhould ever be eſtabliſhed by law; and that every denomination of Chriſtians, demeaning themſelves peaceably, and as good ſubjects of the commonwealth, ſhould be equally entitled to its protection; it was likewiſe therein declared, that, as the liberty of the preſs is eſſential to the ſecurity of freedom in a ſtate, it ought not therefore to be reſtrained in that commonwealth.

The legiſlative department is to be formed by a ſenate, and a houſe of repreſentatives; each of which to have a negative on the other; the ſenators, and members of the houſe of repreſentatives, are to be elected annually; every male, of twenty-one years of age or upwards, reſident during one year in any particular town of the commonwealth, and poſſeſſed of a freehold eſtate in the ſaid town of the annual income of 3l. or any eſtate of 60l. value, is entitled to a vote for ſenators and repreſentatives of the diſtrict of which he is an inhabitant. The ſenators are forty, viz. for Suffolk ſix, Eſſex ſix, Middleſex five, Hampſhire four, Plymouth three, Barnſtable one, Briſtol three, York two, Duke's and Nantucket one, Worceſter five, Cumberland one, Lincoln one, Berkſhire two. The houſe of repreſentatives is alſo choſen in certain proportions, and paid by the conſtituent body.

A ſupreme executive magiſtrate, who ſhould be ſtyled the governor of the commonwealth of Maſſachuſets, and alſo a lieutenant-governor, were directed to be annually choſen by the whole body of electors: theſe were to be aſſiſted by nine counſellors, choſen by ballot, out of the ſenate. The ſecretary, treaſurer, receiver-general, notaries-republic, and naval officers, are elected annually by the ſenators and repreſentatives. The judiciary power is to be ſeptennial, and the delegates to congreſs are to be choſen each year by and out of the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives, or general court. The governor has no control in the choice of officers, but has a negative on bills tranſmitted to him for aſſent from the general court.

New Hampſhire and Connecticut have not long finally ſettled their forms of government; for they at firſt, for the moſt part, adopted that of Maſſachuſets-Bay. The Sate of Rhode-Iſland adheres to their original charter as the rule of government, ſince it contains an ample grant of all legiſlative, judicial, and executive powers.

The inhabitants of New England are almoſt univerſally of Engliſh deſcent; and it is owing to this circumſtance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the Engliſh language has been preſerved among them ſo free of corruption. It is true, that from lazineſs, inattention, and want of acquaintance with mankind, many of the people in the country have accuſtomed themſelves to uſe ſome peculiar phraſes, and to pronounce certain words in a flat, drawling manner. Hence foreigners pretend they know a New Englandman from his manner of ſpeaking. But the ſame may be ſaid with regard to a Pennſylvanian, a Virginian, or a Carolinian; for all have ſom phraſes and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themſelves, which diſtinguiſh them from their neighbours. Men of eminence in the ſeveral learned profeſſions and colleges, ought to be conſidered as forming the ſtandard of pronunciation for their reſpective ſtates; and not that claſs of people who have imbibed the habit of uſing a number of ſingular and ridiculous phraſes, and who pronounce badly.

The New Englanders are generally tall, ſtout, and well built. They glory, and perhaps with juſtice, in poſſeſſing that ſpirit of freedom, which induced their anceſtors to leave their native country, and to brave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardſhips of ſettling in a wilderneſs. Their education, laws, and ſituation, ſerve to inſpire them with high notions of liberty. Their jealouſy is awakened at the firſt motion towards an invaſion of their rights. They are indeed often jealous to exceſs; a circumſtance which is a fruitful ſource of imaginary grievances, and of innumerable groundleſs ſuſpicions, and unjuſt complaints againſt government. But theſe ebullitions of jealouſy,

jealouſy, though cenſurable, and productive of ſome political evils, ſhew that the eſſence of true liberty exiſts in New England; for jealouſy is the guardian of liberty, and a characteriſtic of free republicans. A law, reſpecting the deſcent of eſtates which are generally held in fee ſimple, which for ſubſtance is the ſame in all the New England ſtates, is the chief foundation and protection of this liberty. By this law, the poſſeſſions of the father are to be equally divided among all the children, excepting the eldeſt ſon, who has a double portion. In this way is preſerved that happy mediocrity among the people, which, by inducing œconomy and induſtry, removes from them temptations to luxury, and forms them to habits of ſobriety and temperance. At the ſame time, their induſtry and frugality exempt them from want, and from the neceſſity of ſubmitting to any encroachment on their liberties.

In New England learning is more generally diffuſed among all ranks of people than in any other part of the globe; ariſing from the excellent eſtabliſhment of ſchools in every townſhip.

Another very valuable ſource of information to the people is the newſpapers, of which not leſs than thirty thouſand are printed every week in New England, and circulated in almoſt every town and village in the country.

A perſon of mature age, who cannot both read and write, is rarely to be found. By means of this general eſtabliſhment of ſchools, the extenſive circulation of newſpapers, and the conſequent ſpread of learning, every townſhip throughout the country is furniſhed with men capable of conducting the affairs of their town with judgment and diſcretion. Theſe men are the channels of political information to the lower claſs of people; if ſuch a claſs may be ſaid to exiſt in New England, where every man thinks himſelf at leaſt as good as his neighbour, and believes that all mankind are, or ought to be, equal. The people from their childhood form habits of canvaſſing public affairs, and commence politicians. This naturally leads them to be very inquiſitive. It is with knowledge as with riches, the more a man has, the more he wiſhes to obtain; his deſire has no bound. This deſire after knowledge, in a greater or leſs degree, prevails throughout all claſſes of people in New England; and from their various modes of expreſſing it, ſome of which are blunt and familiar, bordering on impertinence, ſtrangers have been induced to mention *impertinent inquiſitiveneſs* as a diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of New England people. But this is true only with regard to that claſs of people who have confined themſelves to domeſtic life, and have not had opportunity of mingling with the world; and ſuch people are not peculiar to New England—they compoſe a great part of the citizens of every ſtate. This claſs, it is true, is large in New England, where agriculture is the principal employment. But will not a candid and ingenious mind aſcribe this inquiſitiveneſs in theſe honeſt and well-meaning people to a *laudable* rather than to a cenſurable diſpoſition?

A very conſiderable part of the people have either too little or too much learning to make peaceable ſubjects. They know enough, however, to think they know a great deal, when in fact they know but little. "A little learning is a dangerous thing." Each man has his independent ſyſtem of politics; and each aſſumes a dictatorial office. Hence originates that reſtleſs, litigious, complaining ſpirit, which forms a dark ſhade in the character of New Englandmen.

This litigious temper is the genuine fruit of republicaniſm; but it denotes a corruption of virtue, which is one of its eſſential principles. Where a people have a great ſhare of freedom, an equal ſhare of virtue is neceſſary to the peaceable enjoyment of it. Freedom, without virtue or honour, is licentiouſneſs.

§

Before the late war, which introduced into New England a flood of corruptions, with many improvements, the ſabbath was obſerved with great ſtrictneſs; no unneceſſary travelling, no ſecular buſineſs, no viſiting, no diverſions were permitted on that ſacred day, They conſidered it as conſecrated to divine worſhip, and were generally punctual and ſerious in their attendance upon it. Their laws were ſtrict in guarding the ſabbath againſt every innovation. The ſuppoſed ſeverity with which theſe laws were compoſed and executed, together with ſome other traits in their religious character, have acquired, for the New Englanders, the name of a ſuperſtitious, bigotted people. But ſuperſtition and bigotry are ſo indefinite in their ſignifications, and ſo variouſly applied by perſons of different principles and educations, that it is not eaſy to determine whether they ever deſerved that character. Leaving every perſon to enjoy his own opinion in regard to this matter, we will only obſerve, that, ſince the war, a catholic, tolerant ſpirit, occaſioned by a more enlarged intercourſe with mankind, has greatly increaſed, and is becoming univerſal; and if they do not break the proper bound, and liberalize away all true religion, of which there is much danger, they will counteract that ſtrong propenſity in human nature, which leads men to vibrate from one extreme to its oppoſite.

There is one diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic in the religious character of this people, which we muſt not omit to mention; and that is, the cuſtom of annually celebrating faſts and thankſgivings. In the ſpring, the ſeveral governors iſſue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiouſly obſerved in faſting, humiliation, and prayer, throughout their reſpective ſtates, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harveſt, that gladſome æra in the huſbandman's life, the governors again iſſue their proclamations, appointing a day of public thankſgiving, enumerating the public bleſſings received in the courſe of the foregoing year.

This pious cuſtom originated with their venerable anceſtors, the firſt ſettlers in New England; and has been handed down as ſacred through the ſucceſſive generations of their poſterity. A cuſtom ſo rational, and ſo happily calculated to cheriſh in the minds of the people a ſenſe of their dependence on the Great Benefactor of the world for all their bleſſings, it is hoped will ever be ſacredly preſerved.

There is a claſs of people in New England of the baſer ſort, who, averſe to honeſt induſtry, have recourſe to knavery for ſubſiſtence. Skilled in all the arts of diſhoneſty, with the aſſumed face and frankneſs of integrity, they go about, like wolves in ſheep's clothing, with a deſign to defraud. Theſe people, enterpriſing, from neceſſity, have not confined their knaviſh tricks to New England. Other ſtates have felt the effects of their villainy. Hence they have characteriſed the New Englanders as a knaviſh, artful, and diſhoneſt people. But that conduct which diſtinguiſhes only a ſmall claſs of people in any nation or ſtate, ought not to be indiſcriminately aſcribed to all, or be ſuffered to ſtamp their national character. In New England there is as great a proportion of honeſt and induſtrious citizens as in any of the United States.

The people of New England generally obtain their eſtates by hard and perſevering labour: they of conſequence know their value, and ſpend with frugality. Yet in no country do the indigent and unfortunate fare better. Their laws oblige every town to provide a competent maintenance for their poor, and the neceſſitous ſtranger is protected, and relieved from their humane inſtitutions. It may in truth be ſaid, that in no part of the world are the people happier, better furniſhed with the neceſſaries and conveniences of life, or more independent than the farmers in New England. As the great body of the people are hardy, independent freeholders, their manners

are,

are, as they ought to be, congenial to their employment,—plain, ſimple, and unpoliſhed. Strangers are received and entertained among them with a great deal of artleſs ſincerity, friendly, and unformal hoſpitality. Their children, thoſe imitative creatures, to whoſe education particular attention is paid, early imbibe the manners and habits of thoſe around them; and the ſtranger, with pleaſure, notices the honeſt and decent reſpect that is paid him by the children as he paſſes through the country.

As the people, by repreſentation, make their own laws and appoint their own officers, they cannot be oppreſſed; and, living under governments which have few lucrative places, they have few motives to bribery, corrupt canvaſſings, or intrigue. Real abilities and a moral character unblemiſhed, are the qualifications requiſite in the view of moſt people for officers of public truſt. The expreſſion of a wiſh to be promoted, is the direct way to be diſappointed.

The inhabitants of New England are generally fond of the arts, and have cultivated them with great ſucceſs. Their colleges have flouriſhed beyond any others in the United States. The illuſtrious characters they have produced, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in politics, law, divinity, the mathematics and philoſophy, natural and civil hiſtory, and in the fine arts, particularly in poetry, evince the truth of theſe obſervations.

Many of the women in New England are handſome. They generally have fair, freſh, and healthful countenances, mingled with much female ſoftneſs and delicacy. Thoſe who have had the advantages of a good education (and they are conſiderably numerous) are genteel, eaſy, and agreeable in their manners, and are ſprightly and ſenſible in converſation. They are early taught to manage domeſtic concerns with neatneſs and œconomy. Ladies of the firſt rank and fortune make it a part of their daily buſineſs to ſuperintend the affairs of the family. Employment at the needle, in cookery, and at the ſpinning-wheel, with them is honourable. Idleneſs, even in thoſe of independent fortunes, is univerſally diſreputable. The women in the country manufacture the greateſt part of the clothing of their families. Their linen and woollen cloths are ſtrong and decent. Their butter and cheeſe is not inferior to any in the world.

Dancing is the principal and favourite amuſement in New England; and of this the young people of both ſexes are extremely fond. Gaming is practiſed by none but thoſe who cannot, or rather will not find a reputable employment. The gameſter, the horſe-jockey, and the knave, are equally deſpiſed, and their company is avoided by all who would ſuſtain fair and irreproachable characters. The odious and inhuman practices of duelling, gouging, cock-fighting, and horſe-racing, are ſcarcely known here.

The athletic and healthy diverſions of cricket, foot-ball, quoits, wreſtling, jumping, hopping, foot-races, and priſon-baſs, are univerſally practiſed in the country, and ſome of them in the moſt populous places, and by people of almoſt all ranks. Squirrel-hunting is a noted diverſion in country places, where this kind of game is plenty. Some divert themſelves with fox-hunting, and others with the more profitable ſports of fiſhing and duck-hunting: and in the frontier ſettlements, where deer and fur game abound, the inhabitants make a lucrative ſport of hunting them.

In the winter-ſeaſon, while the ground is covered with ſnow, which is commonly two or three months, ſleighing is the general diverſion. A great part of the families throught the country are furniſhed with horſes and ſleighs. The young people collect in parties, and with a great deal of ſociability reſort to a place of rendezvous, where they regale themſelves for a few hours with dancing and a ſocial ſupper, and then retire. Theſe diverſions, as well as all others, are many times carried to exceſs. To theſe exceſſes, and a ſudden expoſure to extreme cold after the exerciſe of dancing, phyſicians have aſcribed the conſumptions which are ſo frequent in New England among the young people.

CHAP. VI.

NEW YORK.

Situation, Extent and Boundaries, Rivers, Climate, Produce, Cities, Towns, and Government.

THIS province is ſituated between 40 and 46 deg. of north latitude, and between 72 and 76 deg. of weſt longitude. It is about 300 miles in length, and 150 in breadth, bounded on the North by New England, on the Weſt by Canada, on the South by Pennſylvania and New Jerſey, and on the Eaſt by New England and the Atlantic Ocean. It contans 24,000 ſquare miles.

New York, including the iſland of the ſame name, Long-Iſland, and Staten-Iſland, is divided into ten counties, as follows:

Counties.	Chief Towns.	
New York	New York.	
Albany	Albany.	
Ulſter	None.	
Ducheſs	None.	
Orange	Orange.	
Weſt-Cheſter	Weſt-Cheſter.	
King's	None.	
Queen's	Jamaica	Long Iſland
Suffolk	Southampton	Long Iſland
Richmond	Richmond	Long Iſland

The principal rivers in New York are Hudſon's and the Mohawks: the former has many excellent harbours, and is ſtored with a great variety of fiſh. Between Schenectady and the efflux of the Mohawks river, is the cataract or fall of Coſhoes, where the water ruſhes down a precipice near ſeventy feet high. The only remarkable lakes in this province, are lake George, and part of lake Champlain. The capes are, Sandy-Hook, near the entrance of the Raritan river; Montock Point, at the eaſt end of Long Iand; and Cape May, at the entrance of Delaware river.

The climate of this province is more temperate than that of New England, and the air is very healthy. The face of the country is low, flat, and marſhy, towards the ſea. The ſoil is remarkably fertile, and in general well cultivated. The vegetable productions are wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, oats, hemp, flax, and a vaſt variety of fruits in great abundance and perfection. The timber is nearly the ſame with that of New England, and large quantities of pot and pearl aſhes are made from the refuſe of the woods. The iron here is excellent, and found in great plenty.

New York ſtands between 40 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 74 deg. weſt long. on the ſouth-weſt of York-Iſland; it is twelve miles long, and between two and three broad, extremely well ſituated for trade, at the mouth of Hudſon's or the Iroquois river. The city is a mile long, and about a quarter of a mile broad. Many of the houſes are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine proſpect. The inhabitants, who are chiefly the deſcendants of Dutch families, are computed at about 5000, and the whole province contains near 200,000. They are in general endowed with a liberal, generous, and hoſpitable turn of mind. The city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery.

Kingſton is a pretty populous, well-built town, ninety miles up the river, where the Æſopus from New Jerſey falls into it. Albany is 143 miles up the river, and but five miles below which it is parted into two branches. It contains between 3 and 400 families, and has a ſtrong fort and garriſon.

There is not much eſſential difference between the commerce of New York and New England. The principal commodities of the trade are wheat, flour, Indian corn, oats, beef, pork, furs, and ſkins. They have a conſiderable ſhare in the logwood trade, and that which is carried on with the French and Spaniſh plantations. Their European trade is the ſame with that of New England, and they import the ſame ſpecies of commodities. From an average of three years, their exports amount to 526,000l. and their imports from Great-Britain to 531,000l. but whether they are the ſame ſince the late troubles in America, is not certainly known.

All religions were tolerated here, except the Jewiſh and Roman Catholic, and there profeſſors enjoyed equal privileges. There was originally no eſtabliſhed religion, except that of the Dutch, who followed the Preſbyterian diſcipline, which was granted the inhabitants when the province ſurrendered to the Engliſh, if it can be called ſuch. Here Proteſtants, according to the church of England, Dutch and Engliſh Preſbyterians, German Calviniſts, Lutherans, Baptiſts, Quakers, &c. have all their reſpective places of worſhip, and all live in harmony with one another, without diſcrimination or preference to any.

The ſynods of New York and Philadelphia, during their ſeſſion at Philadelphia, in May 1788, reſolved themſelves into four ſynods, viz. the ſynod of New York; the ſynod of Philadelphia; the ſynod of Virginia; and the ſynod of Carolina. Theſe ſynods are to meet annually in their reſpective ſtates, whence they take their names; and once a year, by their commiſſioners, in general council, at Philadelphia.

There are a number of Preſbyterian churches, commonly called SECEDERS, who have a ſeparate eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction. Theſe, as well as the other Preſbyterians, and the Dutch reformed churches, hold the doctrines of the goſpel upon the Calviniſtic plan, without any eſſential differences.

The Dutch reformed churches in this ſtate are divided into four claſſes, viz. the claſſis of New York, comprehending eighteen churches; the claſſis of Kingſton, twenty-three churches; the claſſis of Albany, twenty-three churches; part of the claſſis of Hackinſak, four churches. Theſe claſſes, together with the claſſes of Hackinſak and New Brunſwick, in New Jerſey, compoſe the Dutch reformed ſynod of New York and New Jerſey. The claſſes conſiſt of miniſters and ruling elders; each claſſis delegates two miniſters and an elder to repreſent them in ſynod. From the firſt planting of the Dutch churches in New York and New Jerſey, they have, under the claſſis of Amſterdam, been formed exactly upon the plan of the eſtabliſhed church of Holland, as far as that is eccleſiaſtical. A ſtrict correſpondence is maintained between the Dutch reformed ſynod of New York and New Jerſey, and the ſynod of North Holland and the claſſis of Amſterdam. The acts of their ſynods are mutually exchanged every year, and mutual advice is given and received in diſputes reſpecting doctrinal points and church diſcipline.

The principles and conſtitution of the Baptiſt churches are much the ſame as in Great-Britain.

The Epiſcopalian churches hold the ſame principles, have the ſame mode of worſhip and church government, and are in every other reſpect conſtituted upon the ſame plan with the church of the ſame denomination in England.

The Methodiſt intereſt, though ſmall in this ſtate, has greatly increaſed in the ſouthern ſtates ſince the revolution. They have eſtimated their number at 57,800. But their numbers are ſo various in different places, at different times, that it would be a matter of no ſmall difficulty to find out their exact amount. The late famous Mr. John Weſley has been called the father of this religious ſect. They warmly oppoſe the Calviniſtic doctrines of election and final perſeverance, and maintain that ſinleſs perfection is attainable in this life. Their mode of preaching is entirely extemporaneous. Their manner is very ſolemn, and their preaching is frequently attended with a ſurpriſing effect upon their audiences. Their churches are ſupplied by their preachers in rotation.

The Shakers are a ſect who ſprung up in Europe. A part of them came over from England to New York in 1774, and, being joined by others, they ſettled at Niſqueaunia, above Albany, whence they ſpread their doctrines, and increaſed to a conſiderable number; but their intereſt is now faſt declining. The late *Anna Leeſe*, whom they ſtyled the *Elect Lady*, was the head of this ſect. Her followers aſſerted, that ſhe was the woman ſpoken of in the twelfth of the Revelation, and that ſhe ſpoke ſeventy-two tongues: and although theſe tongues were unintelligible to the living, ſhe converſed with the dead, who underſtood her language. They alleged alſo that ſhe was the mother of all the *Elect:* that ſhe travailed for the whole world; that no bleſſing could deſcend to any perſon but only by and through her, and that in the way of her being poſſeſſed of their ſins, by their confeſſing and repenting of them, one by one, according to her direction. The Elect Lady uſed to aſſert that ſhe was immortal; that the day of judgment had commenced, and that ſhe and her followers were already ſet to judge the world. But her death has indiſputably proved that ſhe was not immortal as to bodily preſence; and this circumſtance, no doubt, has created ſuſpicions in the minds of ſome of her followers reſpecting ſome other of her aſſertions and doctrines, and occaſioned them to renounce the ſcheme.

Their worſhip, if ſuch extravagant conduct may be ſo called, conſiſts principally in dancing, ſinging, leaping, clapping their hands, falling on their knees, and uttering themſelves in groans and ſighs, in a ſound reſembling that of the roaring of water; turning round on their heels with aſtoniſhing ſwiftneſs, to ſhew, as they ſay, the power of God. All theſe geſticulations are performed in the moſt violent and boiſterous manner, and occaſion, at intervals, a ſhuddering not unlike that of a perſon in a ſtrong fit of the ague. Hence they are called, not improperly, *Shakers*.

Before we leave this head, we muſt mention, that, in April 1784, the legiſlature of this ſtate paſſed an act, enabling all religious denominations to appoint truſtees, not leſs than three, or more than nine, who ſhall be a body corporate, for the purpoſe of taking care of the temporalities of their reſpective congregations, and for the other purpoſes therein mentioned.

The miniſters of every denomination in the ſtate are ſupported by the voluntary contributions of the people, raiſed generally by ſubſcription, or by a tax upon the pews, except the Dutch churches in New York, Albany, Skenectady, and Kingſton, which have, except the two laſt, large eſtates confirmed by a charter. The Epiſcopal church alſo in New York poſſeſs a very large eſtate in and near the city.

This province was originally ſettled by the Dutch and Swedes, ſome time before the Diſſenters tranſported themſelves into New England. They called it the New Netherlands, continued in poſſeſſion of it till the reign of Charles II. when it was taken by the Engliſh in 1664. The Dutch, to balance this conqueſt, made themſelves maſters of Surinam, then belonging to the Engliſh. At the treaty of Breda, theſe reſpective acquiſitions were confirmed to the conquerors; the New Netherlands were ceded to the Engliſh, Surinam to the Dutch. This exchange produced a violent clamour among the political writers of thoſe times: it was ſaid, that the two provinces

were far from being equal; that Surinam was more than double the value of the New Netherlands; and, conſequently, that the miniſtry had made a very imprudent agreement: but time has ſufficiently ſhewn the miſtake, and the ſuperiority of the province of New York is univerſally allowed. The New Netherlands had not been long in our poſſeſſion before they were divided into provinces: and New York obtained its name from the King's brother, James, duke of York, to whom his majeſty granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent, bearing date the 20th of March, 1664. On the acceſſion of James II. to the crown, this province became a royal government, and continued ſo till the Americans renounced their allegiance to the king of Great-Britain.

The government of New York was adminiſtered by a governor, who had his commiſſion from the crown. The legiſlative power was lodged in the governor, council, and houſe of repreſentatives. The council conſiſted of 12 members nominated by the king: the houſe of repreſentatives of 27 members elected by the people: in other reſpects, the government was as nearly conformable to the laws of England as poſſible. The houſe of repreſentatives were elected every ſeven years; but no laws were valid till the royal aſſent had been obtained.

The ſupreme legiſlative power of this province has, however, ſince 1777, been veſted in two ſeparate and diſtinct bodies of men; viz. 1. The aſſembly of the ſtates of New York, to conſiſt of 70 members: and, 2. The ſenate of the ſtate of New York, to conſiſt of 24 for four years; they are to meet once in each year for the diſpatch of public buſineſs. Delegates to the congreſs, judges, &c. are choſen by ballot out of the ſenate and aſſembly. A governor is appointed to the ſupreme executive power, and to be aſſiſted by four counſellors, choſen by and from the ſenate: he is to continue in office three years.

A want of good water is a great inconvenience to the citizens, there being few wells in the city. Moſt of the people are ſupplied every day with freſh water, conveyed to their doors in caſks, from a pump near the head of Queen-Street, which receives it from a ſpring, almoſt a mile from the city. Several propoſals have been made by individuals to ſupply the citizens by pipes, but none has yet been accepted.

New York is the gayeſt place in America. The ladies, in the richneſs and brilliancy of their dreſs, are not equalled in any city of the United States; not even in Charleſton, which has heretofore been called the centre of the *beau monde*. The ladies, however, are not ſolely employed in attentions to dreſs. There are many who are ſtudious to add to their brilliant external accompliſhments, the more valuable and laſting accompliſhments of the mind. Nor have they been unſucceſsful; for New York can boaſt of great numbers of refined taſte, whoſe minds are highly improved, and whoſe converſation is as inviting as their perſonal charms. Tinctured with a Dutch education, they manage their families with good œconomy and ſingular neatneſs.

In point of ſociability and hoſpitality, New York is hardly exceeded by any town in the United States. If, however, in regard to theſe agreeable characteriſtics, the preference muſt be given to any one place, it decidedly belongs to Charleſton. Some travellers have, in theſe reſpects, given Boſton and Newport the preference to New York. Several cauſes have operated to diminiſh the ſociability of the citizens of New York—particularly the change of inhabitants, by emigrations from Europe—the loſs of property during the ravages of the war—and the unfavourable ſtate of buſineſs a great part of the time ſince the peace. Theſe cauſes have operated no leſs unfavourably in ſome other parts of the union.

An inquirer, who would wiſh to acquaint himſelf with the true ſtate of the people of New York, their manners and government, would naturally aſk the citizens for their ſocieties for the encouragement of ſciences, arts, manufactures, &c.? for their public libraries? for the patrons of literature? their well-regulated academies? for their female academy for inſtructing young ladies in geography, hiſtory, belles lettres, &c.? Such inquiries might be made with propriety, but could not, at preſent, be anſwered ſatisfactorily.

On a general view of this city, as deſcribed thirty years ago, and in its exiſting ſtate, the compariſon is flattering to the preſent age; particularly the improvements in taſte, elegance of manners, and that eaſy unaffected civility and politeneſs, which form the happineſs of ſocial intercourſe.

CHAP. VII.

NEW JERSEY.

Situation, &c. Diviſions, Rivers, Towns, Trade, Religion, and government.

THIS province is ſituated between 39 and 43 deg. of north lat. and between 74 and 76 deg. of weſt long. It is about 160 miles in length, and 60 in breadth; bounded by the Sound which ſeparates Staten-Iſland from the Continent, and Hudſon's river, on the north; by Delaware river and bay on the weſt and ſouth-weſt; and on the ſouth-eaſt and eaſt by the Atlantic Ocean.

It is divided into thirteen counties, as in the following table:

Diviſions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Eaſt diviſion, or Eaſt Jerſey, contains.	Middleſex	Perth-Amboy, New-Britain.
	Monmouth	Shrewſbury and Freehold.
	Eſſex	Elizabeth, Newark.
	Somerſet	Boundbrook.
	Bergen	Hackinſak
Weſt diviſion, or Weſt Jerſey, contains.	Burlington	Burlington.
	Glouceſter	Glouceſter.
	Salem	Salem.
	Cumberland	Hopewell, Bridgetown.
	Cape May	None.
	Huntingdon	Trenton.
	Morris	Morriſtown.
	Suſſex	Newtown.

The air is healthy, and the climate nearly the ſame with that of New York; the ſoil is various; one part in four, at leaſt, of the province, is barren, ſandy land, but produces excellent pines and cedars; and the arable lands large crops of fine wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. together with a great variety of delicious fruits. There is a valuable copper mine in the county of Bergen, and excellent iron ore is found in other parts.

The principal rivers are Delaware, Raritan, and Paſſaick; on the latter is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock, over which the water falls, is near 70 feet perpendicular, and the breadth of the river 80 yards.

Perth-Amboy and Burlington are the chief towns; the former is ſituated at the mouth of the Raritan, near its efflux into Sandy-Hook Bay; the latter is pleaſantly ſituated in a ſmall iſland formed by the river Delaware, about 20 miles from Philadelphia. Theſe towns were the ſeats of government; the governor generally reſided in the latter. Perth-Amboy is as good a port as moſt on the continent; the harbour is ſafe, and will contain many large ſhips. Both have been lately made free ports for 25 years.

The foreign trade of this province is very ſmall, owing principally to its vicinity to the large trading towns of New York and Philadelphia. The province is however in a very flouriſhing condition, and their paper currency, which ſome years ago amounted to upwards of ſixty thouſand pounds, has more credit than

than that of either Pennſylvania or New York; for the Pennſylvania bills are not received in payment in New York, nor the New York bills in Pennſylvania, whereas the New Jerſey bills circulate through both theſe provinces.

The eſtabliſhed religion is that of the church of England, but all religious ſects are tolerated, and enjoy their reſpective places of worſhip without the leaſt moleſtation. From a liſt of the houſes appropriated to divine ſervice, made by a member of the council in 1765, it appears, that there are in the province of New Jerſey, twenty-two epiſcopalian churches; fifty-ſeven meeting-houſes belonging to the Scotch Preſbyterians; thirty-nine to the Quakers; twenty-two to the Dutch Preſbyterians; twenty-two to the Baptiſts: ſeven to the Lutherans; one to the Moravians; one to the Separatiſts; and one to the Rogereens; in all 172. There is to be no eſtabliſhment of any one religious ſect in this province, in preference to another.

In 1746, Governor Belcher founded a college at Prince-Town, and procured it the privilege of conferring degrees, in the ſame manner as at Oxford and Cambridge. Before the late war, there were generally 80 and 100 ſtudents here, who came from all parts of the continent for the benefit of purſuing their ſtudies.

The government of New Jerſey is now veſted in a governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly, which are to be annually elected. The governor and lieutenant-governor are to be choſen out of and by the general aſſembly and council. The judges of the ſupreme court are choſen for ſeven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years. The members of the legiſlative council muſt be freeholders, worth 1000l. real and perſonal eſtate; and and thoſe of the general aſſembly 500l. Fifty pounds is a qualification to vote for repreſentatives, and all public officers.

This province was originally part of the New Netherlands, and given by Charles II. to his brother James, duke of York, who ſold it, for a valuable conſideration, to Lord Berkeley, and Sir George Carteret: theſe ſold it again to others, who, in the year 1702, ſurrendered the government to Queen Anne. The number of inhabitants, by a liſt publiſhed in 1765, were about 100,000, but are ſuppoſed, ſince that time, to have increaſed to 130,000.

Many circumſtances concur to render the character, manners, and cuſtoms of the people various in different parts of the ſtate. The inhabitants are a collection of Low Dutch, Germans, Engliſh, Scotch, Iriſh, and New Englanders, or their deſcendants National attachment and mutual convenience have generally induced theſe ſeveral kinds of people to ſettle together in a body; and in this way their peculiar national manners, cuſtoms, and character, are ſtill preſerved, eſpecially among the lower claſs of people, who have little intercourſe with any but thoſe of their own nation. Religion, although its tendency is to unite people in thoſe things that are eſſential to the happineſs, occaſions wide differences as to manners, cuſtoms, and even character. The Preſbyterian, the Quaker, the Epiſcopalian, the Baptiſt, the German and Low Dutch Calviniſt, the Methodiſt, and the Moravian, have each their diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics, either in their worſhip their diſcipline, or their dreſs. There is ſtill another very perceptible characteriſtical difference, diſtinct from either of the others, which ariſes from the intercourſe of the inhabitants with different ſtates. The people in Weſt Jerſey trade to Philadelphia, and of courſe imitate their faſhions, and imbibe the manners. The inhabitants of Eaſt Jerſey trade to New York, and regulate their faſhions and manners according to thoſe of New York. So that the difference in regard to faſhions and manners between Eaſt and Weſt Jerſey, is nearly as great as between New York and Philadelphia. Add to all theſe, the differences common in all countries, ariſing from the various occupations of men, ſuch as the civilian, the divine, the lawyer, the phyſician, the mechanic, the clowniſh, the decent, and the reſpectable farmer, all of whom have different purſuits, or purſue the ſame thing differently, and of courſe muſt have a different ſet of ideas and manners: when we take into view all theſe differences (and all theſe differences exiſt in New Jerſey, and many of them in all the other ſtates) it cannot be expected that many general obſervations will apply. It may, however, in truth, be ſaid, that the people of New Jerſey are generally induſtrious, frugal, and hoſpitable. There are comparatively but few men of learning in the ſtate, nor can it be ſaid that the people in general have taſte for the ſciences. The lower claſs, in which may be included three-fifths of the inhabitants of the whole ſtate, are ignorant, and are criminally neglectful in the education of their children. There are, however, a number of gentlemen of the firſt rank and abilities and learning in the civil offices of the ſtate, and in the ſeveral learned profeſſions.

There is at leaſt as great a number of induſtrious, diſcreet, amiable, genteel, and handſome women in New Jerſey, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, as in any of the thirteen ſtates. Whether an adequate degree of ſolid mental improvement, anſwering to the perſonal and other uſeful qualities we have mentioned, is to be found among the fair of this ſtate, is a more weighty concern. Perhaps it may be ſaid with juſtice, that in general, though there is not the ſame univerſal taſte for knowledge diſcernible among the ladies here, as in ſome other of the ſtates, owing, in a great meaſure, to the ſtate of ſociety, and the means of improvement, there are, however, many ſignal inſtances of improved talents among them, not ſurpaſſed by thoſe of their ſiſters in any of the other ſtates.

Among the ſeveral religious ſects in America, that of the Dumplers, or Dunkards, is one of the moſt harmleſs, and perhaps the moſt extraordinary, that has ever appeared ſince the eſtabliſhment of Chriſtianity. They reſide at a ſmall town called Ephrata, ſituated on the frontiers of the province, between two little hills, in the moſt delightful ſituation that can well be imagined, as if nature had created it for the indulgence of contemplation. A German hermit, who ſettled on the ſpot where Ephrata is now built, was the founder of this extraordinary ſect. The Germans of both ſexes, who joined the hermit, ſoon accuſtomed themſelves to his way of thinking, and conſequently to his manner of living; induſtry became part of their duty, and divided their time with devotion. Their gains they throw into one common ſtock, which ſupplies all their exigencies, private as well as public. Their females are cloiſtered by themſelves in a ſeparate part of the town, the ſituation of which is delightful, and ſcreens them from the north wind. Both their dreſs and diet are very ſimple. They hold free-will; deny the doctrine of original ſin; diſclaim all violence; obſerve the Sabbath very ſtrictly; their prayers and ſermons are extempore; the Chriſtian virtues are the ſubjects of their diſcourſes; they imagine the ſouls of departed Chriſtians are employed in converting others who had been ignorant of the goſpel; and, laſtly, they deny the eternity of hell torments. Theſe people live in harmony and mutual affection, and their hoſpitality to ſtrangers is unbounded, but they never accept any recompence.

There are, in this ſtate, about fifty Preſbyterian congregations, ſubject to the care of three preſbyteries, viz. that of New York, of New Brunſwick, and Philadelphia. A part of the charge of New York and Philadelphia preſbyteries lies in New Jerſey, and part in their own reſpective ſtates. To ſupply theſe congregations, there are at preſent about twenty-five miniſters.

There

There are upwards of forty congregations of Friends, commonly called Quakers; who are in general ſober, plain, induſtrious good citizens.

There are thirty aſſociated congregations of Baptiſts in New Jerſey, whoſe religious tenets are ſimilar to thoſe already mentioned under Connecticut.

The Epiſcopalian intereſt conſiſts of twenty-five congregations.

There are, in this ſtate, two claſſes belonging to the Dutch Reformed Synod of New York and New Jerſey. The claſſis of Hackinſak, to which belong thirteen congregations; and the claſſis of New Brunſwick, to which belong fifteen congregations. We have already given an account of their church government, diſcipline, &c.

The Moravians have a flouriſhing ſettlement at Hope, in Suſſex county. This ſettlement was begun in 1771, and now conſiſts of upwards of 100 ſouls.

The Methodiſt intereſt is ſmall in this ſtate. The Swedes have a church in Glouceſter county: and there are three congregations of the Seventh-Day Baptiſts. All theſe religious denominations live together in peace and harmony; and are allowed, by the conſtitution of the ſtate, to worſhip Almighty God agreeably to the dictates of their own conſciences; and are not compelled to attend or ſupport any worſhip contrary to their own faith and judgment. All Proteſtant inhabitants, of peaceable behaviour, are eligible to the civil offices of the ſtate.

There are two colleges in New Jerſey; one at Princeton, called Naſſau-Hall, the other at Brunſwick, called Queen's College. The college at Pinceton was firſt founded by charter from John Hamilton, Eſq. Preſident of the Council, about the year 1738, and enlarged by Governor Belcher in 1747. The charter delegates a power of granting to "the ſtudents of the ſaid college, or to any others thought worthy of them, all ſuch degrees as are granted in either of our univerſities, or any other college in Great-Britain." It has twenty-three truſtees. The governor of the ſtate, and the preſident of the college, are, *ex officiis*, two of them. It has an annual income of about 900l. currency; of which 200l. ariſes from funded public ſecurities and lands, and the reſt from the fees of the ſtudents. The preſident of the college is likewiſe profeſſor of eloquence, criticiſm, and chronology. The vice-preſident is alſo profeſſor of divinity and moral philoſophy. There is beſides a profeſſor of mathematics and natural philoſophy, and two maſters of languages. The four claſſes in college contain about ſeventy ſtudents. There is a grammar ſchool, of about thirty ſcholars, connected with the college, under the ſuperintendance of the preſident, and taught by two maſters.

Before the war, this college was furniſhed with a philoſophical apparatus, worth 500l. which (except the elegant orrery conſtructed by Mr. Rittenhouſe) was almoſt entirely deſtroyed by the Britiſh army in the late war, as was alſo the library, which now conſiſts of between 2 and 3000 volumes.

The college edifice is handſomely built with ſtone, and is 180 feet in length, fifty-four in breadth, and four ſtories high; and is divided into forty-two convenient chambers for the accommodation of the ſtudents, beſides a dining-hall, chapel-room, and a room for the library. Its ſituation is exceedingly pleaſant and healthful. The view from the college balcony is extenſive and charming.

This college has been under the care of a ſucceſſion of preſidents eminent for piety and learning; and has furniſhed a number of civilians, divines, and phyſicians, of the firſt rank in America. It is remarable, that all the preſidents of this college, except Dr. Witherſpoon, were removed by death very ſoon after their election into office.

The charter for Queen's College, at Brunſwick, was granted juſt before the war, in conſequence of an application from a body of the Dutch church. Its funds, raiſed wholly by free donations, amounted, ſoon after its eſtabliſhment, to 4000l.; but they were conſiderably diminiſhed by the war. The ſtudents are under the care of the Preſident. The grammar ſchool, which is connected with the college, conſiſts of between thirty and forty ſtudents, under the care of the truſtees. This college has lately increaſed both in numbers and reputation.

There are a number of flouriſhing academies in this ſtate. One at Trenton, in which are about eighty ſtudents in the different branches. It has a fund of about 150l. per annum, ariſing from the intereſt on public ſecurities. Another in Hackinſak, in the county of Bergen, of upwards of 100 ſcholars. Inſtruction and board are ſaid to be cheaper here than in any part of the ſtate. There is another flouriſhing academy at Orangedale, in the county of Eſſex, conſiſting of nearly as many ſcholars as either of the others, furniſhed with able inſtructors, and good accommodations. Another has lately been opened at Elizabeth Town, and conſiſts of upwards of twenty ſtudents in the languages, and is increaſing. There is alſo an academy in Burlington, in which young ladies and gentlemen are taught the Engliſh language grammatically, geography, and the learned languages. Beſides theſe, there are grammar ſchools at Newark, Springfield, Morriſtown, Bordentown, and Amboy. There are no regular eſtabliſhments for common ſchools in the ſtate. The uſual mode of education is, for the inhabitants of a village or neigebourhood to join in affording a temporary ſupport for a ſchoolmaſter, upon ſuch terms as is mutually agreeable. But the encouragement which theſe occaſional teachers meet with, is generally ſuch, as that no perſon of abilities adequate to the buſineſs will undertake it; and, of courſe, little advantage is derived from theſe ſchools. The improvement in theſe common ſchools is generally in proportion to the wages of the teacher.

M. Briſſot de Warville, in his "New Travels in the United States of America," has given us the following intereſting account of the ſchool of negroes at Philadelphia:

"There exiſts, a country (ſays he) where the negroes are allowed to have ſouls, and to be endowed with underſtanding capable of being formed to virtue and uſeful knowledge; where they are not regarded as beaſts of burden, in order that we may have the privilege of treating them as ſuch.—There exiſts a country where the blacks, by their virtue and their induſtry, belie the calumnies which their tyrants elſewhere laviſh againſt them; where no difference is perceived between the memory of a black head whoſe hair is craped by nature, and that of a white one craped by art. I have had a proof of this to-day. I have ſeen, heard, and examined theſe black children. They read well, repeat from memory, and calculate with rapidity. I have ſeen a picture painted by a young negro, who never had a maſter: it was ſurpriſingly well done.

"I ſaw in this ſchool, a mulatto, one-eighth negro; it is impoſſible to diſtinguiſh him from a white boy. His eyes diſcovered an extraordinary vivacity; and this is a general characteriſtic of people of that origin.

"The black girls, beſides reading, writing, and the principles of religion, are taught ſpinning, needlework, &c. and their miſtreſſes aſſure me, that they diſcover much ingenuity. They have the appearance of decency, attention, and ſubmiſſion. It is a nurſery of good ſervants and virtuous houſekeepers. How criminal are the planters of the iſlands, who form but to debauchery and ignominy creatures ſo capable of being faſhioned to virtue!

"It is to Benezet that humanity owes this uſeful eſtabliſhment—to that Benezet whom Chaſtelleux has not bluſhed to ridicule, for the ſake of gaining the infamous applauſes of the paraſites of deſpotiſm.

"The life of this extraordinary man merits to be known to ſuch men as dare to think, who eſteem more

more the benefactors of their fellow-creatures, than their oppreſſors, ſo baſely idolized by many during their life.

" Anthony Benezet was born at St. Quintin, in Picardy, in 1712. Fanaticiſm, under the protection of a bigot king, directed by an infamous confeſſor, and an infamous woman, ſpread at that time its ravages in France. The parents of Benezet were warm Calviniſts; they fled to England, and he embraced the doctrines of the Quakers. He went to America, in 1731, and eſtabliſhed himſelf in Philadelphia in commerce, the buſineſs to which he had been educated. But the rigidity of his principles and his taſte not agreeing with the ſpirit of commerce, he quitted that buſineſs in 1736, and accepted a place in the academy of that ſociety. From that time all his moments were conſecrated to public inſtruction, the relief of the poor, and the defence of the unhappy negroes. Benezet poſſeſſed an univerſal philanthropy, which was not common at that time; he regarded, as his brothers, all men, of all countries, and of all colours; he compoſed many works, in which he collected all the authorities from Scripture, and from other writings, to diſcourage and condemn the ſlave trade and ſlavery. His works had very much influence in determining the Quakers to emancipate their ſlaves.

" It was not enough to ſet at liberty the unhappy blacks; it was neceſſary to inſtruct them—to find them ſchool-maſters. And where ſhould he find men willing to devote themſelves to a taſk which prejudice had rendered painful and diſguſting? No obſtacle could arreſt the zeal of Benezet; he ſet the firſt example himſelf: he conſecrated his little fortune to the foundation of this ſchool; his brethren lent ſome aſſiſtance; and by the help of the donations of the ſociety of London, the ſchool for blacks at Philadelphia enjoys a revenue of 200l. ſterling.

" He conſecrated his fortune and his talents to their inſtruction; and in 1784, death removed him from his holy occupation, to receive his reward. The tears of the blacks, which watered his tomb, the ſighs of his fraternity, and of every friend of humanity which attended his departing ſpirit, muſt be a prize more conſoling than the laurels of a conqueror.

" Benezet carried always in his pocket a copy of his works on the ſlavery of the blacks, which he gave and recommended to every one he met, who had not ſeen them. It is a method generally followed by the ſociety of friends. They extend the works of utility; and it is the true way of gaining proſelytes.

" This philanthropic Quaker was preceded in the ſame career, by many others, whom I ought to mention. The celebrated George Fox, founder of this ſect, went from England to Barbadoes in the year 1671, not to preach againſt ſlavery, but to inſtruct the blacks in the knowledge of God, and to engage maſters to treat them with mildneſs.

" The minds of men were not yet ripe for this reform; neither were they when William Burling, of Long-Iſland, in 1718, publiſhed a Treatiſe againſt Slavery. He was a reſpectable Quaker: he preached, but in vain; the hour was not yet come.

" Ought not this circumſtance to encourage the friends of the blacks in France? Sixty years of combat were neceſſary to conquer the prejudice of avarice in America. One year is ſcarcely paſſed ſince the foundation of the ſociety at Paris; and ſome apoſtates already appear, becauſe ſucceſs has not crowned their firſt endeavours.

" Burling was followed by Judge Sewal, a Preſbyterian of Maſſachuſets. He preſented to the General Aſſembly a Treatiſe entitled, " Joſeph ſold by his Brethren." He diſcovers the pureſt principles, and completely overturns the hackneyed arguments of the traders, reſpecting the pretended wars of the African princes.

" It is often ſaid againſt the writings of the friends of the blacks, that they have not been witneſſes of the ſufferings which they deſcribe. This reproach cannot be made againſt Benjamin Lay, an Engliſhman, who, brought up in the African trade, afterwards a planter at Barbadoes, abandoned his plantation, on account of the horror inſpired by the frightful terrors of ſlavery endured by the negroes. He retired to Philadelphia, became a Quaker, and ceaſed not the remainder of his life to preach and write for the abolition of ſlavery. His principal treatiſe on this ſubject appeared in 1737. He was thought to have too much zeal, and to have exaggerated in his deſcriptions. But theſe defects were expiated by a life without a ſtain, by an indefatigable zeal for humanity, and by profound meditations. Lay was ſimple in his dreſs, and animated in his ſpeech; he was all on fire when he ſpoke on ſlavery. He died in 1760, in the 80th year of his age.

" One of the men moſt diſtinguiſhed in this career of humanity, was a Quaker, named John Woolman. He was born in 1720. Early formed to meditation, he was judged by the Friends worthy of being a miniſter at the age of twenty-two. He travelled much to extend the doctrines of the ſect; but was always on foot, and without money or proviſions, becauſe he would imitate the apoſtles, and be in a ſituation to be more uſeful to the poor people, and to the blacks. He abhorred ſlavery ſo much, that he would not taſte any food that was produced by the labour of ſlaves. The laſt diſcourſe that he pronounced, was on this ſubject. In 1772, he undertook a voyage to England, to concert meaſures with the Friends there, on the ſame ſubject; where he died of the ſmall-pox. He left ſeveral uſeful works, one of which has been through many editions, entitled " Conſiderations on the Slavery of the Blacks."

An Account of the Methods uſed to aboliſh Slavery in America.

" WOOLMAN and Benezet had in vain employed all their efforts to effect the abolition of this traffic under the Engliſh government. The miſtaken intereſt of the mother-country cauſed all the petitions to be rejected in the year 1772; yet the minds of men were prepared in ſome of the colonies; and ſcarcely was independence declared, when a general cry aroſe againſt this commerce. It appeared abſurd for men defending their own liberty, to deny liberty to others. A pamphlet was printed, in which the principles on which ſlavery is founded, were held up in contraſt with thoſe which laid the foundation of the new conſtitution.

" This palpable method of ſtating the ſubject was attended with a happy ſucceſs; and the Congreſs, in 1774, declared the ſlavery of the blacks to be incompatible with the baſis of republican governments. Different legiſlatures haſtened to conſecrate this principle of Congreſs.

" Three diſtinct epochs, mark the conduct of the Americans in this buſineſs—the prohibition of the importation of ſlaves—their manumiſſion—and the proviſion made for their inſtruction. All the different ſtates are not equally advanced in theſe three objects.

" In the northern and middle ſtates, they have proſcribed for ever the importation of ſlaves; in others, this prohibition is limited to a certain time. In South Carolina, where it was limited to three years, it has lately been extended to three years more. Georgia is the only ſtate that continues to receive tranſported ſlaves. Yet, when General Oglethorpe laid the foundation of this colony, he ordained, that neither rum nor ſlaves ſhould ever be imported into it. This law, in both its articles, was very ſoon violated.

"We muſt acknowledge however, that the Americans, more than any other people, are convinced that all men are born free and equal: we muſt acknowledge, that they direct themſelves generally by this principle of equality; that the Quakers, who have begun, who have propagated, and who ſtill propagate this revolution of ſentiment, have been guided by a principle of religion, and that they have ſacrificed to it their perſonal intereſt.

"Unhappily their opinion on this ſubject has not yet become univerſal, intereſt ſtill combats it with ſome ſucceſs in the ſouthern ſtates. A numerous party ſtill argues the impoſſibility of cultivating their ſoil without the hands of ſlaves, and the impoſſibility of augmenting their number without recruiting them in Africa. It is to the influence of this party, in the late General Convention, that is to be attributed the only article which tarniſhes that glorious monument of human reaſon, the new federal ſyſtem of the United States. It was this party that propoſed to bind the hands of the new Congreſs, and to put it out of their power for twenty years to prohibit the importation of ſlaves. It was ſaid to this auguſt aſſembly, *Sign this article, or we will withdraw from the union.* To avoid the evils, which, without meliorating the fate of the blacks, would attend a political ſchiſm, the Convention was forced to wander from the grand principle of univerſal liberty, and the preceding declaration of Congreſs. They thought it their duty to imitate Solon, to make, not the beſt law poſſible, but the beſt circumſtances would bear.

"But, though this article has ſurpriſed the friends of liberty in Europe, where the ſecret cauſes of it were not known; though it has grieved the ſociety in England, who are ready to accuſe the new legiſlators of a cowardly defection from their principles; yet we may regard the general and irrevocable proſcription of the ſlave-trade in the United States, as very near at hand. This concluſion reſults from the nature of things, and even from the article itſelf of the new conſtitution now cited. Indeed, nine ſtates have already done it; the blacks, which there abound, are conſidered as free. There are then nine aſylums for thoſe to eſcape to from Georgia; not to ſpeak of the neighbourhood of the Floridas, where the ſlaves from Georgia take refuge, in hopes to find better treatment from the Spaniards; and not to ſpeak of thoſe vaſt foreſts and inacceſſible mountains which make part of the Southern States, and where the perſecuted negro may eaſily find a retreat from ſlavery. The communications with the back country are ſo eaſy, that it is impoſſible to ſtop the fugitives; and the expence of reclaiming is diſproportioned to their value. And though the free ſtates do not in appearance oppoſe theſe reclamations, yet the people there hold ſlavery in ſuch horror, that the maſter who runs after his human property, meets little reſpect, and finds little aſſiſtance. Thus the poſſibility of flight creates a new diſcouragement to the importation, as it muſt leſſen the value of the ſlave, induce to a milder treatment, and finally tend, with the concurrence of other circumſtances, to convince the Georgian planter, that it is more ſimple, more reaſonable, and leſs expenſive, to cultivate by the hands of freemen. We are right then in ſaying, that the nature of things in America is againſt the importation of ſlaves.

"Beſides, the Congreſs will be authoriſed in twenty years to pronounce definitively on this article. By that time, the ſentiments of humanity, and the calculations of reaſon, will prevail; they will no longer be forced to ſacrifice equity to convenience, or have any thing to fear from oppoſition or ſchiſm."

†

CHAP. VIII.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Situation, &c. Diviſions, Climate, Produce, Rivers, Towns, Inhabitants, Penn's Settlement and Government.

THE province of Pennſylvania is ſituated between 39 and 44 deg. of north lat. and between 74 and 81 of weſt long. It is about 300 miles in length, and 240 in breadth; bounded, on the north, by the country of the Iroquois, or five nations; on the ſouth, by Maryland; on the eaſt, by the Delaware river, which ſeparates it from New Jerſey; and on the weſt by the Ohio. It is divided as in the following table:

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Philadelphia	Philadelphia.
Cheſter	Cheſter.
Bucks	Newtown.
Berks.....	Reading.
Northampton	Eaſton.
Lancaſter	Lancaſter.
York	York.
Cumberland.....	Carliſle.

To theſe we may add Bedford, a county weſtward of the mountains upon the Ohio, purchaſed by Mr. Penn, from the Indians, in 1768, and eſtabliſhed in 1771.

Beſides theſe, the three following counties, ſituated on the Delaware, formed, in ſome meaſure, a ſeparate government, having an aſſembly of their own, though the ſame governor with the province of Pennſylvania. But it is now diſtinct, and called the Delaware ſtate, having a preſident, council, and houſe of aſſembly; with judges, and other officers of ſtate, civil and military.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Newcaſtle.....	Newcaſtle, Wilmington.
Kent.....	Dover
Suſſex	Leweſtown, Milford.

The air of Pennſylvania is clear, ſweet, and healthy. The fall, or autumn, begins about the 20th of October, and laſts till the beginning of December, when the winter ſets in and continues till March; during which the weather is often ſo very ſevere, that the river Delaware, though very broad at Philadelphia, is frozen over. The ſpring commences in March, and continues till June, when the weather is more unſettled than in the other ſeaſons. The months of July, Auguſt, and September, are the ſummer months, when the heat would be intolerable were it not mitigated by frequent cool breezes. During the ſummer the wind is generally at ſouth-weſt, but in the winter at north-weſt, which by paſſing over the frozen mountains and lakes of Canada, renders the cold ſo exceſſive at that ſeaſon. The ſoil is not greatly different from that of New York, but ſomething more fertile; nor is there ſo much ſandy and uſeleſs land in Pennſylvania as in New York. Some rice, but no great quanity, is cultivated here; and there are ſome tobacco plantations, but the produce is not equal to that of Virginia. In all parts of our plantations, from New York to the extremity of Florida, the woods are full of vines of different ſpecies. They are very thick at the bottom, and bear great plenty of grapes, but very ſmall. From theſe the Indians procure a ſort of wine, with which they often regale themſelves

ſelves. The timber produced in Pennſylvania is of the ſame ſpecies as that of New England; but here, and in all the ſouthern colonies, it is not ſo proper for ſhipping as that of the northern colonies; it is compact, and ſplits with a much ſmaller force. Theſe properties render it leſs valuable in ſhip-building, but more uſeful for pipe-ſtaves, and wainſcoting.

The principal rivers in this province are the Delaware, the Suſquehanna, and the Schuylkill. The Delaware is navigable more than 200 miles above the city of Philadelphia. The Suſquehanna is alſo navigable a great way up the country. The Schuylkill is navigable for boats above 100 miles. Theſe rivers, with the numerous creeks and harbours in Delaware bay, are extremely favourable both to the foreign and inland trade of Pennſylvania.

This province has many towns that deſerve particular notice; but the city of Philadelphia ſtands unrivalled in Britiſh America, and when completed will, in point of plan and regularity, exceed any in Europe. The city forms a parallelogram, or long ſquare, two miles in length, and one in breadth; extending from the river Delaware to the Schuylkill, forming, as it were, a connection between theſe two navigable rivers. The plan of this elegant city was drawn by William Penn, at once the founder and legiſlator of this flouriſhing colony. Part of the plan is already executed, and will in all probability ſoon be completed. Every quarter of the city will then form a ſquare of eight acres; having in the centre a ſquare of ten acres, ſurrounded by the town-houſe, and other public buildings. The high-ſtreet is an hundred feet wide, and extends the whole breadth of the town, from one of the above rivers to the other. Parallel to the high-ſtreet run nineteen others, which are croſſed by eight more at right angles, all of them thirty feet wide, and communicate by canals with the two rivers; which add at once to the beauty and wholeſomeneſs of the city. According to the original plan, every perſon who poſſeſſed 1000 acres in any part of the province, was to have his houſe either in one of the fronts facing the river, or in the high-ſtreet, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Beſides the above privilege, every owner of 5000 acres, was entitled to an acre of ground in the front of his houſe, and all others half an acre for gardens and court-yards. The town-houſe is a ſtately, ſpacious, and regular building, and would be an ornament to any capital in Europe. The other public buildings, which conſiſt chiefly of ſtructures dedicated to religion, beſides the military barracks, markets, and alms-houſes, are proportionably grand. The quays are ſpacious and noble; the principal quay is 200 feet wide, furniſhed with cranes, and other conveniences for loading and unloading ſhips; and the water is ſo deep, that a ſhip of 500 tons burden, may lay her broadſide to the quay. The proprietor's ſeat, where the governor uſually reſides, is ſituated about a mile above the town, and is the firſt private building both for magnificence and ſituation in all Britiſh America. But the nobleſt inſtitution in Pennſylvania, is the academy eſtabliſhed ſome years ſince in Philadelphia. Very conſiderable ſubſcriptions were raiſed both in England and Scotland for completing this noble deſign, and it bids fair in time to rival the moſt celebrated ſeminaries of learning in the mother country. The number of inhabitants in Philadelphia is computed at 30,000. The meetings of the general congreſs of America were held in this city from the year 1774 till 1777, when the Britiſh troops took poſſeſſion of it, but the king's forces retreating to New York in 1778, the congreſs again made Philadelphia their reſidence.

There are ſeveral towns beſides the capital in the county of Philadelphia; the moſt conſiderable are, German-Town, ſo called from being inhabited wholly by Germans; Frankfort, Abingdon, Dublin, Radnor, and Amerſland. In the county of Bucks, are Briſtol, Falls-Town, and Penſbury. In the county of Cheſter, are Cheſter, Chicheſter, and Marcus Hook. Newcaſtle, Haverfordweſt, Merioneth, and St. George, are found in the county of Newcaſtle; Dover, Cranebrook, Marden, and Meſpelliven plantations, in the county of Kent; Lewis in the county of Suſſex; and Lancaſter in the county of that name.

The inhabitants in the province of Pennſylvania, are not leſs than 350,000, half of whom are Germans, Swedes, or Dutch. It is certainly very right policy to encourage the importation of foreigners into Pennſylvania, as well as into our other colonies. By this we are gainers, without diminiſhing the inhabitants of Great-Britain. But it has been frequently lamented, that theſe people are ſuffered to remain foreigners, and likely to continue ſo for many generations; they have erected ſchools of their own, printed books, and even the common newſpapers in their own language; by which means, together with their poſſeſſing large tracts of land, without any intermixture of Engliſh, they continue, as it were, a ſeparate people. At the ſame time, their remarkable induſtry, frugality, and abſtemious method of living, enable them to encreaſe their tract of country to the ruin of the Americans; ſo that there is ſome danger of the whole colony becoming in time wholly foreign in language, in manners, and perhaps in inclinations. It ſeems therefore neceſſary that ſome regulations ſhould take place with regard to their ſettlement, and ſome means be purſued in order to naturalize them effectually. But it muſt, however, be acknowledged, that the inhabitants of Pennſylvania, are an induſtrious and hardy people; moſt of them are ſubſtantial, though few of the perſons poſſeſſed of landed property are rich. They are all well lodged, well fed, and, when their circumſtances are conſidered, well clothed; and at a more reaſonable rate than can be well imagined, as the inferior people manufacture moſt of their wearing apparel, both linen and woollen.

A great number of wealthy merchants inhabit the city of Philadelphia. Nor will this appear ſurpriſing when the great trade they carry on is conſidered. Their commerce is not confined to the provinces in America, it is extended to the French, Dutch, and Spaniſh colonies; to the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira iſlands; to Great-Britain, and Ireland; and to Spain, Portugal, and Holland. Many of theſe branches of trade are very profitable, and cannot fail of enriching a frugal and induſtrious people. Beſides the quantity of commodities produced by this province, and brought down the rivers Delaware and Schuylkill, the Dutch employ ſeveral hundred waggons, each drawn by four horſes, in bringing the produce of their farms to the markets of Philadelphia. In the year 1749, 303 veſſels entered at this port, and 291 cleared outwards. The commodities formerly exported into Pennſylvania, at an average of three years, amounted to the value of 611,000l. Thoſe exported to Great-Britain, and other markets, beſides timber, ſhips built for ſale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, conſiſted of grain, flour, and many ſorts of animal food; and at an average of three years, were calculated at 705,500l. But after the concluſion of the late war, trade had ſo greatly increaſed, that the duty in Philadelphia upon imported goods of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. *ad valorum*, produced from the 1ſt of March 1784, to the 1ſt of December, 132,000l. which, ſuppoſing their value not under-rated, nor any indirect methods uſed to ſave the duty, makes their value amount to the amazing ſum of 3,168,000l.

This province, together with New Jerſey and New York, compoſed what was formerly called the New Netherlands, and was originally poſſeſſed by the Dutch and Swedes. After the country was taken by the Engliſh, Admiral Penn, who in conjunction with Venables, had ſome years before taken the iſland of Jamaica, being greatly in favour with Charles II. obtained a promiſe of a grant of the tract of country now called

called Pennſylvania, from that monarch. Upon the Admiral's death, his ſon, the celebrated founder and legiſlator of Pennſylvania, claimed the royal promiſe, and after a tedious court ſolicitation, obtained the patent in right of his father. Conſcious that the only method of rendering the grant he had obtained from his majeſty valuable to himſelf, was to make both the country and its government as agreeable as poſſible to the ſettlers, he began with purchaſing the ſoil, at a low rate indeed from the Indians, as the original poſſeſſors, to whom it was of very little value. By this cheap act of juſtice at the beginning, he rendered all his future dealings with theſe people ſucceſsful. Prepoſſeſſed with a favourable opinion of him as to his deſigns, they were ſo far from giving any diſturbance to the ſettlers, that they were ready to give them aſſiſtance whenever it was wanted.

Having thus wiſely ſecured the Indians, he applied himſelf to execute the other part of his plan, that of peopling the country. This he found greatly facilitated by the uneaſineſs of his brethren the Quakers in England, who, by refuſing to pay tythes and other church dues, ſuffered a kind of perſecution from the clergy. Their high opinion and regard for Penn, who was indeed an honour to their new church, made them the more ready to follow him over a wide and pathleſs ocean, to ſettle in a country then little better than a howling wilderneſs, and in a climate whoſe properties were unknown. Nor was he himſelf wanting in any thing that had the leaſt tendency to encourage and ſupport the reſolution they had formed. He expended large ſums of money in tranſporting, and finding them in all neceſſaries; and not aiming at a ſudden profit, that great man diſpoſed of his lands at a very ſmall purchaſe; 20l. for 1000 acres, and 1s. quit-rent for every 100, were the reaſonable terms on which he beſtowed eſtates. At this time land is granted at 12l. for every 100 acres, with a quit-rent of 4s. reſerved. Near Philadelphia land lets at 20s. the acre, and even at ſeveral miles diſtance from that city, ſells at 20 years purchaſe. By purſuing ſuch a generous plan, the colony of Pennſylvania was ſoon eſtabliſhed, and has every ſince been rapidly increaſing.

But what crowned all his proceedings, was the noble charter of privileges, by which he made them as free as any people in the world; and which has ſince induced ſuch vaſt numbers of people of different perſuaſions and different countries to abandon their native ſoil, and put themſelves under the protection of his laws. All his inſtitutions were founded on the ſolid baſis of civil and religious liberty, conſidered in its full extent. No laws can be made without the conſent of the people given by the ſuffrages of their repreſentatives in the general aſſembly. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn ſubjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court conſtituted for that purpoſe. The cauſes between man and man were not to be ſubjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but to be decided by wiſe and honeſt arbitrators. In ſhort, ſuch was the excellent ſpirit of the laws framed by William Penn, that had he been a native of Greece, his ſtatue would have been placed next to thoſe of Solon and Lycurgus.

Religious liberty was founded on the ſame ample baſis. Chriſtians of all denominations might not only live unmoleſted in the colony, but even have a ſhare in the government. In a word, the diverſity of people, religions, nations, and languages here, is prodigious; and what is ſtill more wonderful, they live together in harmony.

In conſequence of the plan for a new conſtitution agreed on at the Convention of Philadelphia in 1776, the commonwealth, or ſtate of Pennſylvania is now governed by an aſſembly of the repreſentatives of the freemen of the ſame, and a preſident and council; the ſupreme legiſlative power is veſted in a houſe of repreſentatives of the freemen of the ſtate; and the ſupreme executive power is veſted in a preſident and council of twelve. It was likewiſe agreed, that the houſe of repreſentatives ſhould conſiſt of perſons moſt noted for wiſdom and virtue, to be choſen annually by the freemen of every city and county. The preſident of the ſupreme executive council may appoint and commiſſion judges, naval officers, a judge of the admiralty, attorney general, and other officers, civil and military; he is likewiſe impowered to hold the office of commander in chief of the forces of the ſtate, but ſhall not command in perſon, except adviſed thereto by the council, and then only ſo long as they ſhall approve. All trials to be by jury; and that freedom of ſpeech, and of the preſs, to be allowed. All perſons in public offices are required to declare their belief in one God, the creator and governor of the univerſe, the rewarder of the good, and the puniſher of the wicked; and are alſo to acknowledge the Scriptures of the Old and New Teſtament to be given by divine inſpiration. This plan of government contained a variety of other particulars; amongſt which, we ſhall only mention the following; viz. that the freemen are to elect annually, by ballot, for each city and county, two perſons, to be called the council of cenſors, whoſe buſineſs it is to examine into the conduct of the legiſlative and executive powers. The other is, the training and arming the freemen and their ſons for the defence of the commonwealth, under ſuch regulations, reſtrictions, and exceptions, as the general aſſembly ſhould by law direct, with liberty for the people to chooſe their own officers, &c.

In a plan for the eſtabliſhment of public ſchools, and the diffuſion of knowledge in Pennſylvania, by Dr. Benjamin Ruſh, profeſſor of chemiſtry in the Univerſity of Philadelphia, lately publiſhed, there is this obſervation in a note, "There are 600 ſchools in the ſmall ſtate of Connecticut, which have in them 25,000 ſcholars;" and mark the good effects of education! "only two natives of this ſtate have been condemned in the courſe of the laſt 25 years: is there any county in England, either great or ſmall, can make ſuch a glorious boaſt? The German Lutherans in Pennſylvania take uncommon pains in the education of their youth; not one of this ſociety has ſubmitted to the ignominy of a legal puniſhment of any kind in the courſe of the laſt 17 years." The writer of the above intelligence hereupon very pertinently remarks, that, "in all caſes whatever, no argument can poſſibly overthrow or exceed real matter of fact. What can we think then of thoſe perſons (continues he) who, ſo far from contributing to the ſupport and encouraging of Sunday Schools, have been weak or wicked enough to write againſt them? If ever a reformation can be effected on the morals of the people, it muſt be done by inſtilling better principles into, and inuring to better habits, the riſing generation. And how can this be better done for the poor than in Sunday Schools?"

Of the great variety of religious denominations in Pennſylvania, the Friends, or Quakers, are the moſt numerous. George Fox is called the father of this religious ſect, becauſe he firſt collected them into a ſociety in England, about the middle of the 17th century. The true appellation of theſe people is Friends; that of Quakers was early and invidiouſly given them by way of contempt. They came over to America as early as 1656, but were not indulged the free exerciſe of their religion in New England.

They were the firſt ſettlers of Pennſylvania in 1682, under William Penn, and have ever ſince flouriſhed in the free enjoyment of their religion. They believe that God has given to all men ſufficient light to work their ſalvation, unleſs it be reſiſted: that this light is as extenſive as the ſeed of ſin, and ſaves thoſe who have not the outward means of ſalvation; that this light is a divine principle, in which dwells God, the Father,

Father, Son and Holy Ghoſt. They maintain that the Scriptures are not the principal ground of all truth and knowledge: nor yet the primary rule of faith and manners; but becauſe they give a true teſtimony of the firſt foundation, they are and may be eſteemed a ſecondary rule, ſubordinate to the Spirit, from whom they derive all their excellence. They believe that immediate revelation has not ceaſed, but that a meaſure of the Spirit is given to every perſon. That as, by the light or gift of God, all ſpiritual knowledge is received, thoſe who have this gift, whether male or female, though without human commiſſion or learning, ought to preach; and to preach freely, as they have freely received the gift. All true and acceptable worſhip of God, they maintain, is by the inward and immediate moving of his Spirit; and that water baptiſm and the Lord's ſupper were commanded only for a time. They neither give titles, nor uſe compliments in their converſation, or writings, believing that *whatſoever is more than yea, yea, and nay, nay, cometh of evil.* They conſcientiouſly avoid, as unlawful, kneeling, bowing, or uncovering the head to any perſon. They diſcard all ſuperfluities in dreſs or equipage; all games, ſports, and plays, as unbecoming the Chriſtian. "Swear not at all" is an article of their creed, literally obſerved in its utmoſt extent. They believe it unlawful to fight in any caſe whatever; and think that if their enemy *ſmite them on the one cheek, they ought to turn to him the other alſo.* They are generally honeſt, punctual, and even punctilious, in their dealings; provident for the neceſſities of their poor; friends to humanity, and of courſe enemies to ſlavery; ſtrict in their diſcipline; careful in the obſervance even of the punctilios in dreſs, ſpeech, and manners, which their religion enjoins; faithful in the education of their children; induſtrious in their ſeveral occupations. In ſhort, whatever peculiarities and miſtakes thoſe of other denominations have ſuppoſed they have fallen into, in point of religious doctrines, they have proved themſelves to be good citizens. Next to the Quakers, the Preſbyterians are the moſt numerous, concerning whom we have nothing to add to what we have already ſaid under New York.

The Proteſtant epiſcopal church of New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and South-Carolina, met in convention at Philadelphia, October 1785, and reviſed the book of common prayer, and adminiſtration of the ſacraments, and other rites and ceremonies, and publiſhed and propoſed the book, thus reviſed, for the uſe of the church. This reviſion was made in part, in order to render the liturgy conſiſtent with the American revolution, and the conſtitutions of the ſeveral ſtates. In this they have diſcovered their liberality and their patriotiſm. In Pennſylvania and the ſouthern ſtates this reviſed book is pretty generally uſed by the epiſcopal churches. In New York and New Jerſey it has not been adopted.

There are upwards of ſixty miniſters of the Lutheran and Calviniſt religion, who are of German extraction, now in this ſtate; all of whom have one or more congregations under their care; and many of them preach in ſplendid and expenſive churches; and yet the firſt Lutheran miniſter, who arrived in Pennſylvania near fifty years ago, was alive in 1787, and probably is ſtill, as was alſo the ſecond Calviniſtical miniſter.

CHAP. IX.

DELAWARE.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Climate, Diviſions, Soil, Rivers, Productions, Chief Towns, &c.

THIS province is ſituated between 38 deg. 30 min. and 40 deg. north lat. and 1 deg. 45 min. weſt long. is 92 miles in length, and 16 in breadth. It is bounded, on the north, by the territorial or boundary line, which divides it from Pennſylvania; eaſt, by Delaware river and bay; ſouth, by a due eaſt and weſt line, from Cape Henlopen, in lat. 38 deg. 30 min. to the middle of the peninſula, which line divides the ſtate from Worceſter county in Maryland; weſt, by Maryland, from which it is divided by a line drawn from the weſtern termination of the ſouthern boundary line, northwards up the ſaid peninſula, till it touches or forms a tangent to the weſtern part of the periphery of the above-mentioned territorial circle: containing about 1400 ſquare miles.

The climate is in many parts unhealthy. The land is generally low and flat, which occaſions the waters to ſtagnate, and the conſequence is, the inhabitants are ſubject to intermittents.

The Delaware ſtate is divided into three counties, viz. Newcaſtle, Kent, and Suſſex; its chief towns are, Wilmington and Newcaſtle, Dover, Milford, and Lewiſtown.

The rivers are, Choptank, Nanticok, and Pocomoke; all have their ſources in this ſtate, and are navigable for veſſels of 50 or 60 tons, 20 or 30 miles into the country. They all run a weſtwardly courſe into Cheſapeak Bay. The eaſtern ſide of the ſtate, along Delaware bay and river, is indented with a great number of ſmall creeks, but none conſiderable enough to merit a deſcription.

With reſpect to ſoil and productions, the ſouth part of the ſtate is a low flat country, and a conſiderable portion of it lies in foreſt. What is under cultivation is chiefly barren, except in Indian corn, of which it produces fine crops. In ſome places rye and flax may be raiſed, but wheat is a ſtranger in theſe parts. Where nature is deficient in one reſource, ſhe is generally bountiful in another. This is verified in the tall, thick foreſts of pines, which are manufactured into boards, and exported in large quantities into every ſea-port in the three adjoining ſtates.—As you proceed north the ſoil is more fertile, and produces wheat in large quantities, which is the ſtaple commodity of the ſtate. They raiſe all the other kinds of grain common to Pennſylvania. The ſtate has no mountain in it, except Thunder Hill, in the weſtern part of Newcaſtle county, and is generally level, except ſome ſmall parts, which are ſtony and uneven.

The chief towns are the following: DOVER, in the county of Kent, is the ſeat of government. It ſtands on Jones' creek, a few miles from the Delaware river, and conſiſts of about 100 houſes, principally of brick. Four ſtreets interſect each other at right angles, in the centre of the town, whoſe incidencies form a ſpacious parade, on the eaſt ſide of which is an elegant ſtate-houſe of brick. The town has a lively appearance, and drives on a conſiderable trade with Philadelphia. Wheat is the principal article of export. The landing is five or ſix miles from the town of Dover.

NEWCASTLE is thirty-five miles below Philadelphia, on the weſt bank of Delaware river. It was firſt ſettled by the Swedes, about the year 1627, and called Stockholm. It was afterwards taken by the Dutch, and called New Amſterdam. When it fell into the hands of the Engliſh, it was called by its preſent name. It contains about ſixty houſes, which have the aſpect of decay, and was formerly the ſeat of government.—This is the firſt town that was ſettled on Delaware river.

WILMINGTON is ſituated a mile and a half weſt of Delaware river, on Chriſtiana creek, twenty-eight miles ſouthward from Philadelphia. It is much the largeſt and pleaſanteſt town in the ſtate, containing about 400 houſes, which are handſomely built upon a gentle aſcent of an eminence, and ſhew to great advantage as you ſail up the Delaware.

Beſides other public buildings, there is a flouriſhing academy of about forty or fifty ſcholars, who are taught the languages, and ſome of the ſciences, by an

able inſtructor. This academy, in proper time, is intended to be erected into a college. There is another academy at Newark, in this county, which was incorporated in 1769, and then had fourteen Truſtees.

MILFORD, the little emporium of Suſſex county, is ſituated at the ſource of a ſmall river, fifteen miles from Delaware bay, and 150 ſouthward of Philadelphia. This town, which contains about eighty houſes, has been built, except one houſe, ſince the revolution. It is laid out with much taſte, and is by no means diſagreeable. The inhabitants are Epiſcopalians, Quakers, and Methodiſts.

DUCK CREEK, is twelve miles north-weſt from Dover, and has about ſixty houſes, which ſtand on one ſtreet. It carries on a conſiderable trade with Philadelphia—and certainly merits a more pompous name. A mile ſouth from this is ſituated Governor Collins's plantation. His houſe, which is large and elegant, ſtands a quarter of a mile from the road, and has a pleaſing effect upon the eye of the traveller.

The trade of this ſtate, which is inconſiderable, is carried on principally with Philadelphia, in boats and ſhallops. The articles exported are principally wheat, corn, lumber, and hay.

With reſpect to religion, there are, in this ſtate, twenty-one Preſbyterian congregations, belonging to the Synod of Philadelphia—Seven Epiſcopal churches —Six congregations of Baptiſts, containing about 218 ſouls——Four congregations of the people called Quakers; beſides a Swediſh church at Wilmington, which is one of the oldeſt churches in the United States, and a number of Methodiſts. All theſe denominations have free toleration by the conſtitution, and live together in harmony.

In the convention held at Philadelphia, in the ſummer of 1787, the inhabitants of this ſtate were reckoned at 37,000, which is about twenty-ſix for every ſquare mile. There is no obvious characteriſtical difference between the inhabitants of this ſtate and the Pennſylvanians.

At the revolution, the three lower counties on Delaware became independent by the name of *The Delaware State*. Under their preſent conſtitution, which was eſtabliſhed in September 1776, the legiſlature is divided into two diſtinct branches, which together are ſtiled *The General Aſſembly of Delaware*. One branch, called the *Houſe of Aſſembly*, conſiſts of ſeven repreſentatives from each of the three counties, choſen annually by the freeholders. The other branch, called the *Council*, conſiſts of nine members, three for a county, who muſt be more than twenty-five years of age, choſen likewiſe by the freeholders. A rotation of members is eſtabliſhed by diſplacing one member for a county at the end of every year.

All money bills muſt originate in the houſe of aſſembly, but they may be altered, amended, or rejected by the legiſlative council.

A preſident or chief magiſtrate is choſen by the joint ballot of both houſes, and continues in office three years; at the expiration of which period, he is ineligible the three ſucceeding years. If his office becomes vacant during the receſs of the legiſlature, or he is unable to attend to buſineſs, the ſpeaker of the legiſlative council is vice-preſident for the time; and in *his* abſence, the powers of the preſident devolve upon the ſpeaker of the aſſembly.

A privy council, conſiſting of four members, two from each houſe, choſen by ballot, is conſtituted to aſſiſt the chief magiſtrate in the adminiſtration of the government.

The three juſtices of the ſupreme court, a judge of admiralty, and four juſtices of the common pleas and orphans courts, are appointed by the joint ballot of the preſident and general aſſembly, and commiſſioned by the preſident—to hold their offices during good behaviour. The preſident and privy council appoint the ſecretary, the attorney-general, regiſters for the probate of wills, regiſters in chancery, clerks of the common pleas, and orphans courts, and clerks of the peace, who hold their offices during five years, unleſs ſooner removed for mal-conduct.

The houſe of aſſembly name twenty-four perſons in each county for juſtices of peace, from which number the preſident, with the advice of his council, appoints and commiſſions twelve, who ſerve for ſeven years, unleſs ſooner diſmiſſed for mal-admiſtration. The members of the legiſlative and privy councils are juſtices of the peace for the whole ſtate.

The courts of common pleas and orphans courts have power to hold chancery courts in certain caſes.

The clerk of the ſupreme court is appointed by the chief juſtice; and the recorder of deeds, by the juſtices of the common pleas; for five years, unleſs ſooner diſmiſſed.

All the military and marine officers are appointed by the general aſſembly.

The court of appeals conſiſts of ſeven perſons—the preſident, who is member, and preſides by virtue of his office, and ſix others, three to be choſen by the legiſlative council, and three by the houſe of aſſembly. To this court appeals lie from the ſupreme court, in all matters of law and equity. The judges hold their office during their good behaviour.

The juſtices of the ſeveral courts, the members of the privy council, ſecretary, truſtees of the loan office, clerks of the common pleas, and all perſons concerned in army or navy contracts, are ineligible to either houſe of aſſembly. Every member, before taking his ſeat, muſt take the oath of allegiance, and ſubſcribe a religious teſt, declaring his belief in God the Father, in Jeſus Chriſt, and the Holy Ghoſt; and in the inſpiration of the Scriptures.

The houſe of aſſembly have the privilege of impeaching delinquent officers of government, and impeachments are to be proſecuted by the attorney-general, or other perſon appointed by the aſſembly, and tried before the legiſlative council. The puniſhment may extend to temporary or perpetual diſability to hold offices under government, or to ſuch other penalties as the laws ſhall direct.

There is, in Delaware, no eſtabliſhment of one religious ſect in preference to another, nor can any preacher or clergyman, while in his paſtoral employment, hold any civil office in the ſtate.

In treating of the Hiſtory of this province, it will be proper to obſerve, that the Dutch, under the pretended purchaſe made of Henry Hudſon, took poſſeſſion of the lands on both ſides the river Delaware; and as early as the year 1623, built a fort at the place, which has ſince been called Glouceſter.

In 1627, by the influence of William Uſeling, a reſpectable merchant in Sweden, a colony of Swedes and Finns came over, furniſhed with all the neceſſaries for beginning a new ſettlement, and landed at Cape Henlopen; at which time the Dutch had wholly quitted the country. The Dutch, however, returned in 1630, and built a fort at Lewiſtown, by them named Hoarkill. The year following the Swedes built a fort near Wilmington, which they called Chriſtein or Chriſtiana. Here alſo they laid out a ſmall town, which was afterwards demoliſhed by the Dutch. The ſame year they erected a fort higher up the river, upon Tenecum iſland, which they called New Gottenburgh; they alſo, about the ſame time, built forts at Cheſter, Elſinburgh, and other places. John Printz then governed the Swedes, who, in 1654, deputed his ſon-in-law, John Papgoia, and returned to Sweden. Papgoia ſoon followed his father-in-law to his native country, and John Ryſing ſucceeded to the government.

In 1655, the Dutch, under the command of Peter Stuyveſant, arrived in Delaware river, from New Amſterdam (now New York) in ſeven veſſels, with 6 or 700 men. They diſpoſſeſſed the Swedes of their forts on the river, and carried the officers and principal

cipal inhabitants priſoners to New Amſterdam, and from thence to Holland. The common people ſubmitted to the conquerors and remained in the country.

On the firſt of October 1664, Sir Robert Carr obtained the ſubmiſſion of the Swedes on Delaware river. Four years after, Colonel Nicolls, Governor of New-York, with his Council, on the 21ſt of April, appointed a *ſcout* and five other perſons, to aſſiſt Captain Carr in the government of the country.

In 1672, the town of Newcaſtle was incorporated by the government of New-York, to be governed by a bailiff and ſix aſſiſtants; after the firſt year, the four oldeſt were to leave their office, and four others to be choſen. The bailiff was preſident, with a double vote; the conſtable was choſen by the bench. They had power to try cauſes not exceeding ten pounds, without appeal. The office of *ſcout* was converted into that of ſheriff, who had juriſdiction in the corporation and along the river, and was annually choſen. They were to have a free trade, without being obliged to make entry at New York, as had formerly been the practice.

Wampum was, at this time, the principal currency of the country. Governor Lovelace, of New York, by proclamation, ordered that four white grains and three black ones, ſhould paſs for the value of a ſtiver or penny. This proclamation was publiſhed at Albany, Eſopus, Delaware, Long-Iſland, and the parts adjacent.

In 1674, Charles II. by a ſecond patent, dated June 29, granted to his brother, Duke of York, all that country called by the Dutch *New Netherlands*, of which the three counties of Newcaſtle, Kent, and Suſſex were a part.

In 1683, the Duke of York, by deed, dated Auguſt 24th, ſold to William Penn, the town of Newcaſtle, with the diſtrict of twelve miles round the ſame; and by another deed, of the ſame date, granted to him the remainder of the territory, which, till the Revolution, was called the Three Lower Counties, and has ſince been called the Delaware State. Till 1776, theſe three counties were conſidered as a part of Pennſylvania, in matters of government. The ſame governor preſided over both, but the aſſembly and courts of judicature were different: different as to their conſtituent members, but in form nearly the ſame.

CHAP. X.

MARYLAND.

Situation, &c. Diviſions, Climate, Produce, Rivers, Inhabitants, Diſcovery of it, Former and Preſent Government.

THIS province is ſituated between the 75th and 80th deg. of weſt long, and between the 37th and 40th of north lat. It is about 140 miles in length, and 135 in breadth; being bounded by Virginia, on the ſouth; by the Apalachian mountains, on the weſt; by Pennſylvania, on the north; and by the Atlantic Ocean, and another part of Pennſylvania, on the eaſt.

The Bay of Cheſapeak divides Maryland into two parts, viz. the eaſtern and weſtern.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
The eaſtern diviſion contains the counties of	Somerſet.....	Somerſet.
	Dorcheſter	Dorcheſter.
	Talbot.....	Oxford.
	Cecil.	
The weſt diviſion contains the counties of.....	St. Mary's.....	St. Mary's
	Charles.....	Briſtol.
	Prince George	Maſterkout.
	Calvert.....	Abington.
	Ann Arundel.	Annapolis.
	Baltimore.....	Baltimore.

Maryland is a healthy country, and enjoys a clear air; the ſummers are exceſſively hot, and the winters are equally cold, but ſhort. The ſoil is extremely good, when cultivated. The chief vegetable production is tobacco, but great quantities of hemp and flax, Indian corn and grain, with moſt kind of fruits, are now produced here. The trees are oaks, black walnuts, poplars, cedars, and cheſnuts. The hills are in general of eaſy aſcent, and yield iron ore. The woods contain prodigious herds of wild ſwine.

The chief rivers are, Potomack, Pocomac, Patuxent, Severn, Cheptouk, Saſſafras, Wicomoca, and St. George. Theſe and ſeveral others are navigable for large ſhips, and add greatly to the fertility of the ſoil. The chief bays are thoſe of Cheſapeak and Delaware, and the moſt noted cape that of Henlopen, at the entrance of Delaware-Bay.

The inhabitants of Maryland were ſome years ago computed at 80,000, but are now ſuppoſed to amount to 220,700. Its commerce pretty nearly reſembles that of Virginia, and will therefore be conſidered under that head. We ſhall only mention here, that, beſides tobacco, their exports are, ſalted pork, iron, flax, and hemp. In 1782, a college was founded at Cheſter-Town, in this province, under the name of Waſhington-College, in honour of General Waſhington, Commander in Chief of the American forces, during the late war.

Maryland was diſcovered in the year 1606, when Virginia was firſt planted, and for ſome time was eſteemed a part of Virginia, till King Charles I. in 1632, granted all that part of Virginia which lay north of Potomack river to the Lord Baltimore, of the kingdom of Ireland, and his heirs. The year following about 200 Popiſh families, ſome of conſiderable diſtinction, embarked with his lordſhip, to enter into poſſeſſion of this new territory. Theſe ſettlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which diſtinguiſhes gentlemen of every religion, bought their land at an eaſy price of the native Indians, and for ſome time lived with them in the greateſt harmony and friendſhip. Their generous method of proceeding gained the confidence of the natives; they ceded to them one half of their principal town, and ſoon after gave up the whole to theſe ſtrangers. The Indian women taught the Engliſh the manner of making bread of their corn; the men took the Engliſh with them when they went either to hunt or fiſh; they aſſiſted them in the chace, and ſold them the game they took themſelves for a trifling conſideration; ſo that the new ſettlers had a ſort of town ready built, ground ready cleared for their ſubſiſtence, and no enemy to diſturb them in the quiet poſſeſſion of the country: but envy, the growth of every clime, inſtigated the neighbouring planters in Virginia to deſtroy the happineſs of the Baltimore colony. They ſpread ill-grounded reports among the Indians, in order to render them jealous of their new friends. Alarmed at the conſequences of a war with the ſavages, the Popiſh ſettlers erected a fort with the greateſt expedition, and took every other method in their power to ſecure themſelves from the brutal fury of the Indians, but at the ſame time treated them with every act of kindneſs in their power. Theſe precautions and friendly diſpoſitions had the deſired effect; the Indians, awed by their preparations, and ſoothed by the generous treatment they received, laid aſide their hoſtile intentions, and the malicious deſigns of the Virginian planters were rendered abortive.

The flouriſhing ſtate of this infant colony, and the uninterrupted peace they had enjoyed in their new ſettlement, induced many of the Roman Catholic families in England, to leave their native ſoil, and join their brethren in Maryland. They were encouraged and ſupported by the governor, and the colony continued to receive freſh reinforcements, till the Engliſh conſtitution was overturned, and Cromwell

ſeized the reins of government. Baltimore had nothing to hope from the protector; he had always been a warm friend to the royal party, and therefore expected to fall with the cauſe of his maſter. He was not deceived; he was deprived of his rights, and a new governor ſubſtituted in his room. Under this government Maryland continued till the Reſtoration, when Lord Baltimore was re-inſtated in his lawful poſſeſſions, which he cultivated with his former wiſdom, care, and moderation.

Not ſatisfied with procuring eaſe and ſecurity for his own ſect, he was deſirous of extending the benefits of his mild and equitable adminiſtration to others. Accordingly, he procured an act of aſſembly to be paſſed, for allowing a free and unlimited toleration for all who profeſſed the Chriſtian religion, of whatever denomination. This liberty, which was never violated, encouraged a great number, not only of the church of England, but Preſbyterians, Quakers, and all kinds of Diſſenters, to ſettle in Maryland. But though Lord Baltimore had received his patent from Charles I. though he had always been firmly attached to the royal cauſe, though he was guilty of no mal-adminiſtration, yet the bigoted and tyrannical council of James the Second, who wanted diſcernment to diſtinguiſh friends from enemies, deprived this noble family of their rights and poſſeſſions. At the Revolution, however, Lord Baltimore was again put in poſſeſſion of the profits of his province, which were not inconſiderable, though he was not reſtored to the right of government, which could not conſiſtently be conferred on a Roman Catholic. But as ſoon as his deſcendents had conformed to the church of England, they were re-inſtated in all their rights as fully as the legiſlature thought fit for them to be enjoyed by any proprietor.

The government of Maryland exactly reſembled that of Virginia, except with regard to the appointment of the governor, which belonged to the proprietors; but he was confirmed by the king. The cuſtoms alſo belonged to the crown, and the officers appointed to collect them were independent of the government of the province. The Roman Catholic religion was at firſt the only one profeſſed in this country. At the Revolution, the original conſtitution was reverſed, the Proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed, and the Papiſts excluded from all offices and truſt and power, and even the penal laws of England were adopted againſt them. The church of England was eſtabliſhed by law, and the clergy were paid in tobacco; every Chriſtian male ſixteen years old, and negroes male and female, above that age, was obliged to pay forty pounds of tobacco, or pay the value in caſh, if he raiſed no tobacco; it was levied by the ſheriff, among other public burdens, and yielded about 100l. ſterling, as a medium, to each; and diſſenting clergy were not exempted.

But by the declaration of rights, and the conſtitution eſtabliſhed and agreed to in the convention of delegates at Annapolis, in Auguſt 1746, the legiſlature is now to conſiſt of the ſenate and the houſe of delegates; the latter to be annually choſen, viva voce, by the freeholders in every reſpective county, four delegates each; Baltimore town and the city of Annapolis, two each; the delegates for the ſenate are to be elected in like manner every five years, two for each county, out of whom fifteen ſenators are to be choſen by ballot; nine for the weſtern, and ſix for the eaſtern ſhire. The executive power is lodged in a governor and five council, choſen annually by the joint ballot of the general aſſembly, who may appoint the chancellor, judges, field officers, &c. but the ſheriffs and juſtices of the peace are choſen by the freeholders in each county. A freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of 30l. gives a right of ſuffrage in the election of delegates, to all freemen above twenty-one years of age. Before any perſon can be appointed to any office of profit or truſt, a declaration of his belief in the Chriſtian religion muſt be ſubſcribed by him.

CHAP. XI.

VIRGINIA.

Situation, &c. Diviſions, Population, Climate, Produce, Animals, Birds, Fiſh, Vegetables, Rivers, Trade, Inhabitants, Buildings, and Government.

VIRGINIA is ſituated between the 75th and 90th deg. of weſt long. and between the 36th and 40th of north lat. It is about 750 miles in length, and 240 in breadth; bounded by Carolina, on the ſouth; by the river Potomack, which divides it from Maryland, on the north-eaſt; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the eaſt; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the weſt.

It is properly divided into four parts: the north, the middle, the ſouth, and eaſt.

In the north diviſion are the counties of Northumberland, Lancaſhire, Weſtmoreland, Richmond, Stafford, containing the pariſhes of Wincomoca, Chriſt-Church, and St. Paul's.

In the middle diviſion are the counties of Eſſex, Middleſex, Glouceſter, King and Queen, King William, New Kent, Elizabeth, Warwick, York, Princeſs Ann; containing the pariſhes of Farnham, Chriſt-Church, Abingdon, Stratton, St. John's, St. Peter's, Elizabeth, Denby, York, and Lynhaven.

In the ſouth diviſion are the counties of Norfolk, Nantamund, Iſle of Wight, Surry, Prince George, Charles, Henrico, James; containing the pariſhes of Elizabeth, Chutakuk, Newport, Southwark, Wyanoke, Weſtover, Briſtol, James Town, and Williamſburg.

In the eaſt diviſion, between Cheſapeak-Bay and the Ocean, is the county of Acomac; with its pariſh of the ſame name.

With reſpect to population, Mr. Jefferſon, in his notes on Virginia, allows a duplication of ſouls here once in twenty-ſeven years and a quarter. He takes the ſpace of 118 years incluſive, from 1654 until the year 1772, when the tythes of Virginia had increaſed from 7,209 to 153,000; which eſtimate, he ſays, is corroborated by the particular uniformity of the intermediate enumeration taken in 1700, 1748, and 1759. According to this increaſe, he ſuppoſes the inhabitants of Virginia alone will amount to between 6 and 7,000,000 within ninety-ſix years.

The climate of this province is ſubject to violent and ſudden changes, in conſequence of the air and ſeaſons depending greatly on the wind as to heat and cold, dryneſs and moiſture. The north and north-weſt winds are piercing cold, and either clear or ſtormy; the ſouth-eaſt and ſouth, hazy and ſultry hot, but in winter the air is clear and dry. The froſts are ſhort, but ſo ſevere, that rivers, three miles in breadth, are frequently frozen entirely over. The ſpring is about a month earlier than in England: in April the rains are frequent; in May and June the heat increaſes; and the ſummer nearly reſembles ours, the heat being mitigated with gentle ſea-breezes that begin to blow about nine in the morning, increaſing and decreaſing as the ſun riſes or falls. In July and Auguſt theſe breezes ceaſe, when the air becomes ſtagnant and ſultry hot: in September the weather generally changes ſuddenly, and heavy rains fall, which produce a terrible effect on the health of the inhabitants. Storms of thunder and lightning are very frequent here, but they ſeldom are attended by any miſchief. It is a general obſervation in regard to all theſe colonies, that as they become inhabited, and the lands cleared, the air is improved, and rendered more ſalutary; for the whole country, before it was planted, was one continued foreſt, interſperſed with ſwamps or marſhes.

As to the face of this country, it is generally low, and flat towards the ſea, and for 100 miles within, ſo that there is ſcarce a hill or ſtone to be ſeen, except here and there ſome rocks of iron ore, and ſome banks of a kind of petrified oyſter ſhells. In the inland parts the ſoil is light and ſandy; but towards the ſea-coaſt, and on the banks of rivers, it is generally very rich, yielding very good corn, and tobacco.

Virginia has, in common with the chief parts of the American provinces, elks, bears, wolves, foxes, a ſpecies of panther, or tyger, red deer, muſk rats, racoons, beavers, and wolves; but the moſt curious animal found in that country is the opoſſum, which is about the ſize of a cat, and, beſides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itſelf, hanging beneath the former. This additional belly has a large aperture towards the hinder legs, which diſcovers a number of teats on the uſual part of the common belly. Upon theſe, when the female of this animal conceives, the young are formed, and, when arrived at their appointed ſize, drop from thence into the ſecond belly, from whence they go out at pleaſure, and into which they are received whenever there is the leaſt appearance of danger. Horſes, cows, ſheep, and hogs, were animals unknown in America, till introduced from Europe, and now, particularly in Virginia and the ſouthern colonies, they run wild in prodigious numbers.

In this province, are ſeveral ſorts of eagles, hawks, and owls. The white owl is eſteemed a great curioſity, all the feathers of the back and breaſt being perfectly white except a black ſpot underneath the throat. Their turkeys are exceeding large, ſome of them weighing forty pounds. The partridges are not ſo big as thoſe of England, but their fleſh finely flavoured, as are every other ſort of wild fowl. The Virginian nightingale, which takes its diſtinguiſhing epithet from this province, is adorned with a plumage of bright crimſon and blue, and ſings moſt delightfully; but his note is thought to be exceeded by the mocking bird, which is likewiſe an inhabitant of Virginia. The natural note of this bird is prodigiouſly fine, beſides which, as its appellation implies, it attains that of the linnet, lark, nightingale, &c.

Fiſh of all ſorts are found here in vaſt quantities, and three ſpecies of them are remarkable, viz. the ſting-graſs, the toad-fiſh, and tobacco-pipe-fiſh. The firſt takes its name from a ſting in its tail; the ſecond, from its ſwelling to a monſtrous ſize when taken out of the water; and the third, from its reſemblance to a tobacco-pipe. In February, March, April, and May, ſhoals of herrings come up, even into the brooks, ſome of which are about the ſize of ours, but, in general, they are much larger.

Snakes, particularly the rattle-ſnake, and lizards, abound here; and in ſummer great numbers of worms are found in the waters, which having a ſort of horn or ſcrew on their heads, force their paſſage into the bottoms and ſides of ſhips, whenever they find the coat of pitch, tar, or lime worn off.

The principal vegetable production in Virginia, as in Maryland, is tobacco. The culture of this plant, which in its excellent quality ſurpaſſes that of all other countries, ſo engroſſes the attention of the inhabitants, that they only rear corn ſufficient for their own uſe. The next object of their attention, is hemp and flax, great quantites of which are exported from this country; rice is likewiſe cultivated, but very ſparingly. The foreſts yield oaks, poplars, pines, cedars, cypreſſes, ſweet myrtles, cheſnuts, hickery, walnut, dog-wood, elder, hazel, chinkapines, locuſt-trees, ſaſſafras, elm, aſh, and beech. A great variety of ſweet gums and incenſe diſtil from ſeveral of theſe trees, and others produce pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, plank-timber, maſts, and yards. The trees in general are much loftier than ours, and no underwood or buſhes grow beneath, ſo that travellers may croſs the foreſts on horſeback, and always find a comfortable ſhelter from the intenſe heat of the climate in the middle of ſummer. Beſides excellent paſture, many places produce a ſpecies of graſs, called ſilk graſs, the fibres of which are as fine as flax, and much ſtronger than hemp. The plains and vallies are adorned with an almoſt perpetual ſucceſſion of flowers, among which are the fineſt crown imperial in the world, the cardinal flower, and the tulip-bearing laurel-tree.

The principal rivers in this country are James River, York River, Rappahannock, and Potomack, all of which riſe in the Apalachian mountains, and, running along the borders of this province from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, fall into the bay of Cheſapeak, which is near 300 miles in length, 18 in breadth in ſome places, and ſeven in others; in moſt places the water is nine fathoms deep. James River is uſually about two miles in breadth, and navigable at leaſt 27 leagues. York and Rappahannock rivers are not ſo large; but Potomack is navigable for 200 miles.

Here are quarries of ſtones, mines of coals and lead, and vaſt quantities of iron ore.

The Virginians, before the late war, carried on a great trade with the Weſt-Indies in lumber, pitch, tar, corn, and proviſions; and with Great-Britain in flax, hemp, iron, pipe-ſtaves, and planks; but its principal article of export, and chief manufacture, was tobacco; and it is computed that this province, together with that of Maryland, exported, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of 768,000l. into Great-Britain, which, at 8l. per hogſhead, makes the number of hogſheads amount to 96,000. Of theſe it is ſuppoſed about 13,500 hogſheads are conſumed at home, the duty on which, at 26l. 1s. per hogſhead, amounts to 351,675l. The remaining 82,500 hogſheads are exported by our merchants to other parts of Europe, and their value returned to Great-Britain. This, however, was not the only advantage we reaped from ſo extenſive a branch of commerce: in the proſecution of it no leſs than 330 ſail of ſhips, and 7,960 ſeamen were employed; ſo that not only our wealth, but the very ſinews of our national ſtrength were braced by it. The whole of our imports from Maryland and Virginia were ſaid to amount to 1,040,000l. annually; while our exports to thoſe places, which conſiſted in the ſame articles with which we furniſhed our other colonies, came to 865,000l.

The number of white people in Virginia are ſaid to be 100,000, and the negroes nearly twice that number. The better ſort of people among them are cheerful, hoſpitable, and genteel; but they have, with too much juſtice, acquired the character of being at once vain and oſtentatious.

The American Indians on the frontiers of Virginia are of a middling ſtature, ſtraight and well proportioned, with the fineſt limbs in the world; nor is there a dwarf or miſhapen perſon among them. Their colour is that of copper, rendered darker by greaſing themſelves, and being expoſed to the weather. They have black eyes, and their hair is coal-black, which the men cut into ſeveral ſhapes, and both men and women greaſe ſo that it ſhines. The better ſort wear a kind of coronet four or five inches broad, and open at the top, compoſed of a ſort of beads, and ſome a wreath of dyed furs; they have alſo bracelets on their necks and arms; but the common people go bare-headed, only they ſtick large ſhining feathers in their hair. Their clothes are a large mantle, careleſsly wrapped round their bodies, and ſometimes girt cloſely with a girdle. The common ſort only paſs a piece of cloth or ſtring round their middle, and put a piece of cloth or ſkin between their thighs, which turns over the ſtring at each end. Their ſhoes, when they wear any, are made of an entire piece of buckſkin. The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men, only the better ſort

have more beads and bracelets. They commonly go naked as far as the navel downwards, and upwards to the middle of the thigh; their breaſts are round and ſmall, and never hang down as thoſe of the black women on the coaſt of Guinea. Inſtead of keeping their children warm, they dip them over head and ears in cold water as ſoon as born, and then tie them to a board with ſomething ſoft, in which poſture they remain till their limbs begin to acquire ſome ſtrength, when they are ſet at liberty, and ſuffered to crawl about in the beſt manner they can.

The chief part of the inhabitants of Virginia are members of the church of England, and the reſt are Quakers and Preſbyterians. In each pariſh there is a church built with brick, ſtone, or timber, and decently furniſhed with all things neceſſary for the celebration of divine ſervice. When the pariſhes are large there is a chapel of eaſe, and ſometimes two, for the conveniency of the pariſhioners. The annual income of the miniſters is ſettled at 16,000lb. of tobacco each, beſides perquiſites, which they are allowed to make. Formerly, the clergy and churches were under the immediate inſpection of a commiſſary, appointed by the biſhop of London; but the power of induction, upon the preſentation of miniſters, was lodged in the hands of the governor.

Virginia is adorned by ſeveral magnificent public buildings, but the only towns worthy the leaſt notice are Williamſburg and James-Town. The former was the ſeat of the government, aſſembly, and chief courts. It contains a college, called William and Mary College, having been founded by Willam III. who gave 2,000l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchaſe and hold lands to the value of 2,000l. a year, and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. It conſiſts of a preſident, ſix maſters or profeſſors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or viſitors. The Hon. Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to this college for the education of Indian children. Beſides this college, there are ſome other handſome edifices in Williamſburg, as the town-houſe, the church, a magazine for arms and ammunition, a public priſon, a fort, and a play-houſe.

James-Town is ſituated about 26 miles above the mouth of the river of that name; it was once the capital, and the ſeat of government, but is now dwindled into an inconſiderable village.

This was the firſt colony planted in America by the Engliſh. It has been already obſerved that Sebaſtian Cabot, in the year 1497, diſcovered the northern continent of the New World; but nothing was done towards ſettling a colony till the rign of Queen Elizabeth. Sir Walter Raleigh, one of the moſt extraordinary geniuſes of his own, or perhaps any other times, was the firſt Engliſhman that attempted a ſettlement in America. He was the only perſon who had any idea of the nature of foreign trade, or was capable of forming a right conception of the advantage of ſettlements in a diſtant country. Animated with the idea of future greatneſs, and deſirous of increaſing the power and commerce of his native country, he applied to the queen for a patent; and having got together a company compoſed of ſeveral perſons of diſtinction, and many eminent merchants, they agreed to ſettle a colony, and open a trade in that part of the world, which, in honour of Queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia.

Towards the cloſe of the 16th century, ſeveral attempts were made for ſettling this colony, but without ſucceſs. The three firſt companies who ſailed into Virginia, periſhed through hunger and diſeaſes, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced to almoſt the ſame ſituation; and being dwindled to a ſmall remnant, had ſet ſail for England, in deſpair of living in ſuch an uncultivated country, inhabited by fierce and warlike ſavages. But in the mouth of Cheſapeak Bay, they were met by Lord Delawar, with a ſquadron loaded with proviſions, and with every thing neceſſary for their ſupport and defence. At his perſuaſion they returned; and by his wiſe management and engaging behaviour, the government of the colony was ſettled within itſelf, and began to appear formidable to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of this unpromiſing colony from the beſt motives, was obliged, by the decline of his health, to return to England. However, he left behind him his ſon, as deputy, with Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, the Hon. George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. They erected James-Town, the firſt place built by the Engliſh in the New World; they cleared large tracts of land, and raiſed a ſufficient quantity of corn and vegetables for their ſupport. The value of this colony now began to be known in England; and great numbers of people tranſported themſelves to Virginia, which was conſidered as one of the genuine ſources of wealth. During the dreadful troubles in the reign of Charles I. many of the royal party fled to Virginia, and under the conduct of Sir William Berkley held out for the crown, till the parliament, rather by ſtratagem than force, found means to reduce them.

After the Reſtoration, the hiſtory of this colony has very few intereſting events: a kind of rebellion, indeed, broke out in Virginia, on account of the miſmanagement of the government, and ſome reſtrictions laid upon trade. The inſurgents were headed by one Bacon, a young gentleman bred to the law; but the unexpected death of their leader reſtored the peace of the colony, and prevented the dreadful conſequences of a civil war.

At the firſt eſtabliſhment of this colony, the government was adapted to the principles of the Engliſh conſtitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty which every Engliſhman conſiders as his birth-right. It was directed by a governor and council appointed by the crown; but, as the inhabitants increaſed, the inconveniency of this government became more conſpicuous: the people complained, and it was found neceſſary to give them a ſhare in the government. Accordingly a new branch was added to the legiſlature: the people were allowed to elect their own repreſentatives for each county into which the colony is divided, with privileges reſembling thoſe of the commons of England: and thus two houſes, called the upper and lower houſe of aſſembly, were formed. The upper houſe, which was before called the council, continued on its former footing; the members were appointed by the crown; they held their poſts during pleaſure; were ſtiled honourable, and anſwered, in ſome meaſure, to the Britiſh houſe of peers. The lower houſe was the guardian of the liberties of the people; and the governor repreſented the king. Thus the government of Virginia bore a ſtriking reſemblance to the Britiſh. When any bill had paſſed the two houſes of aſſembly, it was ſent up to the governor, who gave his aſſent or negative as he thought proper; but it did not acquire the force of a law, till it had been tranſmitted to England, and received his majeſty's approbation. The upper houſe of aſſembly, beſides making a part of the legiſlature, formed alſo a privy-council to the governor, who, without their conſent, could do nothing of moment: it ſometimes acted alſo as a court of chancery.

With regard to the preſent government of Virginia, the convention at Williamſburg, in July 1776, agreed, that the legiſlative, executive, and judiciary departments ſhould be ſeparate and diſtinct. The houſe of delegates are to be choſen annually by the freeholders, two for each county, and for the diſtrict of Weſt Auguſta, and one repreſentative for the city of Williamſburg and town of Norfolk. The ſenate conſiſts of 24 members, choſen by the freeholders of the ſtate, and divided into 20 diſtricts. The executive government is a governor and privy council of eight members,

chofen annually by the joint ballot of the general aſſembly of the ſtate, who alſo elect the delegates to congreſs, the judges, preſident, treaſurer, ſecretary, juſtices, ſheriffs, coroners, &c.

A Deſcription of the City of Waſhington, in the Diſtrict of Columbia, in North-America, now building for the Metropolis of the United States.

THE city of Waſhington, in the diſtrict of Columbia, now building for the permanent ſeat of the government of the United States of America, ſtands at the junction of the rivers Potomack and the Eaſtern Branch, extending about four miles up each, including a tract of territory ſcarcely to be exceeded, in point of convenience, ſalubrity, and beauty, by any in the world: for although the land is apparently level, yet, by gentle and gradual ſwellings, a variety of elegant proſpects are produced. This territory lies partly in the ſtate of Virginia, and partly in that of Maryland, and was ceded by thoſe two ſtates to the United States of America, and by them eſtabliſhed to be the ſeat of government, after the year 1800.

Within the limits of the city are twenty-five never-failing ſprings of excellent water; and, by digging wells, water of the beſt quality is readily had: beſides, the never-failing ſtreams that now run through that territory, are alſo to be collected for the uſe of the city.

The Eaſtern Branch is one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious harbours in America, being ſufficiently deep for the largeſt ſhips, for about four miles above its mouth; while the channel lies cloſe along the edge of the city, and is abundantly capacious. This river contains thirty and thirty-five feet to near the upper end of the city, where it is eighteen and twenty feet deep.

The city being ſituated upon the great poſt road, exactly equidiſtant from the northern and ſouthern extremities of the Union, and nearly ſo from the Atlantic Ocean to the River Ohio, upon the beſt navigation, and in the midſt of the richeſt commercial territory in America, commanding the moſt extenſive internal reſources, is by far the moſt eligible ſituation for the reſidence of Congreſs; and it is now preſſing forward, by the public-ſpirited enterpriſe, not only of the people of the United States, but alſo of foreigners.

The inland navigation of the Potomack is ſo far advanced, that craft loaded with produce now come down that river and its ſeveral branches, from upwards of 180 miles to the great falls, which are within fourteen miles of the new city. The canals at the great and little falls are nearly completed, and the locks in ſuch forwardneſs, that, in the courſe of a ſhort time, the navigation will be entirely opened between tide water and the head branches of the Potomack, which will produce a communication by water between the city of Waſhington and the interior parts of Virginia and Maryland, by means of the Potomack, the Shannandoah, the South Branch, Opecan, Cape Capon, Paterſon's Creek, Conoochegue, and Monocaſy, for upwards of 200 miles, through one of the moſt healthy, pleaſant, and fertile regions in America, producing, in vaſt abundance, tobacco of ſuperior quality, hemp, Indian corn, wheat, and other ſmall grain, with fruit and vegetables peculiar to America, in vaſt abundance.

The lands upon the Potomack above the city of Waſhington, all around it, and for ſixty miles below, are high and dry, abounding with innumerable ſprings of excellent water, and are well covered with large timber of various kinds. A few miles below the city, upon the banks of the Potomack, are inexhauſtible mountains of excellent freeſtone, of the white and red Portland kinds, of which the public edifices in the city are now building. Above the city alſo, upon the banks of the river, are immenſe quantities of excellent coal, limeſtone, and marble, with blue ſlate of the beſt quality.

The founding of this city, in ſuch an eligible ſituation, upon ſuch a liberal and elegant plan, will by future generations be conſidered as a high proof of the judgment and wiſdom of the late preſident of the United States, while its name will keep freſh in mind, to the end of time, the obligations they are under to that illuſtrious character.

The plan of this city, agreeable to the directions of the preſident of the United States, was deſigned by Major L'Enfant, and is an inconceivable improvement upon all other cities, combining not only convenience, regularity, elegance of proſpect, and a free circulation of air, but every thing grand and beautiful that can be introduced into a city.

The city is divided into ſquares or grand diviſions, by the ſtreets running due north and ſouth, and eaſt and weſt, which form the ground-work of the plan. However, from the capitol, the preſident's houſe, and ſome of the important areas in the city, run tranſverſe avenues or diagonal ſtreets, from one material object to another, which not only produce a variety of charming proſpects, but remove that inſipid ſameneſs that renders ſome other great cities unpleaſing. They were deviſed to connect the ſeparate and moſt diſtant objects with the principal, and to preſerve through the whole a reciprocity of ſight. The great leading ſtreets are all 160 feet wide, including a pavement of ten feet, and a gravel walk of thirty feet planted with trees on each ſide, which will leave eighty feet of paved ſtreet for carriages. The reſt of the ſtreets are, in general, 110 feet wide, with a few only ninety feet, except North, South, and Eaſt Capitol Streets, which are 160 feet. The diagonal ſtreets are named after the reſpective ſtates compoſing the Union, while thoſe running north and ſouth are, from the capitol eaſtward, named, Eaſt Firſt Street, Eaſt Second Street, &c. and thoſe weſt of it are in the ſame manner called Weſt Firſt Street, Weſt Second Street, &c. thoſe running eaſt and weſt, are from the capitol northward, named, North A Street, North B Street, &c. and thoſe ſouth of it are called South A Street, South B Street, &c.

The ſquares, or diviſions of the city, amount to 1150. The rectangular ſquares generally contain from three to ſix acres, and are divided into lots of from forty to eighty feet in front, and their depth, from about 113 to 300 feet, according to the ſize of the ſquare.

The irregular diviſions produced by the diagonal ſtreets are ſome of them ſmall, but generally in valuable ſituations. Their acute points are all to be cut off at forty feet, ſo that no houſe in the city will have an acute corner. The lots in theſe irregular ſquares will all turn at a right angle with the reſpective ſtreets, although the backs of the houſes upon them will not ſtand parallel to one another, which is a matter of no conſequence.

By the rules declared and publiſhed by the preſident of the United States, for regulating the buildings within the city, all houſes muſt be of ſtone or brick: their walls muſt be parallel to the ſtreets, and either placed immediately upon them, or withdrawn therefrom at pleaſure. The walls of all houſes upon ſtreets 160 feet wide muſt be at leaſt thirty feet high.

The area for the capitol (or houſe for the legiſlative bodies) is ſituated upon the moſt beautiful eminence in the city, about a mile from the Eaſtern Branch, and not much more from the Potomack, commanding a full view of every part of the city, as well as a conſiderable extent of the country around. The preſident's houſe will ſtand upon a riſing ground, not far from the banks of the Potomack, poſſeſſing a delightful water proſpect, with a commanding view

of

of the capitol, and ſome other material parts of the city.

Due ſouth from the preſident's houſe, and due weſt from the capitol, run two great pleaſure parks or malls, which interſect and terminate upon the banks of the Potomack, and are to be ornamented at the ſides by a variety of elegant buildings, houſes for foreign miniſters, &c.

Interſperſed through the city, where the moſt material ſtreets croſs each other, are a variety of open areas, formed in various regular figures, which in great cities are extremely uſeful and ornamental.

Fifteen of the beſt of theſe areas are to be appropriated to the different ſtates compoſing the Union; not only to bear their reſpective names, but as proper places for them to erect ſtatues, obeliſks, or columns, to the memory of their favourite eminent men. Upon the ſmall eminence, where a line due weſt from the capitol, and due ſouth from the preſident's houſe, would interſect, is to be erected an equeſtrian ſtatue of General Waſhington, late preſident of the United States.—The building where Maſſachuſſets and Georgia ſtreets meet, is intended for a marine hoſpital, with its gardens.

The area at the ſouth end of Eaſt Eight ſtreet is for the general exchange, its public walks, &c.

The area, at the junction of the rivers, is for a fort, magazines, and arſenals.

At the eaſt end of Eaſt Capitol Street is to be a bridge, and the preſent ferry is at the lower end of Kentucky-Street, where the great road now croſſes the Eaſtern Branch.—The Tyber, which is the principal ſtream that paſſes through the city, is to be collected in a grand reſervoir beſide the capitol, whence it will be carried in pipes to different parts of the city; while its ſurplus water will fall down in beautiful caſcades, through the public gardens weſt of the capitol, into the canal.—In various parts of the city places are allotted for market-houſes, churches, colleges, theatres, &c.

The preſident of the United States, in locating the ſeat of the city, prevailed upon the proprietors of the ſoil to cede a certain portion of the lots in every ſituation, to be ſold by his direction, and the proceeds to be ſolely applied to the public buildings, and other works of public utility within the city. This grant will produce about 15000 lots, and will be ſufficient, not only to erect the public buildings, but to dig the canal, conduct water through the city, and to pave and light the ſtreets, which will ſave a heavy tax that ariſes in other cities, and conſequently render the lots conſiderably more valuable.

In January 1793, moſt of the ſtreets were run, and the ſquares divided into lots. The canal was partly dug, and the greateſt part of the materials provided for the public buildings, which are to be entirely of freeſtone poliſhed, and are now carrying on with all poſſible expedition.—Laſt ſummer ſeveral private houſes were erected, and a great many proprietors of lots were then preparing to build the enſuing ſummer.

CHAP. XII.

KENTUCKY.

Extent, Diviſions, Rivers, Soil, Produce, Climate, Chief Towns, &c.

THE fine flouriſhing country of Kentucky having riſen into importance but very lately, we are happy to preſent our readers with the following account from an excellent work, entitled, "The American Geography, by Jedidiah Morſe;" to which we have added ſome judicious extracts from the topographical accounts of this weſtern territory by Captain George Imlay, and Mr. John Filſon.

§

This new ſtate belongs at preſent to the province of Virginia. It is ſituated between 36 deg. 30 min. and 39 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 8 deg. 15 min. weſt long. is 250 miles in length, and 200 in breadth; being bounded north-weſt, by the river Ohio; weſt, by Cumberland River; ſouth, by North-Carolina; eaſt, by Sandy River, and a line drawn due ſouth from its ſource, till it ſtrikes the northern boundary of North Carolina.

Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferſon. It has ſince been ſubdivided into ſeven, which follow:

Jefferſon; chief town, Louiſville: Fayette; chief town, Lexington: Bourbon: Mercer, chief town, Harrodſtown: Nelſon; chief town, Bardſtown: Maddiſon: Lincoln.

As moſt of theſe counties are very large, it is probable that ſubdiviſions will continue to be made, as population increaſes.

The river Ohio waſhes the north-weſtern ſide of Kentucky, in its whole extent. Its principal branches which water this fertile tract of country, are Sandy, Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green, and Cumberland rivers. Theſe again branch, in various directions, into rivulets of different magnitudes, fertilizing the country in all its parts. At the bottoms of theſe watercourſes the lime-ſtone rock, which is common to this country, appears of a greyiſh colour; and where it lies expoſed to the air, in its natural ſtate, it looks like brown free-ſtone. On the banks of theſe rivers aud rivulets, this ſtone has the appearance of fine marble, being of the ſame texture, and is found in the greateſt plenty.

Sandy, Licking, and Kentucky rivers riſe near each other, in the Cumberland mountains. Of theſe, Sandy River only breaks through the mountain. This river conſtitutes a part of the eaſtern boundary of Kentucky. Licking River runs in a north-weſt direction, upwards of 100 miles, and is about 100 yards broad at its mouth. Kentucky is a very crooked river, and, after running a courſe of more than 200 miles, emties into the Ohio by a mouth of 150 yards broad.

Salt River riſes at four different places near each other. The windings of this river are curious. The four branches, after a circuitous courſe around a fine tract of land, unite; and after running about fifty miles, empty into the Ohio, twenty miles below the Falls. Its general courſe is weſtward—its length about ninety miles—and its mouth is eighty yards wide.

Green River purſues a weſtern courſe upwards of 150 miles, and, by a mouth eighty yards wide, falls into the Ohio, 120 miles below the Rapids.

Cumberland River interlocks with the northern branch of Kentucky, and rolling round the other arms of Kentucky, among the mountains, in a ſouthern courſe, 100 miles—then in a ſouth-weſtern courſe for above 200 more—then in a ſouthern and ſouth-weſtern courſe for about 250 more, finds the Ohio, 413 miles below the Falls. At Naſhville, this river is 200 yards broad, and at its mouth 300. The river, in about half its courſe, paſſes through North Carolina.

Theſe rivers are navigable for boats almoſt to their ſources, without rapids, for the greateſt part of the year. The little rivulets which chequer the country, begin to leſſen in June, and quite diſappear in the months of Auguſt, September, and October. The autumnal rains, however, in November, repleniſh them again. The method of getting a ſupply of water in the dry ſeaſon is by ſinking wells, which are eaſily dug, and afford excellent water. The want of water in autumn, is the great complaint. Mills that may be ſupplied with water, eight months in a year, may be erected in a thouſand different places. Wind-mills and horſe-mills may ſupply the other four months. The banks of the rivers are generally high and com-

poſed

poſed of lime-ſtone. After heavy rains the water in the rivers riſes from ten to thirty feet.

There are five noted ſalt ſprings or licks in this country; viz. The higher and lower Blue Springs on Licking river, from ſome of which, it is ſaid, iſſue ſtreams of briniſh water—the Big Bone lick, Dernnon's lick's, and Bullet's lick, at Saltſburgh. The laſt of theſe licks, though in low order, has ſupplied this country and Cumberland with ſalt at twenty ſhillings the buſhel, Virginia currency; and ſome is exported to the Illinois country. The method of procuring water from theſe licks, is by ſinking wells from thirty to forty feet deep. The water drawn from theſe wells is more ſtrongly impregnated with ſalt than the water from the ſea. A ſtraight road, forty feet wide, has been cut from Saltſburgh to Louiſville, twenty-four miles.

As far as has yet been diſcovered, this whole country lies upon a bed of lime-ſtone, which in general lies about ſix feet below the ſurface, except in the vallies, where the ſoil is much thinner. A tract of about twenty miles wide, along the banks of the Ohio, is hilly, broken land, interſperſed with many fertile ſpots. The reſt of the country is agreeably uneven, gently aſcending and deſcending at no great diſtances. The angles of aſcent are from eight to twenty-four degrees, and ſometimes more. The vallies are, for the moſt part, very narrow, and the ſoil in them is very thin, and of an inferior quality: and that along the aſcending ground is frequently not much better; for where you ſee a tree blown up, you find the roots clinging to the upper parts of the rock. The ſoil, on theſe agreeable aſcents (for they cannot be called hills) is ſufficiently deep, as is evident from the ſize of the trees. The ſoil is either black or tinged with a lighter or deeper vermilion, or is of the colour of dark aſhes. In many places there are appearances of potters clay, and coal in abundance. The country promiſes to be well ſupplied with wholeſome, well-taſted water. In Nelſon county, north-weſt of Rolling-fork, a branch of Salt river, is a tract of about forty miles ſquare, moſtly barren, interſperſed with plains and ſtrips of good land, which are advantageous ſituations for raiſing cattle, as the neighbouring barrens are covered with graſs, and afford good paſturage. The lands eaſt of Nolin creek, a branch of Green river, are in general of an inferior quality; but the banks of Green river afford many deſirable ſituations.

Towards the head waters of Kentucky river, which interlock with the waters of Cumberland and Sandy Rivers, and the whole country eaſtward and ſouth-eaſtward, as far as the Holſtein river, is broken mountainous, and almoſt impenetrable; and from the deſcription, it is much doubted whether it will ever be practicable to make a paſſable road from Kentucky acroſs to Wincheſter, in Virginia, on the eaſt ſide of the mountains, which, on a ſtreight line, is not perhaps more than 400 miles and the way now travelled is 600.

No country will admit of being thicker ſettled with farmers, who confine themſelves to agriculture, than this. But large ſtocks of cattle, except in the neighbourhood of barrens, cannot be raiſed.

The river Elkhorn, a branch of the Kentucky, from the ſouth-eaſt, waters an exceeding fine country. Indeed, the country eaſt and ſouth of this, including the head waters of Licking river, Hickman's and Jeſſamine creeks, and the remarkable bend in Kentucky River, may be called an extenſive garden. The ſoil is deep and black, and the natural growth, large walnuts, honey and black locuſt, poplar, elm, oak, hickory, ſugar-tree, &c. Grape vines, running to the tops of the trees; and the ſurface covered with clover, blue glaſs, and wild rye. On this fertile tract, and on the Licking River, and the head waters of Salt River, are the bulk of the ſettlements in this country. The ſoil within a mile or two of Kentucky River is generally of the third and fourth rates; and as you advance towards the Ohio, the land is poor and hilly. Dick's river runs through a great body of firſt rate land, abounding with cane, and affords many excellent mill ſeats. Salt River has good lands on its head waters, except that they are low and unhealthy; but for twenty-five miles before it empties into the Ohio, the land on each ſide is level and poor, and abounds with ponds. Cumberland River, ſo much of it as paſſes through Kentucky, traverſes, ſome few parts excepted, a hilly poor country. Green River overflows it banks a conſiderable way up, at the ſeaſon when the Ohio ſwells, which is in April. This ſwell in Green River occaſions ſeveral of its large branches to overflow, and cover the low grounds with water, leaves, and vegetable ſubſtances, which in ſummer become noxious and unhealthy. Its banks are fine and fertile. There is a great body of good land near the falls or rapids in the Ohio, called Bare Graſs; but the climate is rendered unhealthy by ponds of ſtagnant water, which may be eaſily drained.

This country in general is well timbered. Of the natural growth which is peculiar to this country, we may reckon the ſugar, the coffee, the papaw, and the cucumber tree. The two laſt are a ſoft wood, and bear a fruit of the ſhape and ſize of a cucumber. The coffee tree reſembles the black oak, and bears a pod, which encloſes good coffee. Beſides theſe, there is the honey locuſt, black mulberry, wild cherry, of a large ſize, buck eye, an exceedingly ſoft wood—the magnolia, which bears a beautiful bloſſom of a rich and exquiſite fragrance. Such is the variety and beauty of the flowering ſhrubs and plants which grow ſpontaneouſly in this country, that in the proper ſeaſon the wilderneſs appears in bloſſom.

The accounts of the fertility of the ſoil in this country have, in ſome inſtances, exceeded belief; and probably have been exaggerated. That ſome parts of Kentucky, particularly the high grounds, are remarkably good, all accounts agree. The lands of the firſt rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce fifty and ſixty, and in ſome inſtances, it is affirmed, 100 buſhels of good corn, an acre. In common, the land will produce thirty buſhels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, cotton, flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds common in this climate, yield abundantly. The old Virginia planters ſay, that if the climate does not prove too moiſt, few ſoils known will yield more and better tobacco.

In the rivers are plenty of buffalo and catfiſh of uncommon ſize, ſalmon, mullet, rock, perch, garfiſh, eel, ſuckers, ſunfiſh, &c.—Trout, ſhad, and herrings have not been caught in the weſtern waters.

The land fowls are turkeys, which are very frequent, pheaſants, and partridges. The parroquet, is a bird every way reſembling a parrot, but much ſmaller. The ivory-bill woodcock, of a whitiſh colour, with a white plume, flies ſcreaming exceedingly ſharp. It is aſſerted, that the bill of this bird is pure ivory, a circumſtance very ſingular in the plumy tribe. The great owl reſembles its ſpecies in other parts, but is remarkably different in its vociferation, ſometimes making a ſtrange, ſurpriſing noiſe, like a man in the moſt extreme danger and difficulty.

There are few ſwamps in Kentucky; and of courſe the reptiles which they produce, ſuch as ſnakes, frogs, &c. are not numerous. The honey-bee may be called a domeſtic inſect, as it is not found but in civilized countries. This is confirmed by a ſaying which is ſaid to be common among the Indians, when they ſee a ſwarm of bees in the woods, "Well, brothers, it is time for us to decamp, for the white people are coming." The quadrupeds, except the buffalo, are the ſame as in Virginia and the Carolinas.

The climate is healthy and delightful, excepting ſome few places in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds. The inhabitants do not experience the extremes of heat and cold. Snow ſeldom falls deep, or lies long. The winter, which begins about Chriſtmas,

mas, is never longer than three months, and is commonly but two, and is ſo mild as that cattle can ſubſiſt without fodder.

Lexington, which ſtands on the head waters of Elkhorn river, is reckoned the capital of Kentucky. Here the courts are held, and buſineſs regularly conducted. In 1786, it contained about 100 houſes, and ſeveral ſtores, with a good aſſortment of dry goods. It muſt have greatly increaſed ſince.

Leeſtown is weſt of Lexington, on the eaſtern bank of Kentucky river. It is regularly laid out, and is flouriſhing. The banks of Kentucky river are remarkably high, in ſome places 3 and 400 feet, compoſed generally of ſtupendous perpendicular rock; the conſequence, is, there are few croſſing places. The beſt is at Leeſtown, which is a circumſtance that muſt contribute much to its increaſe.

Louiſville ſtands on the Kentucky ſide of the Ohio, oppoſite Clarkſville, at the Falls, in a fertile country, and promiſes to be a place of great trade. Its unhealthineſs, owing to ſtagnated waters back of the town, has conſiderably retarded its growth. Beſides theſe there is Bardſtown, in Nelſon county, and Harrodſberg, in Mercy county, both on the head waters of Salt River; Danville, Boonſborough, and Granville are alſo increaſing towns.

It is impoſſible to aſcertain with any degree of accuracy, the preſent number of inhabitants; owing to the numerous acceſſions which are made almoſt every month. In 1783, in the county of Lincoln only (now divided) there were, on the militia rolls, 3570 men, chiefly emigrants from the lower parts of Virginia. In 1784, the number of inhabitants were reckoned at upwards of 30,000. From the accounts of their aſtoniſhing increaſe ſince, we may now ſafely eſtimate them at 100,000. It is aſſerted that at leaſt 20,000 migrated here in the year 1787. Theſe people, collected from different ſtates, of different manners, cuſtoms, religions, and political ſentiments, have not been long enough together to form an uniform and diſtinguiſhing character. Among the ſettlers there are many gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families, from ſeveral of the ſtates, who give dignity and reſpectability to the ſettlement. They are, in general, more orderly, perhaps, than any people who have ſettled a new country.

The moſt numerous religious ſect in Kentucky are the Baptiſts. In 1787 they had ſixteen churches eſtabliſhed, beſides ſeveral congregations where churches were not conſtituted. Theſe were ſupplied with upwards of thirty miniſters or teachers. There are ſeveral large congregations of Preſbyterians, and ſome few of other denominations.

The government here is the ſame as in Virginia. But they expect to be admitted into the union as an independent ſtate, in a convenient time after the new government is put in operation. The inconveniences to which they are neceſſarily ſubjected, from their connection with Virginia, are great. Theſe the legiſlature of Virginia have conſidered; and, in the ſeſſion of 1786, paſſed an act, providing, on their part, for the erection of the diſtrict of Kentucky into an independent ſtate. In no part of the United Sates is juſtice adminiſtered with more propriety and diſpatch.

For promoting literature and improvements, the legiſlature of Virginia have made proviſion for a college in Kentucky, and have endowed it with very conſiderable landed funds. The Rev. John Todd has given a very handſome library for its uſe. Schools are eſtabliſhed in the ſeveral towns, and, in general, regularly and handſomely ſupported. They have a printing-office, and publiſh a weekly Gazette. They have erected a paper-mill, an oil-mill, fulling-mills, ſaw-mills, and a great number of valuable griſt mills. Their ſalt works are more than ſufficient to ſupply all the inhabitants, at a low price. They make conſiderable quantities of ſugar from the ſugar trees.

Caves have been diſcovered in this country, of ſeveral miles in length, under a fine lime-ſtone rock, ſupported by curious arches and pillars. Springs that emit ſulphurous matter have been found in ſeveral parts of the country. One is near a ſalt ſpring, in the neighbourhood of Boonſborough. There are three ſprings or ponds of bitumen near Green River, which do not form a ſtream, but empty themſelves into a common reſervoir, and when uſed in lamps, anſwer all the purpoſes of the beſt oil. Copperas and alum are among the minerals of Kentucky. Near Lexington are found curious ſepulchres full of human ſkeletons. We have been told that a man, in or near Lexington, having dug five or ſix feet below the ſurface of the ground, came to a large flat ſtone, under which was a well of common depth, regularly and artificially lined with ſtone.

Among the natural curioſities of this country, the winding banks, or rather precipices of Kentucky and Dick's Rivers, deſerve the firſt place. The aſtoniſhed eye there beholds almoſt every where three or four hundred feet of a ſolid perpendicular lime-ſtone rock; in ſome parts a fine white marble, either curiouſly arched, pillared, or blocked up into fine building ſtones. Theſe precipices are like the ſides of a deep trench, or canal; the land above being level, except where creeks ſet in, and crowned with fine groves of red cedar. It is only at particular places that theſe rivers can be croſſed, one of which is worthy of admiration; a great road, large enough for waggons, made by the buffalo, ſloping with an eaſy deſcent from the top to the bottom of a very large ſteep hill, at or near the river above Lees-Town.

HISTORY OF KENTUCKY.

THE firſt white man we have certain accounts of who diſcovered this province, was one James M'Bride, who in company with ſome others, in the year 1754, paſſing down the Ohio in canoes, landed at the mouth of Kentucky river, and there marked a tree with the firſt letters of his name, and the date, which remain to this day. Theſe men reconnoitred the country, and returned home with the pleaſing news of their diſcovery of the beſt tract of land in North America, and probably in the world. From this period it remained concealed till about the year 1767, when one John Finley and ſome others, trading with the Indians, fortunately travelled over the fertile region, now called Kentucky, then but known to the Indians by the name of the Dark and Bloody Grounds, and ſometimes the Middle Ground.

This country greatly engaged Mr. Finley's attention. Some time after diſputes ariſing between the Indians and traders, he was obliged to decamp; and returned to his place of reſidence in North Carolina, where he communicated his diſcovery to Col. Daniel Boon, and a few more, who, conceiving it to be an intereſting object, agreed in the year 1769 to undertake a journey in order to explore it. After a long fatiguing march, over a mountainous wilderneſs, in a weſtward direction, they at length arrived upon its borders; and from the top of an eminence, with joy and wonder, deſcried the beautiful landſcape of Kentucky. Here they encamped, and ſome went to hunt proviſions, which were readily procured, there being plenty of game, while Col. Boon and John Finley made a tour through the country, which they found far exceeding their expectations; and returning to camp, informed their companions of their diſcoveries. But in ſpite of this promiſing beginning, this company, meeting with nothing but hardſhips and adverſity, grew exceedingly diſheartened, and were plundered, diſperſed, and killed by the Indians, except Col. Boon, who continued an inhabitant of the wilderneſs until the year 1771, when he returned home.

Kentucky had, about this time, drawn the attention of ſeveral gentlemen. Doctor Walker, of Virginia, with a number more, made a tour weſtard for diſcoveries, endeavouring to find the Ohio river; and afterwards he and General Lewis, at Fort Stanwix, purchaſed from the five nations of Indians the lands lying on the north ſide of Kentucky. Col. Donaldſon, of Virginia, being employed by the ſtate to run a line from ſix miles above the Long Iſland, on Holſtein, to the mouth of the Great Kanhaway, and finding thereby that an extenſive tract of excellent country would be cut off to the Indians, was ſolicited, by the inhabitants of Clench and Holſtein, to purchaſe the lands lying on the north ſide of Kentucky river from the Five Nations. This purchaſe he completed for five hundred pounds, ſpecie. It was then agreed, to fix a boundary line, running from the Long Iſland on Holſtein to the head of Kentucky river; thence down the ſame to the mouth; thence up the Ohio to the mouth of Great Kanhaway; but this valuable purchaſe the ſtate refuſed to confirm.

Colonel Henderſon, of North Carolina, being informed of this country by Colonel Boon, he, and ſome other gentlemen, held a treaty with the Cherokee Indians at Wataga, in March 1775, and then purchaſed from them the lands lying on the ſouth ſide of Kentucky River for goods, at valuable rates, to the amount of 6000l. ſpecie.

Soon after this purchaſe, the ſtate of Virginia took the alarm, agreed to pay the money Colonel Donaldſon had contracted for, and then diſputed Colonel Henderſon's right of purchaſe, as a private gentleman of another ſtate, in behalf of himſelf: however, for his eminent ſervices to this country, and for having been inſtrumental in making ſo valuable an acquiſition to Virginia, that ſtate was pleaſed to reward him with a tract of land, at the mouth of Green River, to the amount of 200,000 acres; and the ſtate of North Carolina gave him the like quantity in Powel's Valley. This region was formerly claimed by various tribes of Indians; whoſe title, if they had any, originated in ſuch a manner, as to render it doubtful which ought to poſſeſs it: hence this fertile ſpot became an object of contention, a theatre of war, from which it was properly denominated the Bloody Grounds. Their contentions not being likely to decide the right to any particular tribe, as ſoon as Mr. Henderſon and his friends propoſed to purchaſe, the Indians agreed to ſell; but notwithſtanding the valuable conſideration they received, have continued ever ſince troubleſome neighbours to the new ſettlers.

In ſhort, the progreſs in improvements and cultivation which have been made in this country to the preſent time, almoſt exceeds belief.—Sixteen years ago Kentucky lay in foreſt, almoſt uninhabited but by wild beaſts. Now, notwithſtanding the united oppoſition of all the Weſtern Indians, ſhe exhibits an extenſive ſettlement, divided into ſeven large and populous counties, in which are a number of flouriſhing little towns, containing more inhabitants than are in Georgia, Delaware, or Rhode-Iſland ſtates, and nearly or quite as many as in New Hampſhire. Mr. Imlay, in his deſcription of this Weſtern Territory, ſays, he has known upwards of 10,000 emigrants to arrive in the ſingle ſtate of Kentucky within one year, and from 4 to 10,000 in ſeveral other years. An inſtance of the like kind, where a ſettlement has had ſo large and ſo rapid a growth, can ſcarcely be produced from the page of hiſtory.

Mr. Filſon concludes his account of Kentucky with the following obſervations on the happy circumſtances, that the inhabitants of Kentucky will probably enjoy, from the poſſeſſion of a country ſo extenſive and fertile.

"There are four natural qualities neceſſary to promote the happineſs of a country, viz. A good ſoil, air, water, and trade. Theſe taken collectively, excepting the latter, Kentucky poſſeſſes in a ſuperior degree: and, agreeable to our deſcription of the weſtern trade, we conclude, that it will be nearly equal to any other on the continent of America, and the diſadvantages it is ſubject to, be fully compenſated by the fertility of the ſoil.

"This fertile region, abounding with all the luxuries of nature, ſtored with all the principal materials for art and induſtry, inhabited by virtuous and ingenious citizens, muſt univerſally attract the attention of mankind, being ſituated in the central part of the extenſive American empire, where agriculture, induſtry, laws, arts, and ſciences, flouriſh; where afflicted humanity raiſes her drooping head; where ſprings a harveſt for the poor; where conſcience ceaſes to be a ſlave, and laws are no more than the ſecurity of happineſs; where nature makes reparation for having created man; and government, ſo long proſtituted to the moſt criminal purpoſes, eſtabliſhes an aſylum in the wilderneſs for the diſtreſſed of mankind.

"The recital of your happineſs will call to your country all the unfortunate of the earth, who, having experienced oppreſſion, political or religious, will there find a deliverance from their chains. To you innumerable multitudes will emigrate from the hateful regions of deſpotiſm and tyranny; and you will ſurely welcome them as friends, as brothers; you will welcome them to partake with you of your happineſs.—Let the memory of Lycurgus, the Spartan legiſlator, who baniſhed covetouſneſs, and the love of gold from his country; the excellent Locke, who firſt taught the doctrine of toleration; the venerable Penn, the firſt who founded a city of brethren; and Waſhington, the defender and protector of perſecuted liberty, be ever the illuſtrious examples of your political conduct. Avail yourſelves of the benefits of nature, and of the fruitful country you inhabit.

"Let the iron of your mines, the wool of your flocks, your flax and hemp, the ſkins of the ſavage animals that wander in your woods, be faſhioned into manufactures, and take an extraordinary value from your hands. Then will you rival the ſuperfluities of Europe, and know that happineſs may be found, without the commerce ſo univerſally deſired by mankind.

"In your country, like the land of promiſe, flowing with milk and honey, a land of brooks of water, of fountains and depths, that ſpring out of valleys and hills, a land of wheat and barley, and all kinds of fruits, you ſhall eat bread without ſcarceneſs, and not lack any thing in it; where you are neither chilled with the cold of Capricorn, nor ſcorched with the burning heat of Cancer; the mildneſs of your air ſo great, that you neither feel the effects of infectious fogs, nor peſtilential vapours. Thus your country, favoured with the ſmiles of heaven, will probably be inhabited by the firſt people the world ever knew."

CHAP. XIII.

NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA, WITH GEORGIA.

Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Rivers, Soil, Productions, Animals principal Towns, Inhabitants, and Government.

THESE countries are bounded, on the north, by Virginia; on the weſt, by the Miſſiſſippi; on the eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the ſouth, by the river St. John, which ſeparates Georgia from Florida. They are compoſed of three diviſions, the north, the middle, and the ſouth; in the following manner:

DIVISIONS.

Divisions.	Counties.	Towns.
In North Carolina are the counties of	Albemarle	Newburn.
	Bath, & Clarendon in part	Edenton.
		Wilmington.
In South Carolina, being the middle division, are the counties of	Clarendon in part.	St. James.
	Craven	Chriſt-Church.
	Berkeley.	
	Colleton	Charleſton.
	Granville	Port-Royal.
Georgia, being the ſouth diviſion, contains	Richmond	Savannah.
	Effingham.	
	Chatham.	
	Cambden.	
	Wilkes	Sunbury.
	Glynn	Frederica.
	Burke	Puriſburgh.
	Liberty.	

The climate of theſe countries is nearly alike, and agrees, in general, with that of Virginia. The air in the Carolinas and Georgia is, for the moſt part, clear, ſerene, and pleaſant. Sometimes violent rains fall both in winter and ſummer, attended by high winds; but theſe hurricanes ſeldom do any miſchief. The heat in ſummer is indeed very intenſe, but the winters are moderate, and extremely ſhort. Like that of Virginia, &c. the climate is ſubject to ſudden tranſitions from heat to cold; a north-weſt wind, even in ſummer, blows exceedingly ſharp, and the hotteſt day will often be ſucceeded by a very cold evening; againſt the effects of which, the inhabitants find it neceſſary to guard as much as poſſible. Many tender plants, which do not ſtand the winter of Virginia, flouriſh in Carolina.

The chief rivers are, the Albemarle, or Roanoke; Pentague, Pamticos Neus; Cape Fear, or Clarendon river; Pedee, Santee, Savannah, Alatamaha, or George river; and St. Mary's, which divides Georgia from Florida; all which riſe in the Apalachian mountains, and, running eaſt, fall into the Atlantic Ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yaſſous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and ſeveral others, which fall into the Gulf of Mexico, or the Miſſiſſippi.

The Atlantic Ocean is the only ſea bordering on this country, and is very ſhallow near the coaſt. The beſt harbours are thoſe of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle river, Pamtico, and Cape Fear. There are, in South Carolina, the harbours of Charleſton, Winyaw or George-Town, and Port-Royal. The mouths of the Savannah and Alatamaha form good harbours in Georgia. Cape Hattera, in 35 deg. north lat. Cape Fear to the ſouth of it, and Cape Carteret ſtill farther ſouth, are the moſt remarkable promontories.

The two Carolinas, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage of Virginia; but the ſoil of Georgia is not ſo good as that of the other provinces. The vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick in Carolina; for the ſoil, even when left to itſelf, yields flowers and flowering ſhrubs; and all the European plants arrive at a degree of perfection here, far exceeding what they attained in their native ſoil. The productions of the Carolinas are vines, ſome wheat, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, ſarſaparilla, tobacco, and indigo; olive, orange, lemon, citron, cypreſs, oak, walnut, caſſia, and pine trees, from which the inhabitants make great quantities of turpentine, tar, and pitch. There are alſo ſeveral trees that yield gums; one, from which diſtils an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds, and another that produces a balm ſuppoſed to be little inferior to that of Mecca. White mulberry-trees for feeding ſilk-worms flouriſh here exceedingly; ſo that with proper care and encouragement, ſilk, wine, and oil might be exported from hence: but the whole attention of the Carolinians ſeems turned to the culture of indigo and rice; and though cochineal is ſaid to be found there, they make no advantage of it. The trees in this and every other part of America grow to an amazing ſize, their trunks being often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb, and frequently upwards of 36 feet in circumference. The Indians and people of Charleſton hollow theſe into canoes, which ſerve to tranſport proviſions and other goods from place to place; ſome of them, conſiſting of one entire piece of timber, are ſo large, that they will carry from 30 to 40 barrels of pitch each: curious pleaſure-boats are likewiſe made of them. The whole country is in a manner one foreſt, where the planters have not cleared it, and the trees are almoſt the ſame in every reſpect with thoſe produced in Virginia. The land in Carolina is eaſily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the foreſts chiefly conſiſt of tall trees at a conſiderable diſtance from each other. Wheat grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious increaſe. It is a moſt fortunate circumſtance for this province, that the low and flooded part of its land is favourable to a ſpecies of the moſt valuable of all its products, namely, one of its kinds of indigo; and the low, rich, and ſwampy grounds bear their great ſtaple rice. Prodigious quantities of excellent honey are produced in the Carolinas, from which the inhabitants make a fine ſpirit, and mead equal to Malaga ſack; but they make very little wine, though they have plenty of grapes.

The animals here are nearly the ſame as thoſe in Virginia. The European black cattle have multiplied amazingly; it is no uncommon thing for one perſon to be owner of 300 cows, and many have upwards of 1000. Theſe are turned out in the morning, and range the foreſts for food; but their calves being ſeparated from them in fenced paſtures, the cows always return to them in the evening. The hogs and horſes are equally numerous. Many of the cattle would in all probability have been deſtroyed by the wolves, tygers, and panthers, which certainly range the foreſts in great numbers, were it not that the beaſts of prey here are leſs ravenous than thoſe of Africa and Aſia.

Charleſton, the capital of South Carolina, is the only town in either of theſe provinces that deſerves attention. It is ſituated at the confluence of the two navigable rivers Aſhley and Cowper, and for ſize, beauty, and traffic, is one of the firſt in North America. The harbour is an exceeding good one, being attended by no other inconvenience than that of a bar, which prevents veſſels of more than two hundred tons burden from entering it. The town is regularly built, and pretty ſtrongly fortified both by nature and art. The ſtreets, which are wide and ſtraight, interſect each other at right angles, and thoſe running eaſt and weſt extend about a mile from one river to the other. It contains about a thouſand houſes, ſome of which are of brick and others of wood, but all of them very handſome, and let at amazing high rents. The church is a ſpacious building, and executed in an elegant taſte: there are alſo ſeveral meeting-houſes belonging to different ſects of Diſſenters, ſome of which are extremely neat. Charleſton, being the reſidence of the governor, and the place where the aſſembly meets, is always lively and gay; ſeveral handſome equipages are kept there; and the planters and merchants are rich, well-bred, and both ſhewy and expenſive in their dreſs and manner of living.

The moſt effectual attempt to ſettle the province of Carolina was made in the year 1663, when ſeveral Engliſh noblemen, and others of great diſtinction, obtained a charter from the crown, inveſting them with the property and juriſdiction of that country. They parcelled out their lands to ſuch as were willing to go over to this ſettlement, and to ſubmit to a ſyſtem of laws drawn up by the celebrated Mr. Locke.

On the arrival of the colony in Carolina, they began their firſt ſettlement on a point of land near the ſouthern limits of their diſtrict, between two navigable rivers, where they laid the foundation of a city, called Charleſton, which was deſigned to be, what it now really is, the capital of the province. But in proceſs of time the diſputes between the church of England people and the Diſſenters cauſed a total confuſion in the colony, which was rendered ſtill more intolerable by the incurſions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their inſolence and injuſtice. In order to prevent the fatal effects of theſe inteſtine diviſions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was paſſed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted the ſum of 24,000l. for both the property and juriſdiction; but Earl Granville thought fit to retain his ſeventh ſhare. Carolina was, in 1728, divided into two diſtricts, and two ſeparate governments, and from that time peace was reſtored in the internal government, alſo with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, and trade began to flouriſh.

Edenton is the capital of North Carolina, but is little more than a trifling village: a town further ſouth, which would be more centrical, has been lately projected.

The exports of South Carolina to Great-Britain, of native commodities, on an average of three years, amounted to more than 395,000l. annual value; and its imports to 365,000l. The exports of North Carolina were computed at about 70,000l. and its imports 18,000l. The trade of Georgia being in its infancy, the exports amounted to little more than 74,000l. and the imports to 49,000l. The trade between Carolina and the Weſt-Indies was very large; their trade with the Indians was in a thriving condition; and they formerly carried Engliſh goods on pack-horſes 5 or 600 miles into the country weſt of Charleſton.

No thoughts were entertained of ſettling Georgia till the year 1732, when a ſcheme was formed for enabling poor and indigent families to ſettle in that province. A patent was accordingly obtained, large ſums were ſubſcribed, and a conſiderable number of ſettlers embarked for Georgia, under the care of Mr. Oglethorpe, who generouſly undertook the troubleſome taſk, without any reward, for the advancement of the ſettlement. But it ſoon appeared that the regulations, which had been drawn up with the greateſt care, were not adapted to advance the proſperity of the colony. The ſettlers complained, that they were on a worſe footing than any other colony in America. Some of their grievances were removed, but a ſufficient number remained to give the inhabitants a diſlike to the country; many of them fled, and diſperſed themſelves into the other ſettlements; ſo that of above 2000 people, who had tranſported themſelves from Europe, not more than five or ſix hundred were to be found in Georgia. The miſchief every day increaſed till 1752, when the government found it neceſſary to revoke the charter. The province now became the property of the crown, all the particular regulations were annulled, and Georgia was placed exactly on the ſame footing with Carolina. This interpoſition of the legiſlative power ſaved the colony from deſtruction. The ſettlement has, for a conſiderable time, been emerging out of the difficulties that attended its firſt eſtabliſhment; and it is not to be doubted but that, when the internal diviſions are entirely compoſed, the remaining errors in the government corrected, and the people ſufficiently multiplied, Georgia will become a rich and flouriſhing province.

Savannah and Auguſta are the principal towns in Georgia. Savannah, the capital, is ſituated ten miles up the river of the ſame name, where it forms a half moon, and where ſhips that draw ten or twelve feet water may ride for a mile in length within ten yards of the bank. From the quay may be ſeen the whole courſe of the river towards the ſea one way, and on the other for about ſixty miles up the country. This river is navigable for large boats, from the capital to Auguſta, which are two hundred miles diſtant from each other. Auguſta is ſituated in one of the moſt fertile parts of the province, and carries on a conſiderable trade with the Creek and Cherokee Indians. The late Rev. Mr. George Whitfield founded an orphan-houſe at Savannah, which was converted into a college for the education of young men, chiefly deſigned for the miniſtry; and, through his pious care and fervent zeal, that gentleman had the pleaſure of ſeeing this religious ſeminary in a flouriſhing condition before his death; but ſince that period, we are told it has been converted to a very different uſe.

By a late eſtimation, the number of inhabitants in North Carolina amounted to 200,000; thoſe in South Carolina to 170,000; and thoſe in Georgia to 25,000.

The legiſlature of North Carolina now conſiſts of two ſeparate bodies, namely, the ſenate and houſe of commons. The executive power is lodged in a governor and ſeven counſellors, annually choſen by and out of the general aſſembly, who alſo appoint the judges, field-officers, ſecretary, treaſurer, &c. The juſtices and ſheriffs are recommended by the people; and the delegates to congreſs are elected annually by ballot out of the general aſſembly. This form of government was ſettled in convention at Hallifax, Dec. 18, 1776.—The conſtitution eſtabliſhed for South Carolina, by the council and aſſembly in March 1778, veſts the legiſlative authority in the general aſſembly, conſiſting of the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives. The executive power is compoſed of a governor, lieutenant-governor, and eight privy-counſellors. The aſſembly is to nominate juſtices of the peace, ſheriffs, and other officers. By the conſtitution agreed to in Feb. 1777, for Georgia, the legiſlative, executive, and judiciary departments are to be diſtinct and ſeparate bodies; the legiſlative to conſiſt of repreſentatives elected by the freeholders in each county, annually, by ballot. Seventy-two repreſentatives conſtitute the houſe of aſſembly, out of whom are choſen, by ballot, the governor and executive council, and alſo the delegates to congreſs, annually. The reſpective bodies, and the ſeveral courts they depend on, appoint the ſubordinate officers.

The United States of America have lately ſtruck a halfpenny, on one ſide of which, encircled within a wreath of laurel, exceedingly well executed, are the letters US in a cypher, ſurrounded with an inſcription, LIBERTAS ET JUSTITIA, dated 1785. On the reverſe, in the centre, is a conſtellation, from which iſſue thirteen illuminated rays, and between each ray is a ſmall ſtar, expreſſive of the Thirteen United States; around theſe rays, and the ſtars, is the following inſcription, NOVA CONSTELLATIO.—The new American halfpenny is in weight as three to two of the Engliſh coin.

THE WESTERN TERRITORY.

ALL that part of the United States which lies north-weſt of the Ohio, is compriſed under this name. It is bounded, on the weſt, by the Miſſiſſippi river: on the north, by the Lakes; on the eaſt, by Pennſylvania; and on the ſouth-eaſt and ſouth, by the Ohio river: containing, according to Mr. Hutchins, 411,000 ſquare miles, equal to 263,040,000 acres—from which, if we deduct 43,040,000 acres for water, there will remain 220,000,000 of acres, belonging to the federal government, to be ſold for the diſcharge of the national debt; except a narrow ſtrip of land, bordering on the ſouth of Lake Eri, and ſtretching 120 miles weſt of the weſtern limit of Pennſylvania, which belongs to Connecticut.

Only a ſmall proportion of theſe lands is yet purchaſed of the natives, and to be diſpoſed of by Congreſs. Beginning on the meridian line, which forms the weſtern boundary of Pennſylvania, ſeven ranges of townſhips have been ſurveyed and laid off by order of Congreſs. As a north and ſouth line ſtrikes the Ohio in an oblique direction, the termination of the 7th range falls upon that river, 9 miles above the Muſkingum, which is the firſt large river that falls into the Ohio. It forms this junction 172 miles below Fort Pitt, including the windings of the Ohio, though in a direct line it is but 90 miles.

The lands in which the Indian title is extinguiſhed, and which are now purchaſing under the United States, are bounded by Pennſylvania on the eaſt, by the Great Miami on the weſt, by the Ohio on the ſouth, and extend nearly to the head waters of the Muſkingum and Sioto on the north. On theſe lands two ſettlements are commencing, one at Marietta, at the mouth of Muſkingum, under the direction of the Ohio company. This ſettlement conſiſts, at preſent, of about 220 ſouls, and is almoſt daily increaſing. The other between the Miami rivers, under the direction of Colonel Symmes, which, though very ſmall at preſent, is in proſpect of a rapid enlargement. There are ſeveral other tracts, which have been granted by Congreſs to particular companies, and other tracts for particular uſes, which remain without any Engliſh ſettlements.—It is, in general, a fine, fertile, and well-watered country.

CHAP. XIV.

VERMONT.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Counties, Towns, Rivers, Mountains, Soil and Produce, Climate, Militia, Population, Character, Curioſities. Conſtitution, firſt Diſcovery and Settlement, &c.

THIS independant ſtate is ſituated between 42 deg. 50 min. and 45 deg. of north latitude, and between 1 deg. 30 min. and 3 deg. of eaſt longitude. It is bounded, on the north, by Canada: on the eaſt, by Connecticut river, which divides it from New Hampſhire; on the ſouth, by Maſſachuſets; and on the weſt, by New York.

Vermont is divided into the ſeven following counties: Bennington, Rutland, Addiſon, Windham, Chittendon, Orange, and Windſor.

Theſe counties are ſubdivided into townſhips, which are generally ſix miles ſquare. In every townſhip is a reſerve of two rights of land, of 350 acres each; one to be appropriated for the ſupport of public ſchools, the other to be given in fee to the firſt miniſter who ſettles in the townſhip. A part of the townſhips were granted by the governor of New Hampſhire, and the other part by that of Vermont. In thoſe townſhips granted by the former, a right of land is reſerved for the ſupport of the goſpel in foreign parts; in thoſe granted by the latter, a college right, and a right for the ſupport of county grammar ſchools, are reſerved. In theſe reſervations, liberal proviſion is made for the ſupport of the goſpel, and for the promotion of common and collegiate education.

This ſtate, on the eaſt ſide of the mountain, is watered by the following rivers; viz. Paupanhooſak, Quechy, Welds, White, Black, and Weſt rivers, which run from weſt to eaſt into Connecticut river; and weſt of the mountains, by the river Lamoil, over which is a natural ſtone bridge, ſeven or eight rods in length, by Onion river and Otter Creek, which empty by one mouth into Lake Champlain, 20 or 30 miles ſouth of St. John's. Otter Creek is navigable for boats 50 miles. The lands adjacent are of an excellent quality, and are annually enriched by the overflowing of the water, occaſioned by the melting of the ſnow on the Green Mountains.

A chain of high mountains, running north and ſouth, divides this ſtate nearly in the centre between Connecticut river and Lake Champlain. The height of land is generally from 20 to 30 miles from the river, and about the ſame diſtance from the New York line. The natural growth upon this mountain is hemlock, pine, ſpruce, and other evergreens; hence it has always a green appearance, and on this account has obtained the deſcriptive name of *Ver Mons, Green Mountain*. On ſome high parts of this mountain, ſnow lies till May, and ſometimes till June.

The country is generally hilly, but not rocky. It is finely watered, and affords the beſt of paſturage for cattle. On the banks of the lakes, rivers, and rivulets, are many fine tracts of rich interval land. The heavy growth of timber, which is common throughout the ſtate, evince the ſtrength and fertility of the ſoil. Elm, black birch, maple, aſh, and baſs-wood, grow in the moiſt low ground; and the banks of the rivers are timbered principally with white pine, intermingled with vales of beech, elm, and white oak. The inhabitants cultivate wheat, 25 and 80 buſhels of which grow on an acre; rye, barley, oats, Indian corn, &c. The corn, however, is frequently cut off by the early froſts, eſpecially on the mountains and hills. That which grows on the banks of the rivers is not ſo frequently injured. Flax is raiſed in conſiderable quantities, and the ſoil is good for hemp. Potatoes, pumpkins, and garden roots and vegetables, grow here in great plenty. Large quantities of ſugar, of a good quality and flavour, are made from the ſugar maple.

With reſpect to the climate, no country in the world is more healthy. Snow begins to fall commonly in the beginning of November, and is generally gone by the middle of April. During this ſeaſon, the inhabitants generally enjoy a ſerene ſky, and a keen cold air. The ground is ſeldom frozen to any great depth, being covered with a great body of ſnow, before the ſevere froſts begin. In the ſpring, the ſnow, in common, is gradually diſſolved by the warm influences of the ſun. In this way the earth is enriched and moiſtened, and ſpring advances with ſurpriſing quickneſs.

There are upwards of 17,000 men upon the militia rolls of this ſtate. Theſe conſiſt of two diviſions, one on the weſt, the other on the eaſt ſide of the mountain. In theſe two diviſions are 7 brigades, which are made up of 21 regiments. From the number of militia, reckoning 5 for one, we may eſtimate the number of inhabitants in the ſtate at 85,000. Others, who reckon 6 for one, eſtimate them at 100,000. The bulk of the inhabitants are emigrants from Connecticut and Maſſachuſets, and their deſcendents. There is one ſettlement of Scotch people, which are almoſt the only foreigners in the ſtate. As to the character, the manners, the cuſtoms, the laws, the policy, and the religion of the people in Vermont, it is ſufficient to ſay they are New Englandmen.

In the townſhip of Tinmouth, on the ſide of a ſmall hill, is a very curious cave. The chaſm, at its entrance, is about four feet in circumference. Entering this you deſcend 104 feet, and then opens a ſpacious room 20 feet in breadth and 100 feet in length. The angle of deſcent is about 45 degrees. The roof of this cavern is of rock, through which the water is continually percolating. The ſtalactites which hang from the roof appear like icicles on the eves of houſes, and are continually increaſing in number and magnitude. The bottom and ſides are daily incruſting with ſpar and other mineral ſubſtances. On the ſides of this ſubterraneous hall, are tables, chairs,

chairs, benches, &c. which appear to have been artificially carved. This richly ornamented room, when illuminated with the candles of the guides, has an enchanting effect upon the eye of the ſpectator. If we might be indulged in aſſigning the general cauſe of theſe aſtoniſhing appearances, we ſhould conclude from the various circumſtances accompanying them, that they ariſe from water filtrating ſlowly through the incumbent STRATA; and taking up in its paſſage a variety of mineral ſubſtances, and becoming thus ſaturated with metallic particles, gradually exuding on the ſurface of the caverns and fiſſures, in a quieſcent ſtate, the aqueous particles evaporate, and leave the mineral ſubſtances to unite according to their affinities. At the end of this cave is a circular hole, 15 feet deep, apparently hewn out, in a conical form, enlarging gradually as you deſcend, in the form of a ſugar loaf. At the bottom is a ſpring of freſh water, in continual motion, like the boiling of a pot. Its depth has never been ſounded.

On the 25th of December 1777, the inhabitants of Vermont, by their repreſentatives in convention, at Windſor, declared that the territory called Vermont was, and of right ought to be a free and independent ſtate; and for the purpoſe of maintaining a regular government in the ſame, they made a ſolemn declaration of their rights, and ratified a conſtitution, of which the following is an abſtract.—This declaration, which makes part of their conſtitution, aſſerts, that all men are born equally free—with equal rights, and ought to enjoy liberty of conſcience—freedom of the preſs—trial by jury—power to form new ſtates in vacant countries, and to regulate their own internal police—that all elections ought to be free—that all power is originally in the people—that government ought to be inſtituted for the common benefit of the community—and that the community have a right to reform or aboliſh government—that every member of ſociety hath a right to protection of life, liberty, and property—and in return is bound to contribute his proportion of the expence of that protection, and yield his perſonal ſervice when neceſſary—that he ſhall not be obliged to give evidence againſt himſelf—that the people have a right to bear arms—but no ſtanding armies ſhall be maintained in time of peace—that the people have a right to hold themſelves, their houſes, papers, and poſſeſſions free from ſearch or ſeizure—and therefore warrants without oaths firſt made, affording ſufficient foundation for them, are contrary to that right, and ought not to be granted—that no perſon ſhall be liable to be tranſported out of this ſtate for trial for any offence committed within this ſtate, &c.

By the frame of government, the ſupreme legiſlative power is veſted in a houſe of repreſentatives of the freemen of the ſtate of Vermont, to be choſen annually by the freemen on the firſt Tueſday in September, and to meet the ſecond Thurſday of the ſucceeding October—this body is veſted with all the powers neceſſary for the legiſlature of a free ſtate—two thirds of the whole number of repreſentatives elected, make a quorum.——Each inhabited town throughout the ſtate has a right to ſend one repreſentative to the aſſembly.—The ſupreme executive power is veſted in a governor, lieutenant-governor, and twelve counſellors to be choſen annually in the ſame manner, and veſted with the ſame powers as in Connecticut.—Every perſon of the age of 21 years, who has reſided in the ſtate one whole year next before the election of repreſentatives, and is of a quiet, peaceable behaviour, and will bind himſelf by his oath, to do what he ſhall in conſcience judge to be moſt conducive to the beſt good of the ſtate, ſhall be entitled to all the pivileges of a freeman of this ſtate.—Each member of the houſe of repreſentatives, before he takes his ſeat, muſt declare his belief in one God—in future rewards and puniſhments, and in the divinity of the ſcriptures of the Old and New Teſtament, and muſt profeſs the proteſtant religion.

Courts of juſtice are to be eſtabliſhed in every county throughout the ſtate.—The ſupreme court, and the ſeveral courts of common pleas of this ſtate, beſides the powers uſually exerciſed by ſuch courts, have the powers of a court of chancery, ſo far as relates to perpetuating teſtimony, obtaining evidence from places not within the ſtate, and the care of the perſons and eſtates of thoſe who are *non compotes mentis*, &c. All proſecutions are to be commenced in the name, and by the authority of the freemen of the ſtate of Vermont. The legiſlature are to regulate entails, ſo as to prevent perpetuities.

All field and ſtaff officers, and commiſſioned officers of the army, and all general officers of the militia, ſhall be choſen by the general aſſembly, and be commiſſioned by the governor.

Every ſeventh year, beginning with the year 1785, thirteen perſons (none of whom are to be of the council or aſſembly) ſhall be choſen by the freemen, and be called "the council of cenſors," whoſe duty it ſhall be to inquire whether the conſtitution has been preſerved inviolate in every part—whether the legiſlative and executive powers have been properly exerciſed—taxes juſtly laid and collected—the public monies rightly diſpoſed of—and the laws duly executed.—For theſe purpoſes, they ſhall have power to ſend for perſons, papers, &c.—to paſs public cenſures—to order impeachments, and to recommend the repeal of all laws enacted contrary to the principles of the conſtitution. They are to be veſted with theſe powers for one year only, after the day of their election.

The council of cenſors, when neceſſary, may call a convention, to meet within two years after their ſitting—to alter the conſtitution—the propoſed alterations to be publiſhed at leaſt ſix months before the election of delegates to ſuch convention.

Bennington is the principal town in Vermont. It is ſituated in the ſouth-weſt corner of the ſtate, near the foot of the Green Mountain. Its public buildings are a church for Congregationaliſts, a court-houſe and gaol. It has a number of elegant houſes, and is a flouriſhing town. Near the centre of the town is Mount Anthony, which riſes very high in the form of a ſugar-loaf. The aſſembly commonly hold their ſeſſions at Windſor.

Origin, Riſe, and Name of this State, deſcribed.

IT was formed by emigrations from New Hampſhire and New York. The emigrants having ſettled on lands to the weſtward, neither claimed or cultivated by the people of the provinces before mentioned, ſoon grew numerous, and ſpread themſelves to a conſiderable extent. The inhabitants of thoſe provinces had long been jealous of the riſing greatneſs of the colony of Vermont, and deſirous of cruſhing it, but never could effect their deſign, while the colonies were under the juriſdiction of the mother country. When the late diſſenſions began, they repreſented the Vermonteſe to Congreſs as a diſaffected and encroaching people.

The Vermonteſe, on their part, profeſſed their attachment to the general American cauſe, and requeſted repreſentation in Congreſs, in common with the other ſtates. Congreſs, far from complying with the requeſt of the Vermonteſe, decided in favour of the colonies of New Hampſhire and New York, and contracted the boundaries of that of Vermont. In proceſs of time, however, Congreſs relaxed in their ſeverity, and tranſmitted a favourable propoſal to the Vermonteſe, which being acceded to, matters were adjuſted in April 1782.

ETHAN ALLEN, famous for the expedition he undertook againſt Ticonderago in 1775, without any other aid than that of a body of volunteers who followed

lowed his fortunes, made himſelf chief of this country. This enterpriſing genius formed there an aſſembly of repreſentatives. The inhabitants were known, for a conſiderable time, by the name of "Green Mountain Boys;" but thinking that an ignominious appellation, they frenchified Green Mountain which made Verd Mont, and, by corruption, Vermont. Hence the origin of the name of this ſtate.

Dr. Franklin has favoured us with the following accurate account of the internal ſtate of America:

"There is (ſays this judicious writer) a tradition, that in the planting of New England, the firſt ſettlers met with many difficulties and hardſhips, as is generally the caſe when a civilized people attempt eſtabliſhing themſelves in a wilderneſs country. Being piouſly diſpoſed, they ſought relief from heaven, by laying their wants and diſtreſſes before the Lord in frequent ſet days of faſting and prayer. Conſtant meditation and diſcourſe on theſe ſubjects kept their minds gloomy and diſcontented; and, like the children of Iſrael, there were many diſpoſed to return to that Egypt which perſecution had induced them to abandon. At length, when it was propoſed in the aſſembly to proclaim another faſt, a farmer of plain ſenſe roſe, and remarked, that the inconveniences they ſuffered, and concerning which they had ſo often wearied heaven with their complaints, were found not ſo great as they might have expected, and were diminiſhing every day as the colony ſtrengthened; that the earth began to reward their labour, and to furniſh liberally for their ſubſiſtence; that the ſeas and rivers were found full of fiſh, the air ſweet, the climate healthy; and, above all, that they were there in the full enjoyment of liberty, civil and religious: he therefore thought, that reflecting and converſing on theſe ſubjects would be more comfortable, as tending more to make them contented with their ſituation; and that it would be more becoming the gratitude they owed to the Divine Being, if, inſtead of a faſt, they ſhould proclaim a thankſgiving. His advice was taken; and from that day to this they have, in every year, obſerved circumſtances of public felicity ſufficient to furniſh employment for a thankſgiving-day, which is therefore conſtantly ordered and religiouſly obſerved.

"I ſee in the public news-papers of different ſtates frequent complaints of *hard times*, *deadneſs of trade*, *ſcarcity of money*, &c. &c. It is not my intention to aſſert or maintain that theſe complaints are entirely without foundation. There can be no country or nation exiſting, in which there will not be ſome people ſo circumſtanced as to find it hard to gain a livelihood; people who are not in the way of any profitable trade, and with whom money is ſcarce, becauſe they have nothing to give in exchange for it; and it is always in the power of a ſmall number to make a great clamour. But let us take a cool view of the general ſtate of our affairs, and perhaps the proſpect will appear leſs gloomy than has been imagined.

"The great buſineſs of the continent is agriculture. For one artiſan, or merchant, I ſuppoſe we have at leaſt 100 farmers, by far the greateſt part cultivators of their own fertile lands, from whence many of them draw not only food neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence, but the materials of their clothing, ſo as to need very few foreign ſupplies; while they have a ſurplus of productions to diſpoſe of, whereby wealth is gradually accumulated. Such has been the goodneſs of Divine Providence to theſe regions, and ſo favourable the climate, that ſince the three or four years of hardſhip in the firſt ſettlement of our fathers here, a famine or ſcarcity has never been heard of amongſt us; on the contrary, though ſome years may have been more, and others leſs plentiful, there has always been proviſion enough for ourſelves, and a quantity to ſpare for exportation. And although the crops of late years were generally good, never was the farmer better paid for the part he can ſpare commerce, as the publiſhed price currents abundantly teſtify. The lands he poſſeſſes are alſo continually riſing in value with the increaſe of population; and, on the whole, he is enabled to give ſuch good wages to thoſe who work for him, that all who are acquainted with the old world muſt agree, that in no part of it are the labouring poor ſo generally well fed, well clothed, well lodged, and well paid, as in ths United States of America.

"If we enter the cities, we find that, ſince the Revolution, the owners of houſes and lots of ground have had their intereſt vaſtly augmented in value; rents have riſen to an aſtoniſhing height, and thence encouragement to increaſe building, which gives employment to an abundance of workmen, as does alſo the increaſed luxury and ſplendor of living of the inhabitants thus made richer. Theſe workmen all demand and obtain much higher wages than any other part of the world would afford them, and are paid in ready money. This rank of people therefore do not, or ought not, to complain of hard times; and they make a very conſiderable part of the city inhabitants.

"At the diſtance I live from our American fiſheries, I cannot ſpeak of them with any degree of certainty; but I have not heard that the labour of the valuable race of men employed in them is worſe paid, or that they meet with leſs ſucceſs, than before the Revolution. The whalemen indeed have been deprived of one market for their oil; but another, I hear, is opening for them, which it is hoped may be equally advantageous; and the demand is conſtantly increaſing for their ſpermaceti candles, which therefore bear a much higher price than formerly.

"There remain the merchants and ſhopkeepers. Of theſe, though they make but a ſmall part of the whole nation, the number is conſiderable, too great indeed for the buſineſs they are employed in; for the conſumption of goods in every country has its limits; the faculties of the people, that is, their ability to buy and pay, is equal only to a certain quantitity of merchandize. If merchants calculate amiſs on this proportion, and import too much, they will of courſe find the ſale dull for the overplus, and ſome of them will ſay that trade languiſhes. They ſhould, and doubtleſs will, grow wiſer by experience, and import leſs. If too many artificers in town, and farmers from the country, flattering themſelves with the idea of leading eaſier lives, turn ſhopkeepers, the whole natural quantity of that buſineſs divided among them all, may afford too ſmall a ſhare for each, and occaſion complaints that trading is dead; theſe may alſo ſuppoſe that it is owing to ſcarcity of money, while, in fact, it is not ſo much from the fewneſs of buyers, as from the exceſſive number of ſellers, that the miſchief ariſes; and, if every ſhopkeeping farmer and mechanic would return to the uſe of his plough and working tools, there would remain of widows, and other women, ſhopkeepers ſufficient for the buſineſs, which might then afford them a comfortable maintenance.

"Whoever has travelled through the various parts of Europe, and obſerved how ſmall is the proportion of people in affluence or eaſy circumſtances there, compared with thoſe in poverty and miſery; the few rich and haughty landlords, the multitude of poor, abject, rack-rented, tythe-paying tenants, and half-paid and half-ſtarved ragged labourers; and views here the happy mediocrity that ſo generally prevails throughout theſe ſtates, where the cultivator works for himſelf, and ſupports his family in decent plenty; will, methinks, ſee abundant reaſon to bleſs Divine Providence for the evident and great difference in our favour, and be convinced that no nation known to us enjoys a greater ſhare of human felicity.

"It is true, that in ſome of the ſtates there are parties and diſcords; but let us look back, and aſk if we were ever without them? Such will exiſt wherever there is liberty; and perhaps they help to preſerve it. By the colliſion of different ſentiments, ſparks of truth are ſtruck out, and political light is obtained. The different factions, which at preſent divide us, aim all at the public good; the differences are only about the various modes of promoting it. Things, actions, meaſures, and objects of all kinds, preſent themſelves to the minds of men in ſuch a variety of lights, that it is not poſſible we ſhould all think alike at the ſame time on every ſubject, when hardly the ſame man retains at all times the ſame ideas of it. Parties are therefore the common lot of humanity; and ours are by no means more miſchievous or leſs beneficial than thoſe of other countries, nations, and ages, enjoying in the ſame degree the great bleſſing of political liberty.

"Some indeed among us are not ſo much grieved for the preſent ſtate of our affairs, as apprehenſive for the future. The growth of luxury alarms them, and they think we are from that alone in the high road to ruin. They obſerve, that no revenue is ſufficient without œconomy, and that the moſt plentiful income of a whole people from the natural productions of their country may be diſſipated in vain and needleſs expences, and poverty be introduced in the place of affluence.—This may be poſſible. It however rarely happens: for there ſeems to be in every nation a greater proportion of induſtry and frugality, which tend to enrich, than of idleneſs and prodigality, which occaſion poverty, ſo that upon the whole there is a continual accumulation. Reflect what Spain, Gaul, Germany, and Britain were in the time of the Romans, inhabited by people little richer than our ſavages, and conſider the wealth they at preſent poſſeſs, in numerous well-built cities, improved farms, rich moveables, magazines ſtocked with valuable manufactures, to ſay nothing of plate, jewels, and coined money; and all this, notwithſtanding their bad, waſteful, plundering governments, and their mad deſtructive wars; and yet luxury and extravagant living has never ſuffered much reſtraint in thoſe countries. Then conſider the great proportion of induſtrious frugal farmers inhabiting the interior parts of theſe American ſtates, and of whom the body of our nation conſiſts, and judge whether it is poſſible that the luxury of our ſea-ports can be ſufficient to ruin ſuch a country. If the importation of foreign luxuries could ruin a people, we ſhould probably have been ruined long ago: for the Britiſh nation claimed a right, and practiſed it, of importing among us, not only the ſuperfluities of their own production, but thoſe of every nation under heaven; we bought and conſumed them, and yet we flouriſhed and grew rich. At preſent our independent governments may do what we could not then do, diſcourage by heavy duties, or prevent by heavy prohibitions, ſuch importations, and thereby grow richer;—if, indeed, which may admit of diſpute, the deſire of adorning ourſelves with fine clothes, poſſeſſing fine furniture, with elegant houſes, &c. is not, by ſtrongly inciting to labour and induſtry, the occaſion of producing a greater value than is conſumed in the gratification of that deſire.

"The agriculture and fiſheries of the United States are the great ſources of our increaſing wealth. He that puts a ſeed into the earth is recompenſed, perhaps, by receiving forty out of it; and he who draws a fiſh out of our water, draws up a piece of ſilver. Let us (and there is no doubt but we ſhall) be attentive to theſe, and then the power of rivals, with all their reſtraining and prohibiting acts, cannot much hurt us. We are ſons of the earth and ſeas, and, like Antæus in the fable, if in wreſtling with a Hercules we now and then receive a fall, the touch of our parents will communicate to us freſh ſtrength and vigour to renew the conteſt."

Before we take leave of this continent, we ſhall preſent our readers with ſome obſervations on the peopling of America; and likewiſe an intereſting account of the cuſtoms and manners of the Indians, eaſtward of the Miſſiſſippi:

An accurate writer obſerves, that there are twenty-eight different nations of Indians eaſtward of the Miſſiſſippi; the principal of which are the Cherokees, the Chicaſaws, the Choctaws, the Creeks, the Delawares, the Six Nations, the Shawaneſe, the Hurons, the Illinois, &c. Allowing about 700 to a nation or tribe, they will contain, in all, 20,000 ſouls, and, conſequently, may furniſh between four and five thouſand warriors.

Many ſyſtems, no leſs idle than curious, have been formed to account for the population of this immenſe continent. There is ſcarce a people in the old world which has not had its advocates; and there have not been wanting ſome, who, deſpairing to looſen, have cut the knot, by ſuppoſing that the power which furniſhed America with plants, has, in the ſame manner, ſupplied it with men; or at leaſt, that a remnant in this continent was ſaved from the univerſal deluge, as well as in the other. As this ſubject is rather curious than uſeful, and, in its very nature, does not admit of certainty, every thing that paſſed in America before the arrival of the Europeans being plunged in Chimerian darkneſs, except thoſe little traditional records which diffuſe a glimmering light on the two empires of Mexico and Peru, for about two hundred years, at moſt, before that period, we ſhall only ſlightly touch on that ſubject; chiefly for the ſake of taking notice of ſome modern diſcoveries which ſeem to ſtrengthen the probability of ſome former theories.

The great ſimiliarity, or rather identity, of the perſons and manners of the Americans, and thoſe of the Tartars of the north eaſtern parts of Aſia, together with a preſumption, which has long poſſeſſed the learned, that Aſia and America were united, or at leaſt ſeparated only by a narrow ſea, has inclined the more reflecting part of mankind to the opinion, that the true origin of the Indians is from this quarter. The immenſe ſeas, which ſeparate the two continents on every other ſide, render it highly improbable that any colonies could ever have been ſent acroſs them before the diſcovery of the magnetical compaſs.

The ingenious M. Buffon has remarked, and the obſervation appears to be juſt, that there are no animals inhabiting in common the two continents, but ſuch as can bear the colds of the north. Thus there are no elephants, no lions, no tigers, no camels in America; but bears, wolves, deer, and elks in abundance, abſolutely the ſame in both hemiſpheres. This hypotheſis, which has been gaining ground ever ſince its firſt appearance in the world, is now reduced almoſt to a certainty by the diſcoveries of Captain Cook. That illuſtrious, but unfortunate navigator, in his his laſt voyage, penetrated for a conſiderable diſtance into the ſtreight which divides Aſia from America, which is only ſix leagues wide at its mouth; and therefore eaſily practicable for canoes.

We may now therefore conclude, that no further inquiry will be made into the general origin of the American tribes: yet, after all, it is far from being improbable that various nations, by ſhipwreck, or otherwiſe, may have contributed, in ſome degree, to the population of this continent. The Carthaginians, who had many ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, beyond the ſtreights of Gibraltar, and puſhed their diſcoveries as far as where the two continents in that quarter approach each other the neareſt, may probably have been thrown by tempeſts on the American coaſt, and the companies of the veſſels finding it impracticable to return, may have incorporated with the for-

mer inhabitants, or have formed new ſettlements, which, from want of the neceſſary inſtruments to exerciſe the arts they were acquainted with, would naturally degenerate into barbarity. There are, indeed, ſome ancient writers, who give us reaſon to ſuppoſe, that there were colonies regularly formed by that nation in America, and that the communication, after having continued for ſome time, was ſtopped by order of the ſtate. But it is difficult to conceive that any people, eſtabliſhed with all thoſe neceſſaries proper for their ſituation, ſhould ever degenerate, from ſo high a degree of cultivation as the Carthaginians poſſeſſed, to a total ignorance even of the moſt neceſſary arts: and therefore it ſeems probable, that if that nation ever had ſuch colonies, they muſt have been cut off by the natives, and every veſtige of them deſtroyed.

The Danes, about the ninth and tenth centuries, were the greateſt navigators in the univerſe. They diſcovered and ſettled Iceland; and from thence, in 964, planted a colony in Greenland. The ancient Icelandic chronicles, as reported by M. Mallet, contain an account of ſome Icelanders, who, in the cloſe of an unſucceſsful war, fled to Greenland, and from thence weſtward, to a country covered with vines, which from thence they called Vinland. The adventurers returned home, and conducted a colony to their new diſcovery; but diſturbances ariſing in Denmark, all communication with Greenland, as well as Vinland, ceaſed; and thoſe countries remained unknown to the reſt of the world for ſeveral ages. The remains of this colony are probably to be found on the coaſt of Labrador, in the nation of the Eſquimaux. The colour of their ſkins, their hairy bodies, and buſhy beards, not to mention the difference of manners, mark an origin totally diſtinct from that of the other Indians.

About the year 1170, Madoc, ſon of Owen Gwynnedh, prince of Wales, diſſatisfied with the ſituation of affairs at home, left his country, as related by the Welſh hiſtorians in queſt of new ſettlements, and, leaving Ireland to the north, proceeded weſt till he diſcovered a fertile country; where, leaving a colony, he returned, and perſuading many of his countrymen to join him, put to ſea with ten ſhips, and was never more heard of. This account has indeed at ſeveral times drawn the attention of the world; but as no veſtiges of them had then been found, it was concluded, perhaps too raſhly, to be a fable, or at leaſt, that no remains of the colony exiſted. Of late years, however, the weſtern ſettlers have received frequent accounts of a nation, inhabiting at a great diſtance up the Miſſouri, in manners and appearance reſembling the other Indians, but ſpeaking Welſh, and retaining ſome ceremonies of the Chriſtian worſhip; and, at length, this is univerſally believed there to be a fact.

In Kentucky there are ſeveral ancient remains, which ſeem to prove, that this country was formerly inhabited by a nation further advanced in the arts of life than the Indians. Theſe are there uſually attributed to the Welſh, who are ſuppoſed to have formerly inhabited here; but having been expelled by the natives, were forced to take refuge near the ſources of the Miſſouri. It is well known, that no Indian nation has ever practiſed the method of defending themſelves by entrenchments; and ſuch a work would be no eaſy one, while theſe nations were unacquainted with the uſe of iron.

Near Lexington, the remains of two ancient fortifications are to be ſeen, furniſhed with ditches and baſtions. One of theſe contains about ſix acres of land, and the other nearly three. They are now overgrown with trees, which, by the number of circles in the wood, appear to be not leſs than one hundred and ſixty years old. Pieces of earthen veſſels have alſo been plowed up near Lexington, a manufacture with which the Indians were never acquainted.

The ſepulchres already mentioned, form another ſtrong argument that this country was formerly inhabited by a people different from the preſent Indians. Although they do not diſcover any marks of extraordinary art in their ſtructure, yet, as many nations are particularly tenacious of their ancient cuſtoms, it may perhaps be worthy of inquiry, whether theſe repoſitories of the dead do not bear a conſiderable reſemblance to the ancient Britiſh remains. Some buildings, attributed to the Picts, are mentioned by the Scottiſh antiquaries, which, if the author miſtakes not, are formed nearly in the ſame manner. Let it be enough for him to point out the road, and hazard ſome uncertain conjectures. They day is not far diſtant, when the furtheſt receſſes of this continent will be explored, and the accounts of the Welſh eſtabliſhed beyond the poſſibility of a doubt, or conſigned to that oblivion which has already received ſo many ſuppoſitions founded on arguments as plauſible as theſe.

It is well known that the Indians are not born white; and that they take a great deal of pains to darken their complexion, by anointing themſelves with greaſe, and lying in the ſun. They alſo paint their faces, breaſts, and ſhoulders, of various colours, but generally red; and their features are well formed, eſpecially thoſe of the women. They are of a middle ſtature, their limbs clean and ſtraight, and ſcarcely any crooked or deformed perſon is to be found among them. In many parts of their bodies they prick in gun-powder in very pretty figures. They ſhave, or pluck the hair off their heads, except a patch about the crown, which is ornamented with beautiful feathers, beads, wampum, and ſuch like baubles. Their ears are pared, and ſtretched in a thong down to their ſhoulders, They are wound round with wire to expand them, and adorned with ſilver pendants, rings, and bells, which they likewiſe wear in their noſes. Some of them will have a large feather through the cartilage of the noſe; and thoſe who can afford it, wear a collar of wampum, a ſilver breaſt-plate, and bracelets on the arms and wriſts. A bit of cloth about the middle, a ſhirt of the Engliſh make, on which they beſtow innumerable broaches to adorn it, a ſort of cloth boots and mockaſons, which are ſhoes of a make peculiar to the Indians, ornamented with porcupine quills, with a blanket or match-coat thrown over all, completes their dreſs at home; but when they go to war, they leave their trinkets behind, and mere neceſſaries ſerve them. There is little difference between the dreſs of the men and women, excepting that a ſhort petticoat, and the hair, which is exceeding black, and long, clubbed behind, diſtinguiſh ſome of the latter. Except the head and eye-brows, they pluck the hair, with great diligence. from all parts of the body, eſpecially the looſer part of the ſex.

Their weapons of war are guns, bows and arrows, darts, ſcalping-knives, and tomahawks. This latter is one of their moſt uſeful pieces of field-furniture, ſerving all the offices of the hatchet, pike, and ſword. They are exceeding expert in throwing it, and will kill at a conſiderable diſtance. The world has no better marks-men, with any weapon. They will kill birds flying, fiſhes ſwimming, and wild beaſts running.

The North American Indians are not ſo ignorant as ſome ſuppoſe them, but are a very underſtanding people, quick of apprehenſion, ſudden in execution, ſubtle in buſineſs, exquiſite in invention, and induſtrious in action. They are of a very gentle and amiable diſpoſition to thoſe they think their friends, but as implacable in their enmity; their revenge being only completed in the entire deſtruction of their enemies. They are very hardy, bearing heat, cold, hunger, and thirſt, in a ſurpriſing manner, and yet no people are more addicted to exceſs in eating and drinking

drinking, when it is conveniently in their power. The follies, nay miſchief, they commit when inebriated, are entirely laid to the liquor; and no one will revenge any injury (murder excepted) received from one who is no more himſelf.

Among the Indians all men are equal, perſonal qualities being moſt eſteemed. No diſtinction of birth, no rank, renders any man capable of doing prejudice to the rights of private perſons; and there is no pre-eminence from merit, which begets pride, and which makes others too ſenſible of their own inferiority. Though there is perhaps leſs delicacy of ſentiment in the Indians than among us; there is, however, abundantly more probity, with infinitely leſs ceremony, or equivocal compliments. Their public conferences ſhew them to be men of genius; and they have, in a high degree, the talent of natural eloquence.

They generally live diſperſed in ſmall villages, either in the woods, or on the banks of rivers, where they have little plantations of Indian corn, and roots, not enough to ſupply their families half the year, and ſubſiſting the remainder of it by hunting, fiſhing and fowling, and the fruits of the earth, which grow ſpontaneouſly in great plenty. Their huts are generally built of ſmall logs, and covered with bark, each one having a chimney, and a door, on which they place a padlock. Old Chelicothe is built in form of a Kentucky ſtation, that is, a parallelogram, or long ſquare; and ſome of their houſes are ſhingled. A long council-houſe extends the whole length of the town, where the king and chiefs of the nation frequently meet, and conſult of all matters of importance, whether of a civil or military nature. Some Indian huts are built by ſetting up a frame on forks, and placing bark againſt it; others of reeds, and ſurrounded with clay. The fire is in the middle of the wigwam, and the ſmoke paſſes through a little hole. They join reeds together by cords run through them, which ſerve them for tables and beds. They moſtly lie upon ſkins of wild beaſts, and ſit on the ground. They have braſs kettles and pots to boil their food; gourds or calabaſhes, cut aſunder, ſerve them for pails, cups, and diſhes.

Travellers give various accounts concerning their religion; and although it cannot be abſolutely affirmed that they have none, yet it muſt be confeſſed very difficult to define what it is. All agree that they acknowledge one Supreme God, but do not adore him. They have not ſeen him, they do not know him, believing him to be too far exalted above them, and too happy in himſelf to be concerned about the trifling affairs of poor mortals. They ſeem alſo to believe in a future ſtate, and that after death they ſhall be removed to their friends, who have gone before them, to an elyſium, or paradiſe.

Near Detroit, the Wyandotts, and ſome others, have the Roman Catholic religion introduced among them by miſſionaries. Theſe have a church, a miniſter, and a regular burying-ground. Many of them appear zealous, and ſay prayers in their families. Theſe, by acquaintance with white people, are a little civilized, which muſt of neceſſity precede Chriſtianity. The Shawaneſe, Cherokees, Chickaſaws, and ſome others, are little concerned about ſuperſtition, or religion. Others continue their former ſuperſtitious worſhip of the objects of their love and fear, and eſpecially thoſe beings who they moſt dread, and whom therefore we generally denominate devils; though, at the ſame time, it is allowed they pray to the ſun, and other inferior benevolent deities, for ſucceſs in their undertakings, for plenty of food, and other neceſſaries in life.

The Indians have their feſtivals, and other rejoicing-days, on which they ſing and dance in a ring, taking hands, having ſo painted and diſguiſed themſelves, that it is difficult to know any of them; and, after enjoying this diverſion for a while, they retire to the place where they have prepared a feaſt of fiſh, fleſh, fowls, and fruits; to which all are invited, and entertained with their country ſongs. They believe that there is great virtue in feaſts for the ſick. For this purpoſe a young buck muſt be killed, and boiled; the friends and near neighbours of the patient invited, and having firſt thrown tobacco on the fire, and covered it up cloſe, they all ſit down in a ring, and raiſe a lamentable cry. They then uncover the fire, and kindle it up; and the head of the buck is firſt ſent about, every one taking a bit, and giving a loud croak, in imitation of crows. They afterward proceed to eat all the buck, making a moſt harmonious, melancholy ſong; in which ſtrain their muſic is particularly excellent. As they approach their towns, when ſome of their people are loſt in war, they make great lamentations for their dead, and bear them long after in remembrance.

Some of theſe nations abhor adultery, do not approve of a plurality of wives, and are not guilty of theft, but there are other tribes that are not ſo ſcrupulous in theſe matters. Among the Chickaſaws a huſband may cut off the noſe of his wife, if guilty of adultery; but men are allowed greater liberty. This nation deſpiſes a thief. Among the Cherokees they cut off the noſe and ears of an adultereſs; afterward her huſband gives her a diſcharge; and from this time ſhe is not permitted to refuſe any one who preſents himſelf. Fornication is unnoticed; for they allow perſons in a ſingle ſtate unbounded freedom.

With reſpect to marriage, their form is ſhort—the man, before witneſſes, gives the bride a deer's foot, and ſhe, in return, preſents him with an ear of corn, as emblems of their ſeveral duties. The women are very ſlaves to the men; which is a common caſe in rude, unpoliſhed nations, throughout the world. They are charged with being revengeful; but this revenge is only doing themſelves juſtice on thoſe who injure them, and is ſeldom executed but in caſes of murder and adultery.

No power is lodged in their king to put any one to death by his own authority; but the murderer is generally delivered up to the friends of the deceaſed, to do as they pleaſe. When one kills another, his friend kills him, and ſo they continue until much blood is ſhed; and at laſt the quarrel is ended by mutual preſents. Their kings are hereditary, but their authority extremely limited. No people are a more ſtriking evidence of the miſeries of mankind in the want of government than they. Every chief, when offended, breaks off with a party, ſettles at ſome diſtance, and then commences hoſtilities againſt his own people. They are generally at war with each other. Theſe are common circumſtances among the Indians.

To their captives taken in war, they are exceedingly cruel, treating the unhappy priſoners in ſuch a manner, that death would be preferable to life. They afterwards give them plenty of food, load them with burdens, and when they arrive at their towns, they muſt run the gauntlet. In this, the ſavages exerciſe ſo much cruelty, that one would think it impoſſible they ſhould ſurvive their ſufferings. Many are killed; but if one outlives this trial, he is adopted into a family as a ſon, and treated with paternal kindneſs; and if he avoids their ſuſpicions of going away, is allowed the ſame privileges as their own people enjoy.

CHAP.

CHAP. XV.

WEST-INDIES.

Particular Deſcription of the Weſt-India Iſlands.

IN our general account of America, we took notice, that in the large gulf between the two continents, are a great number of iſlands, called the Weſt-Indies: thoſe among them which are worth cultivation, belong to the following European nations, namely, Great-Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark.

The climate is nearly alike in all the Weſt-India iſlands, except what ariſes from the various ſituations and qualities of the lands themſelves. They all lie within the tropics, conſequently the ſun is vertical twice in the year, and is never at a great diſtance; ſo that they are ſubject to a degree of heat, which would be intolerable, did not the trade wind, which increaſes gradually as the ſun approaches the meridian, blow in upon them from the ſea, and refreſh the air, ſo as to enable the inhabitants to attend their labour when the ſun is over their heads. Nor is the night deſtitute of a cooling breeze; for as ſoon as day-light begins to diſappear, a refreſhing gale blows ſmartly from the land towards the ſea: it ſeems to iſſue from the middle of each iſland as from a centre, and blows directly from the land in every part of it. Such alſo is the wiſdom of Providence in this particular, that when the ſun is far advanced towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes almoſt vertical, he draws after him ſuch a vaſt body of clouds, that they intercept his direct rays, and, diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, parched with a long drought which frequently continues from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

An European, who has ſeen no other part of the world, can form very little idea of what are called rains in the Weſt-Indies. The moſt violent that fall in our northern climates are little more than dews, when compared to thoſe of the torrid zone. They are rather floods of water poured from the clouds with an amazing impetuoſity. In a moment the rivers ſwell above their banks, new ones are formed, and all the low country preſently exhibits the appearance of a deluge. The ancients imagined that the lands in the burning zone were ſcorched up with one continued fervent heat, and therefore the whole country uninhabitable: but their opinion was ſo far from being true, that the greateſt rivers in the world have their ſource in the torrid zone; and the greateſt inconveniencies many places in that climate ſuffer, ariſe from the moiſture of the air.

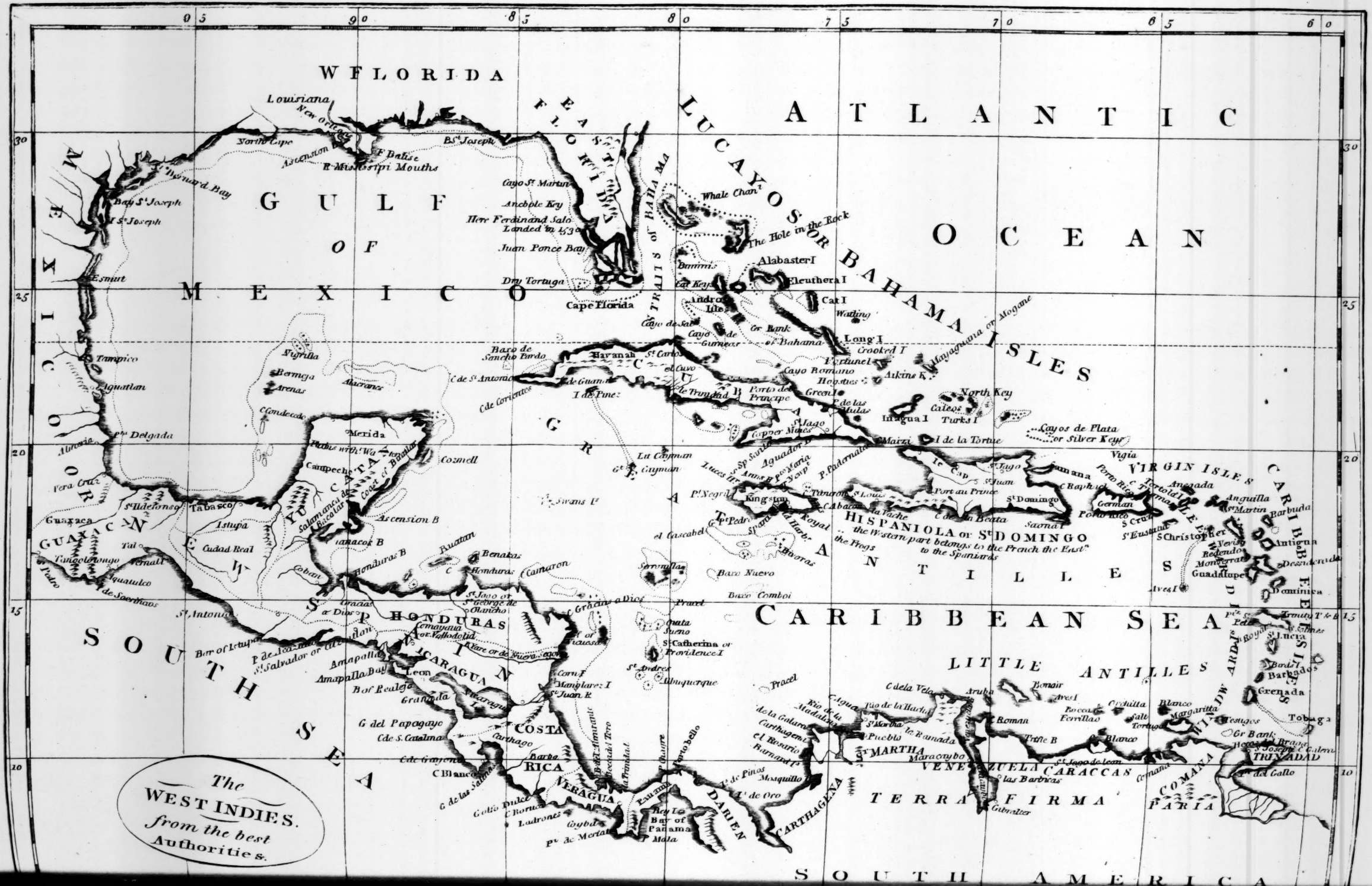
The ſeaſons in the Weſt-Indies have no other diſtinction than the rains; the trees are always clothed with leaves: froſts and ſnows are unknown, and even hail extremely rare. Indeed, when ſtorms of hail happen, they are dreadfully violent, and the hailſtones prodigiouſly large. But the conſequences of theſe ſtorms are nothing when compared to the hurricanes to which this part of the world is very ſubject. Theſe generally happen in the rainy ſeaſon, and are often dreadful beyond conception. The elements ſeem to have united for the deſtruction of the world. The labours of many years are deſtroyed in a moment, and all the hopes of the planter, even when he thinks himſelf almoſt beyond the reach of danger, wreſted from his hand. This dreadful ſcourge of heaven is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with the ſwelling of the ſea, and ſometimes an earthquake; in ſhort, with every terrible and deſtructive circumſtance the elements can aſſemble. The firſt objects of the approaching devaſtation that generally ſtrike the eyes of the planter, are whole fields of ſugar-canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the whole face of the country. The ſtouteſt and firmeſt rooted trees of the foreſt are torn up and whirled about like ſtubble; the windmills are ſwept away in a moment; even the works of the planter, the copper boilers, and ſtills of many hundred weight, which ſeem to bid defiance to the ſtorm, are hurried and battered to pieces: the houſes are no protection, the firſt blaſt tears away the roof; while the rain, which in leſs than an hour riſes near five feet, ruſhes in upon the wretched inhabitants with a force altogether irreſiſtible.

The Indians, who inhabited theſe iſlands many ages before they were diſcovered by Columbus, have taught the Europeans to know the ſigns that indicate an approaching hurricane, which always happens either at the quarters, or at the full and change of the moon. Theſe ſigns appear about a fortnight before the hurricane. Thus, if at the change of the moon the ſky appears very turbulent; the ſun redder than at other times; a dead calm ſucceeds, inſtead of the uſual breezes; the hills are clear of thoſe clouds and miſts which uſually hover about them: if a hollow rumbling ſound, like the ruſhing of a violent wind, is heard in the wells and clefts of the earth; the ſtars at night appear larger than uſual, and ſurrounded with a ſort of burs; the ſky in the north-weſt has a black and menacing appearance; the ſea emits a ſtrong ſmell, and riſes into vaſt waves, often without any wind; the wind itſelf forſakes its ſteady ſtream from the eaſt, and ſhifts to the weſt, blowing violently and irregularly at intermiſſions: theſe ſigns predict that a hurricane will happen at the ſucceeding full. Nearly the ſame ſigns happen at the full, before a hurricane comes on at the change; and by theſe indications the planters often ſecure ſome of their effects, together with the lives of themſelves, and thoſe of their families.

Sugar is the grand ſtaple commodity of the Weſt-Indies; this uſeful article was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, and from that country the firſt knowledge of it was obtained by the Europeans. The Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated the ſugar-cane, and brought it into requeſt: their firſt plantations were in the Madeira iſlands, but afterwards removed to Braſil. They for ſome time ſupplied all the markets of Europe; and though much greater quantites are now made by the Engliſh and French, yet the Portugueſe ſugar is ſtill eſteemed the beſt in Europe. The juice within the ſugar-cane is the moſt lively, elegant, and leaſt cloying ſweet in nature; and, when ſucked raw, has proved extremely wholeſome and nutritive.

Rum is diſtilled from the molaſſes, and from the ſcummings of the ſugar a meaner ſpirit is procured. Great quantities of rum are carried to North America for ſale, where it is conſumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or diſtributed from thence to the Newfoundland fiſhery, or other parts; beſides what Great-Britain and Ireland import. A great quantity of molaſſes is taken off raw, and carried to New England, where it is diſtilled. No part of the ſugar-cane is without its uſe: the tops, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle; and the refuſe of the cane, after grinding, ſerves for fuel.

It has been computed, that the rum and molaſſes, when all the proceſſes are rightly managed, pay the charges of the plantation, and that the ſugars are clear gain to the planters: but by the moſt credible accounts it appears, that the expences of a plantation in the Weſt-Indies are very great, and the profits at the firſt view precarious; for the chargeable articles of the windmill, the boiling, cooling, and diſtilling houſes, together with the buying and maintaining a proper number of ſlaves and cattle, beſides the purchaſe of the land, will not permit a perſon to begin a ſugar plantation of any conſequence, under a capital of at leaſt 5000l. Moreover, the life of a planter, who wiſhes to acquire a fortune, is far from being a life


W FLORIDA
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
GULF
OF
MEXICO
EAST FLORIDA
STRAITS of BAHAMA
LUCAYOS or BAHAMA ISLES
Louisiana
New Orleans
North Cape
Ascension
Ft Balise
R. Mississipi Mouths
Bs. Joseph
Bay St. Joseph
I. St. Joseph
Bernard Bay
Esmit
Cayo St. Martin
Anchole Key
Here Ferdinand Soto Landed in 1539
Juan Ponce Bay
Dry Tortuga
Cape Florida
Whale Chan.
The Hole in the Rock
Alabaster I.
Eleuthera I.
Cat I.
Watling
Long I.
Crooked I.
Mayaguana or Mogane
Inagua I.
Turks I.
North Key
Caicos
Cayos de Plata or Silver Keys
Vigia
VIRGIN ISLES
CARIBBEE ISLES
Anegada
Anguilla
St. Martin
Barbuda
Antigua
Montserrat
Guadaloupe
Dominica
Martinique
St. Lucia
Barbadoes
Grenada
Tobago
Bonair
Aruba
Roman
Orchilla
Blanco
Margarita
Testigos
Tortuga
Cubagua
Gr Bank
Trinidad
THE WESTERN part belongs to the French the EAST to the Spaniards
HISPANIOLA or St. DOMINGO
Tampico
Tiguatlan
Pt. Delgada
Vera Cruz
Merida
Campeche
Cozumel
Tabasco
Guaxaca
Tehuantepec
Tonalá
Ascension B.
Honduras B.
Benakas
Honduras
Cainaron
Triangulos
Pt. de Sacrificios
St. Antonio
Bar of Istapa
Pt. de Istapa
St. Salvador or Guatimala
HONDURAS
NICARAGUA
COSTA RICA
VERAGUA
Amapalla
Amapalla Bay
Leon
Granada
Nicaragua
G. del Papagayo
Cde S. Catalina
Carthago
Cde Gracias a Dios
C. Blanco
G. de las Salinas
Golfo Dulce
C. Gracias a Dios
Laguna de Chiriqui
Bay of Panama
Mda
Pt. de Mariato
Porto Bello
Chagre
Rio Lagartos
Pt. de Pinos
Mosquito
Pt. de Oro
DARIEN
CARTHAGENA
Gibraltar
Rio de la Madalena
Cartagena
Rio de la Hacha
Maracaybo
Pueblo de la Granada
St. Martha
VENEZUELA CARACCAS
TERRA FIRMA
PARIA
Gulf of Triste
St. Josef de Leon
Las Barbicas
TRINIDAD
Gr Bank
Hogsties
Cayo Romano
Atkins K.
Caycos
Mariguana
I de la Tortue
Le Cap
Port au Prince
St. Domingo
Jamaica
Kingston
Pt. Negril
Swans I.
Cayman
Lagartos
Aguada
Sp. Santo
Luces I.
Amatique B.
Pt. Padernales
Tiburon
St. Louis
Cabaza
La Vache
Pt. Pedro
Cape Tiburon
Royal Harbour
Bayas
Sarmana
Pt. Guaba
Pt. Raphael
Pt. Cabron
Pt. Roxana
Pt. Macoris
Pt. German
Pt. Salinas
St. Eustatia
St. Christopher
Nevis
Redondo
Montserrat
Guadaloupe
Alves I.
Desiderada
Dominica
Martinique
St. Lucia
Barbadoes
Grenada
Tobago
Bonair
Aruba
Curaçoa
Orchilla
Blanco
Margarita
Testigos
Tortuga
Cubagua
Gr Bank
Trinidad

of idleneſs and luxury; he muſt always keep a watchful eye upon his overſeers, and muſt himſelf overſee occaſionally. And at the boiling ſeaſon, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health, from a conſtant attendance day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate, and ſo many fierce furnaces; add to this, the loſſes by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad ſeaſons; and then conſider when the ſugars are in the caſks, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ſhips his produce at his own riſk. Theſe conſiderations might make one believe that it could never anſwer to engage in this buſineſs; but notwithſtanding all this, there are no parts in the world, in which great eſtates are made in ſo ſhort a time, from the produce of the earth, as in the Weſt-Indies. The produce of a few good ſeaſons generally provide againſt the ill effects of the worſt, as the planter is ſure of a ſpeedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier ſale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overſeer, who has commonly a ſalary of 150l. a year, with overſeers under him in proportion to the greatneſs of the plantation, one to about thirty negroes, and at the rate of about 40l. Such plantations too have a ſurgeon at a fixed ſalary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the courſe which is the leaſt troubleſome to the owner of the eſtate is, to let the lands with all the works, and the ſtock of cattle and ſlaves, to a tenant, who gives ſecurity for the payment of the rent, and the keeping up repairs and ſtock. The eſtate is generally eſtimated to ſuch a tenant at half the neat produce of the beſt years; ſuch tenants, if induſtrious and frugal men, ſoon make good eſtates for themſelves.

The negroes in the plantations are kept at a very eaſy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a ſmall portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: ſome are kept in this manner, but others find their negroes with a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to ſome a ſalt herring, or a ſmall portion of bacon or ſalt pork a day. All the reſt of the charge conſiſts in a cap, a ſhirt, a pair of breeches, ſtockings, and ſhoes; the whole not exceeding 40s. a year, and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12l. The price of men negroes upon their firſt arrival is from 33 to 36l. women and grown boys about 50s. leſs; but ſuch negro families as are acquainted with the buſineſs of the iſlands generally bring about 40l. upon an average one with another, and there are inſtances of a ſingle negro man expert in buſineſs bringing 150 guineas, and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of ſlaves he poſſeſſes.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they ſell, but from the numerous ſhipping conſtantly arriving from Europe, and a continual ſucceſſion of new adventurers, each of whom carrying out more or leſs as venture, the Weſt-India market is frequently overſtocked; money muſt be raiſed, and goods are ſometimes ſold at prime coſt or under. But thoſe who can afford to ſtore their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftmen, eſpecially carpenters, bricklayers, braſiers, and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the Weſt-Indies, that phyſicians and ſurgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

Before the laſt war but one, the number of negro ſlaves were at leaſt 230,000 whereas the whites do not amount to 90,000 ſouls. This diſproportion ſufficiently ſhews how much the colonies are endangered; they are at once expoſed to the aſſaults of a foreign enemy, and to the inſurrection of their own ſlaves.

The diſpoſition to induſtry has a variety of characters, and is by no means conſtantly of the ſame colour. Some acquieſce in a moderate labour through the whole of their lives, attended with no riſk either to their perſons or their gains; people of ſuch qualifications, who form the beſt citizens in general, are properly adapted to ſtay at home. Others, full as remote from an indolent diſpoſition, are of a quite different character. Theſe are fiery, reſtleſs tempers, willing to undertake the ſevereſt labour, provided it promiſes but a ſhort continuance, who love riſk and hazard, whoſe ſchemes are always vaſt, and who place no medium between being great and being undone. Characters of this ſort, eſpecially when they happen in low and middling life, are often dangerous members in a regular and ſettled community; but the Weſt-Indies open a fair and ample field to encourage perſons of ſuch a diſpoſition; and it may be reckoned one very great benefit to our poſſeſſions in that part of the world, that beſides the vaſt quantities of our fabrics which they conſume, our ſeamen whom they employ, and our revenues which they ſupport, they are a vent to carry off ſuch perſons, whom they keep occupied greatly to the advantage of the public. Our dominions are ſo circumſtanced, and afford ſuch a variety, that all diſpoſitions to buſineſs, of what kind ſoever, may have exerciſe without preſſing upon one another.

Our ſeamen diſtinguiſh the Weſt-India iſlands into the Windward and Leeward Iſlands, merely with regard to their ſituation either to eaſt or weſt. For as the wind is always eaſterly, thoſe that lie in the eaſtern part are called the Windward, and thoſe in the weſtern, the Leward Iſlands. Some geographers diſtinguiſh them into the Great and Little Antilles, while others call them all by the name of the Caribbees, from their firſt inhabitants. But by whatever name they are diſtinguiſhed, they lie in a bow, or ſemi-circular form, ſtretching almoſt from the coaſt of Florida to the main continent of South America, near the river Oroonoko.

CHAP. XVI.

WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

JAMAICA.

Situation and Extent, Soil, Climate, Vegetable Productions, Rivers, Inhabitants, Towns, &c.

THIS iſland, which is the moſt important of thoſe belonging to England, is ſituated between the 75th and 79th deg. of weſt long. from London, and between the 17th and 18th of north lat. and lies near 4,500 miles ſouth weſt of England. It is about 140 miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, and about 60 in breadth in the centre, for it is of an oval form, and conſequently grows gradually narrower towards each end.

As to the ſoil and face of the iſland, there is a ridge of hills, called the Blue Mountains, that run through it from eaſt to weſt; the tops of which are covered with different kinds of trees, particularly cedar, lignum-vitæ, and mahogany, which render them equally pleaſant and profitable to the inhabitants. Several fine rivers, well ſtored with fiſh, and navigable by canoes, take their riſe from theſe mountains. A lower ridge runs parallel to the greater, and the vallies, or ſavannahs, are exceeding level, without ſtones, fit for paſture, and fruitful, when cleared of wood, eſpecially on the ſouth ſide of the iſland. After the rains, or ſeaſons, as they are called, the

ſavannahs are very pleaſant, and produce ſuch quantities of graſs that the inhabitants are ſometimes forced to burn it; but, after long droughts they are quite parched and burnt up.

The air of this iſland is in moſt places exceſſively hot, and unfriendly to European conſtitutions; but the cool breezes, which conſtantly ſet in at ten o'clock in the morning, render the heat more tolerable; and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. A night ſeldom paſſes here without lightning, but it is not always attended by thunder, which in this iſland roars with uncommon violence, and is dreadful to the aſtoniſhed hearer, particularly as at theſe times the lightning does great damage. In February or March, the inhabitants always expect earthquakes, which have been productive of the moſt fatal effects in theſe parts.

The chief vegetable production of this iſland is the ſugar-cane, which deſervedly employs the principal attention of the inhabitants, it being the ſtaple commodity of their trade. It is propagated by planting cuttings of it in the ground, in furrows dug parallel for that purpoſe; they are laid level and even, and covered up with earth, from whence they ſoon ſhoot out new plants from their knots or joints, and grow ſo quick, that in eight, ten, or twelve months at fartheſt, they are fit to cut for making of ſugar.

No ſort of European grain grows in Jamaica; they have only Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none reſembling thoſe produced in England, with a variety of roots, among which are the yams and caſſava. The fruits found there are oranges, lemons, limes, citrons, dates, pomegranates, ſhaddocks, mamies, papas, ſour-ſops, pine-apples, cuſtard-apples, ſtar-apples, prickly pears, alicada pears, plantains, melons, and guavas, beſides ſeveral kinds of berries. It alſo produces cotton, coffee, pimento, ſome cacao, and indigo, guaiacum, China-root, ſarſaparilla, caſſiſiſtula, tamarinds, venellas, and a courſe kind of tobacco. Woods for dying, as fuſtic, redwood, log-wood, and mangrove, and olive-bark for the tanners. The moſt remarkable trees are, the manchineel, whoſe fruit appears exceeding beautiful to the eye, but is of a poiſonous quality; the cabbage-tree, the wood of which is ſo hard that it ſcarcely yields to any kind of tool, and when dry is incorruptible; the mahogany, ſo much uſed by our Cabinet-Makers; the wild cinnamon-tree, the bark of which is uſeful in medicine; and the ſoap-tree, whoſe berries anſwer all the purpoſes of ſoap.

Horſes, aſſes, mules, goats, hogs, and ſheep, are very numerous in Jamaica; black cattle were alſo formerly very plentiful, but through the inattention of the inhabitants to grazing, there are very few, ſo that they are at preſent ſupplied with beef from Carolina and other American ſettlements on the continent. There are plenty of racoons and rabbits, but no hares or deer. Of wild fowl there is a great variety, as ducks, teal, wigeons, geeſe, turkies, pigeons, Guiney-hens; plovers, flamingos, and ſnipes; various kinds of parots, and paroquets, and that beautiful little animal the humming-bird. The bays and rivers of Jamaica abound with excellent fiſh of almoſt all the European and American kinds, particularly tortoiſes, or turtles, ſea-cows, and aligators. The mountains breed adders and other noxious animals, as the fens and marſhes do the guana and gallewaſp, but theſe laſt are not venomous. Among the inſects which infeſt this iſland, is the nigua, ciror, or chegæ, which eats into the nervous and membraneous parts of the fleſh of the negroes, and frequently of the white people. Theſe inſects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and ſhut themſelves up in a bag. As ſoon as the perſon feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or the ſharp point of a knife, taking care to deſtroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, many remain behind. They ſometimes get into the toes, and eat the fleſh away to the bone.

A great number of ſmall rivers have their ſource among the rocks called the Blue Mountains, and fall down their ſides in cataracts at once ſtupendous and dreadful. The waters of theſe rivers taſte of copper, and are very unwholeſome. There are ſome fine ſprings in the iſland; but, upon the whole, this uſeful element is in many places very ſcarce; in others, it is ſo mixed with ſand, and earthy particles, that it is not drinkable till it has ſettled for ſome days; and, in ſome years, ſeveral of the cattle have periſhed for want of water. Many ſalt ſprings are found in the plains; and in the mountains, at a little diſtance from Spaniſh Town, is a hot-ſpring, which the inhabitants reſort to as a bath, and attribute ſeveral medicinal virtues to the water.

The number of inhabitants in Jamaica does not exceed twenty-five thouſand whites, and ninety thouſand negroes: but about the beginning of this century, the former amounted to ſixty thouſand, and the latter to an hundred and twenty thouſand: this decline is attributed to earthquakes and epidemical diſeaſes. The inhabitants are either Engliſh, or of Engliſh extraction born upon the iſland; Indians, Negroes, and Mulattoes, or the deſcendents of them.

There is no country in the world where luxury is carried to a higher pitch than in this iſland: equipages, clothes, furniture, tables, all bear the marks of the greateſt wealth, affluence, and profuſion; and to this may be imputed the ſhort ſtay which all the treaſure they receive makes among them; the whole not being more than ſufficient to anſwer their neceſſitous and luxurious calls on Europe and North-America. The common drink of the better ſort of people is Madeira wine mixed with water; but thoſe of inferior rank uſually drink rum punch, which they term Kill-Devil; becauſe being frequently drunk to exceſs, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers that in a few hours ſend them to the grave, eſpecially ſtrangers, which is the reaſon that ſo many die there upon their firſt arrival.

On Sundays, and particular occaſions, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in ſilk coats and veſts trimmed with ſilver; but at other times their uſual dreſs is thread ſtockings, linen drawers, a veſt, a handkerchief tied round the head, and a hat. The morning habits of the ladies conſiſt of a looſe gown wrapped careleſsly round them; but againſt noon they always dreſs in a rich and moſt becoming taſte. Men ſervants wear a coarſe linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, and long trowſers of the ſame. The negroes of both ſexes go naked, except thoſe who are immediately employed in the houſe.

Beſides the ordinary proviſions, rats are ſold here by the dozen, and when they have bred among the ſugar canes, are thought, by ſome people, very delicious food. Snakes and ſerpents, and coſſi, a ſort of worms, are eaten by the Indians and Negroes.

There is great reaſon to believe that there were formerly a great many more perſons of property in Jamaica then there are now, though their fortunes were not very large. The inhabitants were undoubtedly very numerous, till reduced by earthquakes and by terrible epidemical diſeaſes, which immediately ſucceeding former calamities, ſwept away vaſt multitudes. The decreaſe of the inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, ariſe from the difficulties to which their trade is expoſed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great-Britain; particularly, that they are of late deprived of the moſt beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spaniſh coaſt; the low value of their produce, which they aſcribe to the great improvements the French make in their ſugar colonies, ſo that they are enabled to underſell them by the lowneſs of their duties; and alſo on account of the

the trade carried on from Ireland and the northern colonies of the French and Dutch iſlands, where they pay no duties, and are ſupplied with goods at an eaſier rate. Some of theſe complaints, which equally affect the other iſlands, have been heard, and others ſtill remain unredreſſed. Both the logwood-trade, and that carried on by our iſlands with the continent of New Spain and Terra Firma, have often been the ſubjects of great contention, and even cauſed a war between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain. The former we always avowed, and claimed as our right; and it was accordingly, by a late peace, confirmed to us: the latter, we permitted, from a natural ſuppoſition, that if the Spaniards found themſelves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, and not upon us, to put a ſtop to it; eſpecially as they have guarda coſtas cruizing in thoſe ſeas, purpoſely to ſeize and confiſcate ſuch veſſels and cargoes as are found carrying on an illicit trade. Theſe arguments were thought ſufficient till the concluſion of the peace of 1763, when the Britiſh miniſtry, in compliance with the court of Spain, thought proper to ſend Engliſh cruizers to the American coaſt, effectually to cruſh that lucrative trade: a proceeding which has occaſioned the complaints of the whole body of Britiſh ſubjects in America, as a ſtop was thereby put to the principal channel which had enabled them to remit ſuch prodigious ſums to Great-Britain.

They import from England linen, ſilk, and woollen clothing of all kinds; wrought iron, braſs, and copper; all ſorts of hard ware, toys, houſehold-furniture, and great quantities of flour.

Sugar, rum, molaſſes, and cotton, are the chief product of the iſland. In 1753, they exported 20,315 hogſheads of ſugar, ſome of them very great, which were worth in England 424,725l. Of rum, they export about 4,000 puncheons. In molaſſes, they made a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vaſt diſtilleries. The other commodity is cotton, of which they ſend out 2000 bags. They alſo carry on a conſiderable trade with the Spaniſh continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and in both they carry on an extenſive and advantageous trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods.

Kingſton, the new capital of this iſland, is ſituated on the bay of Port Royal. The harbour is one of the moſt commodious in America, being about three leagues broad in moſt places; ſo deep that a ſhip of 700 tons may lay cloſe to the ſhore; and ſo capacious, that a thouſand ſail may ride in ſafety. The enterance is defended by Fort Charles, one of the ſtrongeſt fortifications on the Engliſh iſlands, a battery of 60 pieces of cannon, and a garriſon of regulars maintained by the crown. The town, which ſtands commodiouſly for freſh water, and every other convenience of life, is about a mile long, and half a mile broad. The ſtreets are handſome, regular, and contain upwards of 1000 houſes, moſt of which are well, and ſome elegantly built, according to the taſte of theſe iſlands, which is only one ſtory high, with porticos. Its inhabitants are eſtimated at 17,000, among whom are about 5000 whites and 12,000 free negroes or mulattoes.

Port-Royal, the old capital, ſtood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the ſea, formed part of the border of the above-mentioned harbour, the excellency of which induced the inhabitants to build their chief city on this ſpot, though it was hot dry ſand, and produced none of the neceſſaries of life. It ſoon, however, became a place of great conſequence, and the reſort of thoſe famous pirates called Buccaneers, a people who made continual depredations on the Spaniſh coaſt, and fought with an inconſiderate bravery to obtain a fortune, which they ſpent with as inconſiderate diſſipation in this town. This, together with the trade of the iſland, had ſo good an effect, that about the beginning of the year 1692, the place exceeded every thing of its ſize, for wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. But this proſperity was of no long continuance: in the month of June, the ſame year, an earthquake ſhook the whole iſland to its foundation, and totally overwhelmed this city; the earth opened and ſwallowed up nine-tenths of the houſes, and two thouſand of the inhabitants. The water guſhed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people in heaps; ſome of them, however, had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houſes, and were afterwards ſaved by boats. Several ſhips were caſt away in the harbour, and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock, was carried over the tops of ſinking houſes; but, fortunately, ſhe did not overſet, and afforded a retreat to ſome hundreds of people, who by that means ſaved their lives. An officer, who happened to be on the ſpot, obſerves, that the earth opened and ſhut very quick in ſome places, and he ſaw ſeveral people ſink down to the middle, while others appeared with their heads juſt above the ground, and were preſſed to death. At Savannah, above a thouſand acres were ſunk, with the houſes and people, the place appearing for ſome time like a lake. The waters afterwards dried away; but not the leaſt veſtige of the houſes remained. Some of the mountains were ſplit aſunder; at one place, a plantation was removed to the diſtance of a mile, and the moſt ſtupendous rocks were whirled from their eminences. After the conſternation, occaſioned by this ſhocking ſcene of horror and deſolation, had ſome time ſubſided, the town was rebuilt, but, about ten years after, it was again deſtroyed by fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour, however, induced the inhabitants to raiſe it a third time; and a third time it was laid in rubbiſh by a hurricane, the moſt terrible on record. This happened ſo lately as the year 1722, and almoſt ruined the iſland. Such repeated cataſtrophes occaſioned them to abandon the place, and accordingly they built Kingſton, on the oppoſite ſide of the bay: of late years, however, Port-Royal has been in ſome meaſure rebuilt; its commodious ſituation having tempted many to ſettle on this ſeemingly devoted ſpot, and run all hazards.

On October 3, 1780, there was a dreadful hurricane, which almoſt overturned the little ſea-port town of Savannah-la-Mer; in this iſland, and part of the adjacent country, very few houſes were left ſtanding, and a great number of people were killed. In other parts of Jamaica much damage was alſo done, and many lives loſt,

St. Jago de la Vega, commonly called Spaniſh-Town, in Middleſex, is a ſmall city, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Cabre. It contains a number of good houſes, and is the reſidence of the governor, of the courts of juſtice, and the place where the aſſembly is held. The greater part of the inhabitants are perſons of fortune or rank, which gives it an air of ſplendor and magnificence. The principal building is the governor's houſe, which is one of the moſt elegant in America. Here are alſo a handſome church, a chapel, and a Jewiſh ſynagogue.

Between this town and that of Kingſton, is Fort-Paſſage, a village of but few houſes, and ſo called, becauſe they who go from one town to the other land or embark there.

The miſery and hardſhips of the negroes, in general, are great; and though the utmoſt care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive ſo ſhortens their lives, that, inſtead of increaſing by the courſe of nature, many thouſands are annually imported, to ſupply the place of thoſe who pine and die by the hardſhips they receive. They are, indeed ſtubborn and untractable for the moſt part, and they muſt be ruled with a rod of iron; but they ought not

not to be cruſhed with it, or to be thought a ſort of beaſts, without ſouls, as many of their overſeers think them at preſent, though ſome of theſe tyrants are themſelves the dregs of England, and the refuſe of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their ſituations eaſy and comfortable; and it has been obſerved, that in North America, where in general theſe poor wretches are better uſed, there is a leſs waſte of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better.

The ſlaves, on their firſt arrival from the coaſt of Guinea, are expoſed naked to ſale; they are then generally very ſimple and innocent creatures; but they ſoon become roguiſh; and when they come to be puniſhed for their faults, excuſe themſelves by the examples of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is ſo agreeable, that it cheers their ſpirits, and renders the burthen of life eaſy, which would otherwiſe to many be quite intollerable. They look on death as a bleſſing; and it is ſurpriſing to ſee with what courage and intrepidity ſome of them meet it: they are quite tranſported to think their ſlavery is near at an end, that they ſhall reviſit their native ſhores, and ſee their old friends and acquaintance. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow ſlaves kiſs him, wiſh him a good journey, and ſend their hearty good wiſhes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, believing he is gone home, and enjoys perfect happineſs.

Engliſh money is ſeldom ſeen here, the current coin being entirely Spaniſh. There is hardly any place where ſilver is more plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. Notwithſtanding proviſions are in general tolerably reaſonable, yet a perſon cannot dine decently for leſs than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week.

Learning is here at a very low ebb: there are, indeed, ſome gentlemen, well verſed in literature, and who ſend their children to Great-Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or riotous diſſipation.

The eſtabliſhed religion here, as well as in all the Britiſh iſlands, is that of the church of England; but there are yet no biſhops: the biſhop of London's commiſſary is the principal eccleſiaſtic in theſe iſlands.

The government of Jamaica is the ſame with that of Virginia, and indeed all other royal governments. It is, next to that of Ireland, the beſt in the king's gift. The ſtanding ſalary is 2,500l. a year, the aſſembly vote the governor as much more, and this, with the other great profits of his office, make it little leſs than 10,000l. a year.

Jamaica was conquered by the Engliſh forces ſent out by Cromwell on an expedition againſt Hiſpaniola. That attempt failing, they laid ſiege to this iſland with an army of 10,000 men; and the place being in no poſture of defence, the Spaniards ſurrendered it up to the beſiegers. They made no attempt afterwards to retake it; and after the Reſtoration it was ceded to Great-Britain by treaty. Some of the troops employed in its reduction were ſettled in the iſland by Cromwell; and many of the royaliſts, uneaſy at home, ſought an aſylum there, while the amazing fertility of the ſoil, and other advantages which it offered, induced many of the planters in Barbadoes to quit their abode, and ſettle in Jamaica. The latter taught the former ſettlers the manner of raiſing the ſugar-canes and making ſugar; for, before their arrival, they followed the cuſtoms of the Spaniards, and applied themſelves entirely to the raiſing of cocoa. They alſo introduced the culture of indigo; and from that period, ſugar and indigo became the principal ſtaple commodities of the iſland.

To the north-weſt of Jamaica are three ſmall iſlands dependent on this, and known by the name of the Caymans. The moſt ſoutherly is diſtinguiſhed by the name of Great Cayman: the other two, which are diſtant from it about 20 leagues, are called Little Cayman and Cayman Brack. Great Cayman is the only one that is conſtantly inhabited: it is very low, and covered with high trees. It has not any harbour for ſhips of burthen, only a tolerable anchoring place on the ſouth-weſt. The inhabitants, who amount to about 200, are deſcended from the old Buccaneers. They have given themſelves a ſet of laws, and chooſe a chief to ſee them executed, in conjunction with the juſtices of peace appointed by commiſſion from the governor of Jamaica. As they have no clergyman among them, they go to Jamaica to be married. This colony is undoubtedly the moſt happy in the Weſt-Indies; the climate and the kind of food, which are of a ſingular ſalubrity, rendering the people healthy and vigorous, and making them live to a very advanced age. Their little iſland produces plenty of corn and vegetables, hogs, and poultry, much beyond what is required for their own conſumption. They have, beſides, ſugar canes, and ſome ſprings of pretty good water. Being quite hardened to the ſea, they are excellent pilots for the neighbouring coaſts; and their iſland, as well as their activity and humanity, have been many times a relief to ſhips which were diſtreſſed in this part of the ſea. Their principal employment is fiſhing for turtle. Inſtinct every year leads a prodigious number of turtles to theſe iſlands to lay their eggs, the greater part of which come from the Bay of Hunduras. The low and ſandy ſhores of theſe iſlands, particularly of the Great, are perfectly commodious to receive and cover their eggs. A female lays ſome hundreds. When they have done laying, the turtles retire towards the Iſle of Cuba, and the other large iſlands, where they recover themſelves in the ſubmarine paſtures, and, in about a month's time, acquire that fatneſs which makes them ſo much eſteemed on the tables of the great. The inhabitants of Great Cayman ſhut them up, as ſoon as they are caught, in encloſures, which they call *cralls*, made with ſtakes, in a ſmooth water, between the ſhore and a reef of rocks on the north-eaſt coaſt. Theſe turtles ſerve for all the traffic which they carry on with Port-Royal. It is an article of food which is very wholeſome; and the ſhell of the hawk's-bill kind is a commodity which has a place among the exportations to Great-Britain.

BARBADOES.

Situation and Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, Inhabitants, Chief Towns, Religion, &c.

THIS is the moſt eaſterly of all the Caribbee iſlands, being ſituated in the 59th deg of weſt long. and the 13th of north lat. It is 21 miles in length, and 14 in breadth. When the Engliſh, ſometime after the year 1625, firſt landed here, they found the place the moſt wild and deſtitute that can be imagined. It did not exhibit the leaſt appearance of having been ever peopled, even by ſavages. There was no kind of beaſt of paſture or of prey; no fruit, no herb, no root, fit for ſupporting human life. Yet, as the climate was good, and the ſoil fertile, ſome gentlemen of ſmall fortunes in England reſolved to become adventurers in cultivating it. Theſe planters had not only the deſolate nature of the place, and the extreme want of proviſions to ſtruggle with, but the trees were ſo large, and the wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, that they met with great difficulty in clearing as much ground as yielded them a ſubſiſtence. But by degrees things grew better; ſome of the wood yielded fuſtic, a wood wanted by the dyers; cotton and indigo agreed well with the ſoil, and tobacco, then becoming faſhionable in England, yielded tole-

rably

rably. Theſe good appearances, with the ſtorm which ſome time after began to gather in England, encouraged many to go over; and ſo great was the increaſe of people in Barbadoes, that in 1650, after having been ſettled only 25 years, it contained 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian ſlaves; the latter they baſely ſeized in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried into ſlavery; which diſhonourable conduct has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcileable to us ever ſince. Their cultivation of ſugar ſoon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of ſlaves ſtill increaſed; and it is ſuppoſed that in 1676 they amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000 whites, make 150,000 ſouls on this ſmall ſpot, a degree of population unknown in Holland, or even the beſt inhabited parts of China.

The trade of Barbadoes with Great-Britain, &c. employs 400 veſſels of all burthens. The principal articles of exportation are aloes, cotton, ginger, ſugar, rum, and molaſſes. In 1770 this exportation amounted to 331,000l. to Great-Britain; 120,000l. to North America; and 11,000l. to the other iſlands; and their circulating caſh at home was 200,000l. But this iſland has lately been much on the decline, which is attributed partly to the growth of the French ſugar-colonies, and partly to our own eſtabliſhments in the neighbouring iſles. Their numbers are now computed at 20,000 whites, and 100,000 ſlaves. Their capital is Bridge Town, ſituated in Carliſle Bay; here the governor reſides, and has a ſalary of 5000l. per annum. Here is a college founded and well endowed by Col. Codington, a native of this iſland. Barbadoes has ſuffered much by peſtilence, hurricanes, and fires. On October 10, 1780, a dreadful hurricane cauſed great devaſtation in this iſland, great numbers of the houſes were deſtroyed, many damaged, a great number of perſons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and others driven into the ſea, and periſhed there. The church of England is the eſtabliſhed religion here; the Diſſenters are very few. Here is, in general, a greater appearance of order and decency, and of a ſettled people, than in any other of the Weſt-India iſlands.

St. CHRISTOPHER's.

THIS iſland, ſometimes, for brevity's ſake, called St. Kitt's, is ſituated in 62 deg. weſt long. and 17 deg. north lat. It is about twenty miles long, ſeven broad, and ſeventy-five in circumference. It owes its name to Chriſtopher Columbus, who firſt diſcovered it for the Spaniards, who, not finding it to abound in the precious metal, abandoned it; and, in 1626, it was ſettled by the French and Engliſh conjointly, but entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht. It contains about 7000 whites, and 36,000 negroes. Beſides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces as much ſugar as Barbadoes.

Baſſeterre is the moſt conſiderable town upon this iſland, and was formerly the capital of the French part: the other is called Sandy Point, and always belonged to the Engliſh. There is no harbour; on the contrary, the ſurf is continually beating on the ſandy ſhore at the few places fit to land, which not only prevents the building any quay or wharf, but renders the landing or ſhipping of goods always inconvenient, and very often dangerous. They have been, therefore, obliged to adopt a particular method to embark, or put the heavy goods, ſuch as hogſheads of ſugar or rum, on board. For this purpoſe, they uſe a ſmall boat of a peculiar conſtruction, called a *moſes*; this boat ſets off from the ſhip with ſome very active and expert rowers; when they ſee what they call a *lull*, that is, an abatement in the violence of the ſurge, they puſh to land, and lay the ſides of the moſes on the ſtrand, the hogſhead is rolled into it, and the ſame precautions are uſed to carry it to the ſhip. It is in this inconvenient and very hazardous manner that the ſugars are conveyed on board by ſingle hogſheads. Rum, cotton, and other goods that will bear the water, are generally floated to the ſhip both in going and coming.

The public affairs at St. Chriſtopher's are adminiſtered by a governor, a council, and an aſſembly choſen from the nine pariſhes into which the iſland is divided, and which have each a large handſome church.

The iſland of St. Chriſtopher ſuſtained great damage by a violent hurricane, which happened in the month of October 1780. All the goods in the warehouſes and cellars near the beach were totally deſtroyed, and upwards of 100 veſſels were driven out to ſea, many of which were loſt, and the crews periſhed.

The French took this iſland in February 1782, but it was reſtored by the peace with England in 1783.

ANTIGUA.

THIS iſland was diſcoved by Chriſtopher Columbus, but not ſettled upon till the year 1632, when the Engliſh took poſſeſſion of it. It is ſituated in 61 deg. weſt log. and 17 deg. north lat. and is of a circular form, about twenty miles each way, and near ſixty in circumference. It is more noted for good harbours than all the Engliſh iſlands in theſe ſeas, yet ſo encompaſſed with rocks, that it is of dangerous acceſs in many parts, eſpecially to thoſe that are not well acquainted with the coaſt.

Here the climate is hotter than in Barbadoes, and very ſubject to hurricanes. The ſoil is ſandy, and much of it overgrown with wood. There are but few ſprings, and not ſo much as a brook in the whole iſland; ſo that the principal dependance of the inhabitants ariſes from the water ſupplied by caſual rains, which they ſave in ciſterns.

St. John is the capital of Antigua; it is a regular built town on the weſtern ſhore, with a good harbour of the ſame name, whoſe entrance is defended by Fort James. It is the reſidence of the governor-general of the Caribbee Leeward-Iſlands, the place where the aſſembly for this iſland is held, and the port where the greateſt trade is carried on. It was a very flouriſhing town before the fire in 1769. The number of inhabitants are computed at 7000 whites, and 30,000 ſlaves. The beſt port in the iſland is Engliſh Harbour, on the ſouth ſide. At much trouble and expence it has been made fit to receive the greateſt ſhips of war. There are alſo a dock-yard with ſtores, and all the materials and conveniences neceſſary to repair and careen. Engliſh Harbour is at a ſmall diſtance from the town and harbour of Falmouth. There are, beſides, Willoughby Bay, to the windward of Engliſh Harbour; Nonſuch Harbour, on the eaſt point; and the town and harbour of Parham, on the north ſide; alſo a great number of creeks and ſmaller bays; but, in general, the ſhore being rocky, wherever the landing would be practicable, it is defended by forts and batteries; and there is commonly one regiment of regular troops quartered there for the defence of the iſland. When the governor-general thinks proper, he calls a general aſſembly of the other iſlands.

Antigua has, beſides, a lieutenant-governor, a council, and its own aſſembly, compoſed of twenty-four members. It is divided into ſix pariſhes and eleven diſtricts, of which ten ſend each two repreſentatives, and that of St. John four.

A gentleman reſiding at St. John's in Antigua, has favoured us with the following pleaſing account: he writes, that at the end of the year 1792, in conſequence of a plan ſet on foot by ſome benevolent perſons for inſtructing the negroes on that iſland, the congregation he belongs to amounted then to 5495 negroes, who are remarkably punctual and devout in their attendance on divine worſhip, and that their ſinging is particularly pleaſing: that, ſince May 1793, there have been baptized about 244 adults, or grown

negroes, beſides very many children; and a great number of adults and children have been baptized on their ſick beds. He adds, that Antigua is a very pleaſant iſland, and produces large quantities of ſugar, oranges, limes, pine-apples, and ſeveral other kinds of delicious fruits; but other ſorts of proviſion are very dear, cheeſe being 14d. per pound Engliſh money, and porter 1s. a bottle, &c. He obſerves further, that ſome of the ſlaves are, for the ſmalleſt offence, treated very unmercifully; and in hoeing, are whipped before their driver like ſo many beaſts.

GRENADA AND THE GRENADINES.

GRENADA is ſituated in 12 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. 40 min. weſt long. near thirty leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, being about thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. The ſoil of this iſland is exceeding proper for the culture of ſugar, tobacco, and indigo. In a mountain, about the centre of the iſland, is a lake that ſupplies it plentifully with ſtreams of freſh water, which adorn and fertilize it. The bays and harbours of this iſland are very convenient for ſhipping, and it is not ſubject to hurricanes. In the harbour of St. George's Bay 100 veſſels may be ſafely moored. The French firſt eſtabliſhed a colony here, between whom and the natives there was a long and bloody war, in which the latter, though few in number, defended themſelves againſt their invaders with the moſt reſolute bravery. When Grenada was attacked by the Engliſh in the laſt war but one, the French inhabitants were ſo amazed at the reduction of Martinico and Guadalupe, that they ſurrendered without oppoſition; and the property of this iſland, together with that of the Grenadines, lying on the north of it, were ceeded to the Engliſh by the treaty of Paris in 1763; but, in July 1779, the French again made themſelves maſters of Grenada, though, by the treaty of peace in 1783 it was reſtored to Great-Britain.

DOMINICA.

THIS iſland is ſituated in 16 deg. north lat. and 62 weſt long. and lies about half way between Guadalupe and Martinico. It is about twenty-eight miles in length, and thirteen in breadth; and received its name from being diſcovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The ſoil of this iſland is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than ſugar; but the ſides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the Weſt-Indies, and the whole iſland is well ſupplied with rivulets of fine water. Here, as in ſome other of the Caribbees, is a ſulphur mountain, and hot ſpring, equal in ſalubrity to thoſe of Bath in England; and the fine fruits, particularly the pine-apples, are ſuperior to any that grow on the French iſlands. At the north-weſt end of the iſland, is a deep, ſpacious, ſandy bay, called Prince Ruport's, which is well ſecured from the winds by mountains on all ſides. The moſt diſtinguiſhed place in this iſland is the town of Roſeau, ſituated on a ſpacious harbour. The houſes are low and irregularly placed, and the town is ſheltered by the circumjacent mountains, ſome of which riſe to a conſiderable height. The moſt advantageous view of the town is from the bay, or harbour, where ſhips of conſiderable ſize ride at anchor with the greateſt ſafety. This iſland, on account of its ſituation between the principal French ſettlements here, and the commodiouſneſs of its harbour, has been formed into a government of itſelf, and declared a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but by the enſuing peace, was reſtored to Great-Britain.

St. VINCENT.

THIS iſland is about twenty-four miles in length, and eighteen in breadth, lying about fifty miles north-weſt of Barbadoes. It is generally allowed to be one of the beſt of all the Antilles. Out of the ridge of mountains, which croſſes it from north to ſouth, riſe a great number of rivers well ſtored with fiſh. Theſe mountains are in general of an eaſy aſcent; and the vallies and plains, ſome of them of a large extent, are exceeding fertile, producing moſt of the neceſſaries of life, particularly ſugar, coffee, cocoa, and annatta. When this iſland was ceded to Great-Britain, by the treaty of Verſailles, in 1763, there was a great number of a mixed breed of Caribbees, and of ſhipwrecked or runaway negroes; but theſe have been all long ſince exterminated. The moſt remarkable place in St. Vincent's is Kingſtown, ſituated on a bay of the ſame name at the ſouth-weſt end of the iſland. It is the reſidence of the governor, and the place where the aſſembly meet. About three miles from Kingſtown, towards the ſouth-eaſt, is the town of Calliagua, whoſe harbour is the moſt conſiderable in the whole iſland. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here are alſo fugitives from Barbadoes and the other Iſlands. The Caribbeans were treated with ſo much injuſtice and barbarity, after this iſland came into poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, to whom it was ceded by the peace in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get poſſeſſion of it again in 1779; but, by the treaty of peace, it was reſtored to Great-Britain.

NEVIS.

THIS is no more than a vaſt mountain riſing to a very conſiderable height. It is ſituated about four miles to the ſouth of St. Chriſtopher's. The ſoil is fruitful, and the ſtaple commodity ſugar, which ſerves all the purpoſes of money. Here are ſometimes violent rains and hurricanes, as in the other iſlands, and the air is even hotter than that of Barbadoes.

Here are many remarkable inſects and reptiles, particularly the flying-tyger, the horn-fly, and a kind of ſnail called the ſoldier. The ſea abounds with a variety of excellent fiſh, as groopers, rock-fiſh, old wives, cavallies, welſhmen, mud-fiſh, wilks, cockles, lobſters, &c. Land-crabs are very common here; they are ſmaller than ſea-crabs, and make little burrows, like rabbits, in the woods, towards the tops of the mountains. The only venemous creatures are ſcorpions and centipedes.

On this iſland there is plenty of aſparagus; they have alſo a tree called diddle-doo, which bears a lovely bloſſom of the fineſt yellow and ſcarlet colours, and is eſteemed a ſovereign remedy in ſome diſorders. The liquorice buſh runs wild along the ſtone walls of common fields, like the vine. The butter here is not good, and their new cheeſe far worſe. The ſheep have neither horns or wool, but are cloathed with ſmooth hair, and generally full of ſmall red or black ſpots, reſembling thoſe of a fine ſpaniel. They breed twice a year, if not oftener, and generally bring two, three, or four lambs at a time, and, what is more extraordinary, ſuckle them all. The rams are of a pale red colour, with a thick row of long, ſtraight, red hair, hanging down from the lower jaw to the breaſt, as far as the fore legs. The hogs being fed with Indian corn, Spaniſh potatoes, and ſugar-cane juice, are exceeding ſweet food, white, and fat; as are the fowls and turkies, which are fed with the ſame diet. The ground doves here are about the ſize of a lark, of a chocolate colour, ſpotted with a dark blue, their heads like that of a robin-red-breaſt, and their eyes and legs of a moſt pure red. They have excellent game cocks and fierce bull-dogs, beſides large cur-dogs, but no hounds or ſpaniels.

Nevis was formerly much more flouriſhing than at preſent, and, before the Revolution, contained 30,000 inhabitants. The invaſion of the French about that time, and ſome epidemical diſorders, have ſtrangely diminiſhed the number to what they then

then were. Here are three tolerable roads or bays, on which are as many little towns, viz. Newcaſtle, Littleborough on Moreton-Bay, and Charles-Town the capital, with a fort called Great Fort, that defends the anchoring-place, where the governor, council, and aſſembly, meet; the laſt is compoſed of five members for each of the three pariſhes into which the iſland is divided. Here, as in ſome of the other Caribbees, if a white man kills a black, he cannot be tried for his life for the murder; and all that he ſuffers is a fine of 30l. currency to the maſter for the loſs of his ſlave. If a negro ſtrikes a white man he is puniſhed with the loſs of his hand; and, if he ſhould draw blood, with death. A negro cannot be evidence againſt a white man.

The inhabitants of this place have three public annual faſts, to implore the divine protection againſt hurricanes; and, if none happen in July, Auguſt, or September, they appoint a public thankſgiving in October. The trade of Nevis conſiſts in molaſſes, rum, and a prodigious quantity of lemons.

This iſland, as well as the following, was taken by the French in the year 1782, but reſtored at the peace in 1783.

MONTSERRAT.

THIS ſmall iſland was diſcovered by Columbus in 1493. It lies in 16 deg. 37 min. north lat. and 62 deg. 13 min. weſt long. It is twenty-five miles almoſt ſouth ſouth-eaſt from Nevis; twenty weſt ſouth-weſt from Antigua; forty north-weſt from Guadalupe; and 240 from Barbadoes. It is of an oval figure; about three leagues in length, the ſame in breadth, and eighteen in compaſs. The Spaniards gave it the name of Montſerrat from a fancied reſemblance it bore to a mountain of that name near Barcelona in Old Spain. It was ſettled in 1632 by Sir Thomas Warner, and taken in the beginning of the reign of Charles II. by the French, who reſtored it to England at the peace of Breda. The firſt ſettlers were Iriſhmen, and the preſent inhabitants are principally compoſed either of their deſcendants, or of natives of Ireland.

With reſpect to climate, ſoil, and produce, they are much the ſame as thoſe of the other Engliſh Caribbee Iſlands. The mountains yield cedars, the cypreſs-tree, the iron-tree, with other woods, and ſome odoriferous ſhrubs. It is well-watered and fruitful; and the planters formerly raiſed a great deal of indigo. The ſurrounding ſeas produce ſome hideous monſters, particularly two, which, from their remarkable uglineſs, as well as the poiſonous quality of their fleſh, are called ſea-devils. The lamanture, by ſome called the ſea-cow, is found in this iſland, and generally at the enterance of freſh water rivers. According to the accounts we have of it, it is an amphibious animal, and lives moſtly on herbage. Its fleſh is reckoned very wholeſome food, when ſalted; and they are ſo large, that two or three of them load a canoe.

Montſerrat is governed by a lieutenant-governor, a council, and an aſſembly of eight repreſentatives, two for each of the four diſtricts which divide the iſland.

There is not any harbour belonging to this iſland, only three roads, namely, at Plymouth, which is the chief town in the iſland, Old Harbour, and Ker's Bay, where the ſhipping and landing of goods is attended with the ſame inconveniences as in the iſland of St. Chriſtopher.

This iſland, as well as the former, was taken by the French in the year 1782, but reſtored at the peace in 1783.

BARBUDA.

THIS iſland is ſituated in 18 deg. 6 min. north lat. and 61 deg. 35 min. weſt long. It is about twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth. The air of Barbuda is not unſalutary; and the ſoil is fertile enough to yield all the vegetable productions of the other Weſt-India Iſlands; but the inhabitants apply themſelves almoſt wholly to the breeding of cattle, and raiſing proviſions for the neighbouring iſles. On the weſt ſide of the iſland is a good well-ſheltered road, clear from rocks and ſands. This iſland is the property of the Codrington family, and contains about 1500 inhabitants.

To the north of Barbuda are ſeveral ſmall uninhabited iſlands. The moſt remarkable of them lies at ſix leagues diſtance, and is about a league long. It conſiſts of an eminence, to which the Spaniſh diſcoverers, finding ſome reſemblance to a hat, gave it the name of Sombrero, which it has always preſerved.

To the weſt of Barbuda and Sombrero, after having croſſed a channel of eight leagues, being the VIRGIN ISLANDS. Theſe take up a ſpace, from eaſt to weſt, of about twenty-four leagues long, quite to the eaſtern coaſt of Porto Rico, with a breadth of about ſixteen leagues. They are compoſed of a great number of iſles, whoſe coaſts, rent throughout and ſprinkled with rocks, every where dangerous to navigators, are famous for ſhipwrecks, and particularly of ſeveral galleons. Happily for the trade and navigation of theſe iſlands, nature has placed in the middle of them a large baſon of three or four leagues broad, and ſix or ſeven long, the fineſt that can be imagined, and in which ſhips may anchor landlocked, and ſheltered from all winds. The Buccaneers called it the Virgins' Gangway; but its true name is the Bay of Sir Francis Drake, who firſt entered it in 1580, when he made his expedition againſt St. Domingo.

One of theſe iſlands is called the Tropic Keys, from the aſtoniſhing quantity of Tropic birds which breed there. Theſe birds are about the ſize of a pigeon, but round and plump like a partridge, and very good to eat. Their plumage is quite white, except two or three feathers in each wing, which are of a clear grey. Their beaks are ſhort, thick, and of a pale yellow. They have a long feather, or rather quill, about ſeven inches long, which comes out of their rump, and is all the tail they have. They obtained their name from not having been ever ſeen but between the Tropics.

The Virgin Iſlands are all of them ſmall, and the greateſt part uninhabited.

ANGUILLA.

THIS iſland is ſituated in 18 deg. 15 min. of north lat. and in 62 deg. 57 min. of weſt long. It is about thirty miles long, and ten broad. Anguilla is capable of great improvement; and the inhabitants formerly planted ſugar, which they ſtill continue to do in ſmall quantities; but, like thoſe of Barbuda, they chiefly apply themſelves to the breeding and feeding of cattle, planting of Indian corn, and other parts of huſbandry.

Within a few years, induſtry, and the indefatigable labours of the planters of Anguilla, have convinced them that their iſland not only produces all the neceſſaries of life, but, beſides, many proviſions which they ſell to their neighbours, as well as ſugar and cotton. The climate is very healthy, and the inhabitants ſtrong and vigorous. Their exportations are ſugar, rum, and cotton.

Beſides the Britiſh Weſt-India iſlands above deſcribed, Great-Britain is alſo poſſeſſed of ſeveral others in the ocean, which are ſituated at the diſtance of ſome thouſand miles from each other. Our ſurvey of theſe ſhall begin at the northern extremity, and the firſt that will engage our attention, is

NEWFOUNDLAND.

THIS iſland is ſituated to the eaſt of the gulf of St. Laurence, between 46 and 52 deg. north lat. and between 53 and 59 deg. weſt long. of a triangular form,

form, and nearly as large as Ireland; being ſeparated from Labrador, or New-Britain, by the ſtreights of Belleiſle; and from Canada, by the bay of St. Laurence. The principal towns are Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John.

The air on the coaſt is thick and foggy, and there are frequent ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet. The winter is long, and often intenſely cold; the ſummer is very hot, but of ſhort continuance, and, as the ſoil in moſt parts is rocky and barren, the vegetable productions are but few. It is, however, watered by ſeveral good rivers, and hath ſome noble and capacious bays. The beſt produce of this iſland conſiſts in a great variety of excellent timber, which will afford an ample ſupply for maſts, yards, and all ſorts of timber, when thoſe commodities begin to grow ſcarce in our colonies.

But Newfoundland is chiefly valuable for the noble cod fiſhery on its coaſts and the neighbouring banks. Great-Britain and North America, at the loweſt computation, annually employ three thouſand ſail of ſmall ſhips in this fiſhery; on board of which, and on ſhore, to cure and pack the fiſh, are upwards of 10,000 hands; ſo that this fiſhery is not only a valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a ſource of livelihood to many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery of ſeamen for the royal navy: at the ſame time, it is computed that this fiſhery increaſes the national ſtock 300,000l. annually, in gold and ſilver, remitted to us for the cod we ſell in the northern kingdoms, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank and the leſſer ones, which lie to the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt of this iſland, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but ſeveral other ſpecies of fiſh, are caught there in great abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the ſhores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the iſle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fiſheries are carried on upon all their coaſts, which makes ample amends for the barrenneſs of the ſoil, &c. The main fiſhery is on the Great Bank, and the other banks about this iſland, as alſo along the coaſt.

The Great Bank is a vaſt mountain under water, extending, in length, according to the moſt accurate ſea-charts, from the 41ſt deg. of north lat. to 49 deg. 25 min. and, in breadth, from 42 deg. 30 min. to 51 deg. 30 min. of weſt long. Its depth of water is from five to ſixty fathoms. This bank is covered with a vaſt quantity of ſhells, and ſeveral kinds of fiſh of all ſizes, moſt of which ſerve for food to the cod-fiſh, whoſe number is immenſe. Great numbers of veſſels have loaded here annually for two centuries, yet this vaſt conſumption has produced no very apparent dimunition of their numbers.

The Great Bank is about 120 miles long, and about fifty over where broadeſt. It lies off the ſouth-coaſt of Newfoundland. There are ſeveral other banks, but they are not conſiderable enough to deſerve particular notice.

The Great Strand, or drying place for fiſh, which is about a league in extent, lies between two ſteep hills, one of which is ſeparated from the Strand by a ſmall rivulet, which forms a kind of lake, called the Little Bay, abounding with ſalmon. The Great Strand may contain at once wherewithal to load ſixty ſhips. There is another leſſer Strand for the uſe of the inhabitants, who fiſh all along the coaſt. The fiſhing ſeaſon is from Spring to September. All the train oil that comes from Newfoundland is drawn chiefly from the livers of the cod.

The proceſs in catching the fiſh, preparing them, &c. is as follows: the cod is caught with a harpoon, the beſt bait being a little fiſh called capelau; but, for want of this, they ſometimes make uſe of the inteſtines of the cod itſelf. As ſoon as the fiſherman has caught a fiſh with his line, he pulls out its tongue, and gives the fiſh to another man, whom they call the beheader. This man, with a two-edged knife, like a lancet, ſlits the fiſh from the vent to the throat, which he cuts acroſs to the bones of the neck: he then lays down his knife, and pulls out the liver, which he drops into a kind of tray, through a little hole made on purpoſe in the ſcaffold he works upon; he then guts it, and cuts off the head. This done, he delivers the fiſh to the next man, who ſtands over-againſt him. This man, who is called the ſlicer, takes hold of it by the left gill, and reſts its back againſt a board, a foot long, and two inches high; he pricks it with the ſlicing knife on the left ſide of the vent, which makes it turn out the left gill; then he cuts the ribs, or great bones all along the vertebræ, about half way down from the neck to the vent; he likewiſe does the ſame on the right ſide; then cuts aſlant three joints of the vertebæ through to the ſpiral marrow; laſtly, he cuts all along the vertebræ and ſpinal marrow, dividing them into two: and thus ends his operation. A third helper then takes this fiſh, and, with a kind of wooden ſpatula, ſcrapes all the blood that has remained along the vertebræ that were not cut. When the cod is thus thoroughly cleanſed (ſometimes waſhed) he drops it into the hold, through a hole made for that purpoſe, and the ſalter is there ready to receive it. This aſſiſtant crams as much ſalt as he can into the inner part of the fiſh, lays it down, the tail end loweſt, rubs the ſkin all over with ſalt, and even covers it with more ſalt; then goes through the ſame proceſs with the reſt of the cod, which he heaps up one upon another till the whole is laid up. The fiſh, thus ſalted and piled up in the hold, is never meddled with any more till it is brought home and unloaded for ſale. The cod intended for drying is caught and beheaded in the ſame manner; but the operation of ſalting varies in ſome few particulars.

The Indians, or natives, of this iſland, are ſaid to be a gentle, mild, tractable people, eaſily gained by civility and good uſage. They paint their bodies, and, in winter, are clad in ſkins and furs.

Diſputes were frequent for many years between France and England: at laſt the whole iſland was formally ceded to the Engliſh by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets and cure their fiſh on the northern coaſts of the iſland; and, by the treaty of 1763, they obtained liberty to fiſh in the gulf of St. Laurence, but with this limitation, that they ſhould not approach within three miles of any of the ſhores belonging to the Engliſh. The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated to the ſouthward of Newfoundland, were alſo ceded to the French for curing their fiſh; but they engaged to erect no fortifications on theſe iſlands, and to keep only fifty ſoldiers to enforce the police. In 1793, they were again taken by the Engliſh, during the war with the French republic.

The French, by the late treaty, were to enjoy the fiſheries on the north and weſt coaſts of the iſland, and the Americans were allowed the ſame privileges in fiſhing as before their independence. Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John, are the chief towns in Newfoundland; but, in the winter, not above 1000 families remain here. A ſmall ſquadron of men of war are ſent out every ſpring, to protect the fiſheries and inhabitants of this iſland: the naval commander on this ſtation is the governor.

CAPE BRETON.

THIS iſland is ſituated between 45 and 57 deg. north lat. and between 61 and 62 deg. weſt long. being 100 miles long, and eighty broad. It is ſituated about 20 leagues ſouth-weſt from Newfoundland, and is ſeparated by the ſtreight of Cauſo from Nova Scotia. The north coaſt is high, and almoſt inacceſſible; but the ſouth coaſt contains ſeveral excellent harbours, more particularly that of Louiſburg, one of the

the fineſt in America. The air is nearly the ſame with that of Newfoundland; the heat and cold alſo is very little different; the ſoil in many places barren, but, in ſome, deep and rich, though it has never been properly cultivated. Horſes, black cattle, ſheep, goats, hogs, and poultry, are found in plenty on the iſland, but game is ſcarce. The partridges are almoſt as large as pheaſants, and not unlike them in the colour of their feathers. The quantity of cod and other fiſh in the adjacent ſea is almoſt incredible; whales, ſeals, porpoiſes, &c. are frequently ſeen near the coaſt. The vegetable productions are apples, pulſe, wheat and other corn, flax and hemp. Oaks of a prodigious ſize, pines, aſh, maple, plane and aſpin trees abound here. Coals and lime-ſtone are found in almoſt every part of the iſland.

This iſland was ſuffered for many years to remain uninhabited: at laſt the French took poſſeſſion of it in 1714, built Louiſburg, and fortified it in the ſtrongeſt manner. It was taken by the Engliſh in the year 1745, but reſtored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was again taken during the laſt war but one, and the fortifications of Louiſburg totally demoliſhed. By the treaty of peace in 1763 it was ceded to the Engliſh, ſo that the French have now no port or ſhelter for the relief of their trading ſhips either to or from the Weſt-Indies. There are ſeveral ſmall iſlands lying round Cape Breton, particularly thoſe of St. Peter and Madame, or Maurepas.

St. JOHN's

THIS iſland lies very near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, but has greatly the advantage of both in pleaſantneſs and fertility of ſoil. It is 60 miles long, and near 40 broad, and has many fine rivers. On the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this iſland, amounting to 4000, ſubmitted quietly to the Britiſh arms; and to the ſcandal of the French governor, in his houſe ſeveral Engliſh ſcalps were found, brought thither to market by the ſavages of Nova Scotia; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that inhuman trade. When this iſland was in the poſſeſſion of the French, they ſo much improved it, that it furniſhed great quantities of beef and pork, and alſo plenty of corn, ſo that it was ſtyled the granary of Canada.

BERMUDAS, or the SUMMER ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands, which received their firſt name from John Bermudas, a Spaniard, who diſcovered them; and their ſecond from Sir George Sommers, who was ſhipwrecked on the rocks in his vovage to Virginia in 1609, are ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, in 32 deg. 25 min. north lat. and 66 deg. 58 min. weſt long. Theſe iſlands, which are ſaid to be 400 in number, are very ſmall, not containing in all more than 20,000 acres. They are very difficult of acceſs, being, as Waller (who reſided there for ſome time) expreſſes it, walled in with rocks. There are however, ſeveral open channels between them; but a pilot well acquainted with the coaſt is neceſſary.

The air of theſe iſlands is clear and healthy, the climate temperate and delightful, the ſoil prodigiouſly rich, and the vegetable productions, both of trees, fruits, and flowers, very numerous, and of various kinds. The number of white inhabitants is about 10,000, and the negroes 1,500. Their chief trade conſiſts in building and navigating light ſloops and brigantines, which they employ for the moſt part in the trade between North America and the Weſt-Indies. Theſe veſſels are remarkably ſwift ſailers; and the cedar, of which they are principally built, is valued for its hard and durable quality.

The capital, called the town of St. George, is ſituated at the bottom of a harbour, on an iſland of the ſame name, and is defended by ſeven or eight forts mounted with 70 pieces of cannon. It contains about 1000 houſes, and is decorated with a handſome church, and other elegant public buildings.

CHAP. XVII.

The LUCAYS, BAHAMA, and other ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands are ſituated to the ſouth of Carolina, between 22 and 27 deg. north lat. and 73 and 81 deg. weſt long. They extend along the eaſtern coaſt of Florida quite down to the iſle of Cuba, and are ſaid to be 500 in number; many of them, however, are only barren rocks; but twelve are large and fertile, though only one of them is properly inhabited, namely, Providence, which is 200 miles eaſt of the Floridas. The air and ſoil are nearly the ſame with thoſe of South Carolina; they are well watered every where with ſprings and rivers. Limes, ſour oranges, and ſea-turtle abound in theſe iſlands.

The Lucays, or Bahamas, were the firſt land Columbus diſcovered in America; but, being deſtitute of gold mines, they were never ſettled by the Spaniards; nor were they known to the Engliſh till the year 1667, when Captain Seyle, being driven among them in a voyage to Carolina, examined them carefully, particularly that which is now called Providence. On his return, he reported the diſcovery he had made, and the benefit theſe iſlands might be to the ſtate. Grants were in conſequence made out to proprietors, but the government was reſerved for the crown. The proprietors granted a leaſe of theſe iſlands to a number of merchants, called the Bahama Company; but the deſign proved abortive: and the proprietors taking no care to prevent pirates ſheltering themſelves in theſe iſlands, the government reſumed the grant. In the year 1718 Captain Woodes Rogers was ſent with a fleet to diſlodge the pirates, and make a ſettlement. He executed his commiſſion, erected a fort, and was made governor of the Bahama iſlands, where he died in 1733. From that time they have been improving, though not in any rapid manner; and perhaps they will never be of any great conſequence, except as preventive ſettlements, and affording ſhelter to ſhips and privateers in time of war, when the people gain conſiderably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times, by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and ſhelves. Between theſe iſlands and the continent of Florida, is the gulf of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spaniſh galleons ſail in their paſſage to Europe. The Spaniards and Americans captured theſe iſlands during the laſt war; but on April 13, 1783, they were retaken by a Britiſh detachment from St. Auguſtine.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands are ſituated between 51 deg. 30 min. and 52 deg. 15 min. ſouth lat. and between 55 deg. 40 min. and 56 deg. 47. min. weſt long. being about 50 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 38 in breadth from eaſt to weſt; they lie near the ſtreights of Magellan, the extremity of the continent of South America. Theſe iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594; the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. The preſent Engliſh name Falkland was probably given them by Captain Strong, in 1639, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps.

King Charles II. having conſidered the diſcovery of this coaſt of great conſequence, ſent Sir John Narborough to ſurvey the ſtreights of Magellan, the neighbouring coaſt of Patagonia, and the Spaniſh

ports in that frontier; with directions, if poſſible, to procure ſome intercourſe with the Indians of Chili, who are generally at war, or at leaſt on ill terms with the Spaniards; and to eſtabliſh a commerce and laſting correſpondence with them. Though Sir John, through accidental cauſes, failed in this attempt, which, in appearance, promiſed ſo many advantages to this nation, his tranſactions upon that coaſt, beſides the many valuable improvements he furniſhed to geography and navigation, ſhould be rather incentives for further trials of this kind, than any objection againſt them. The precautions and fears of the Spaniards plainly indicated that they were fully convinced of the practicability of the ſcheme he was ſent to execute, and extremely alarmed with the apprehenſion of its conſequences. The Britiſh monarch, however, is ſaid to have been ſo far convinced of the advantages which might accrue to the nation from this expedition, that having intelligence of Sir John Narborough's paſſing through the Downs, on his his return, he had not patience to attend his arrival at court, but went himſelf in his barge to meet him at Graveſend.

In the year, 1764, the late Lord Egmont, then firſt lord of the admiralty, revived the ſcheme of a ſettlement in the South Seas, and Commodore Byron was ſent to take poſſeſſion of Falkland Iſlands in the name of his Britannic majeſty, and in his journal repreſents them as a valuable acquiſition. On the other hand, they are repreſented by Captain M'Bride, who in 1766 ſucceeded that gentleman, as the outcaſts of nature. "We found, ſays he, a maſs of iſlands and broken lands, of which the ſoil was nothing but a bog, with no better proſpect than that of barren mountains, beaten by ſtorms almoſt perpetual. Yet this is ſummer; and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, thoſe who lie but two cables length from the ſhore, muſt paſs weeks without having any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir-tree, a native of ruggid and cold climates, had withered away; but goats, ſheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increaſe as in other places. Geeſe, of a fiſhy taſte, ſnipes, foxes, ſea-lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and, in the ſummer months, wild celery, and ſorrel, are the natural luxuries of theſe iſlands.

But notwithſtanding the dangerous navigation through theſe tempeſtuous ſeas, and the barrenneſs of the ſoil, an Engliſh ſettlement was at length made here, of which we were diſpoſſeſſed by the Spaniards in 1770. That violence was, however, diſavowed by the Spaniſh ambaſſador, and ſome conceſſions made to the court of Great-Britain; in order, therefore, to avoid giving umbrage to the court of Spain, the Britiſh miniſtry, in 1774, gave directions that the ſettlement ſhould be finally abandoned.

SPANISH DOMINIONS
In NORTH AMERICA.

CHAP XVIII.

EAST and WEST FLORIDA.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Produce, Mountains, Rivers, Inhabitants, Chief Towns, &c.

THIS country is ſituated between 80 and 91 deg. weſt long. and between 25 and 32 north lat. being 500 miles in length, and 440 in breadth, and contains 100,000 ſquare miles. It is bounded, on the north, by Georgia; on the weſt, by the Miſſiſſippi; on the ſouth, by the gulf of Mexico; and, on the eaſt, by the Bahama ſtreights. The Floridas include a part of Louiſiana, and were, by the late treaty of peace, ceded by Great-Britain to Spain.

The accounts which have been given concerning the climate, air, and ſoil of Florida, have ſo amazingly varied, that to give credit to one, we muſt entirely diſbelieve the other. There is no doubt but in ſo extenſive a tract theſe particulars muſt be very different in ſome parts from what they are in others; and it was natural for authors, who wrote either for or againſt this country to give a deſcription of ſuch parts only as ſuited their purpoſe; obſerving a profound ſilence with regard to the reſt. Thus we find ſome have repreſented it as a terreſtrial paradiſe; while others have pronounced it the tomb of all ſtrangers who are unhappy enough to go thither, affirming as a truth, that upon the landing of our troops to take poſſeſſion of it, after the peace in 1763, the Spaniards aſked them, "What crimes have you been guilty of at home?" The people, however, who obtained grants of lands in Florida, when belonging to England, and were deſirous to ſettle or ſell them, repreſented the climate as a very agreeable medium betwixt the ſcorching heat of the tropics, and the pinching cold of the north latitude; that there is indeed a change of the ſeaſons, but it is a moderate one. In November and December many trees loſe their leaves, vegetation goes on ſlowly, and the winter is perceived, but ſo mild, that ſnow is never ſeen there; and the tendereſt plants of the Weſt Indies, ſuch as the plantain, the alligator pear-tree, the banana, the pine-apple, the ſugar-cane, &c. remain unhurt during the winter in the gardens of St. Auguſtine; that the fogs and dark gloomy weather, ſo common in England, are unknown in this country; and though at the equinoxes, the autumnal particularly, the rains fall very heavy every day for three weeks together, yet, when the ſhower is over, the ſky clears up immediately, and all is calm and ſerene. The air is pure and wholeſome, which appears from the ſize, vigour, and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who in theſe reſpects far exceed their more ſouthern neighbours, the Mexicans; and when the Spaniards quitted St. Auguſtine, many of them were very old, ſome upwards of 90. The ſoil near the ſea-coaſt, and 40 miles back, eſpecially in Eaſt Florida, is flat and ſandy, but in other parts it is rich and fertile.

The vegetables produced in the Floridas are Indian corn, pulſe, roots, herbs, hemp, flax, vines, prunes, and in ſome parts limes, oranges, and lemons. There is likewiſe a fruit called tura, ſo exquiſite and wholeſome, that the Europeans have given it the appellation of the cordial julip; oaks, pines, laurels, palms, cedars, cypreſſes, cheſnuts, ſaſſafras, cotton trees, and various others, are found here; as is ſilk-graſs, the root mendihoca, of which the caſſava flour and bread are made; alſo a ſpecies of grain reſembling our oats; and even the country round St. Auguſtine yields two crops of Indian corn a year. But the moſt ſingular production in the vegetable ſyſtem in this, or in any other country, is the cabbage-tree, called by ſome naturaliſts the palmello royal. The trunk bulges out a little near the ground, which gives it the becoming appearance of a ſubſtantial baſis to ſupport its towering weight. It is ſtreight as an arrow, riſes above an hundred feet in height, and the trunk near the earth is about ſix or ſeven feet in circumference, the whole body growing tapring to the top. The inſide texture of the leaves appears as thread-like filaments, which being ſpun are uſed in making cordage of every kind, as well as fiſhing-nets. What is called the cabbage lies in many thin, white, brittle flakes, which, when raw, have ſomething of the taſte of almonds, and when boiled ſomething of that of cabbage, but ſweeter and more agreeable.

A writer of reſpectable credit obſerves, that there is not, in the whole continent of America, any place better qualified by nature to afford not only all the neceſſaries

neceſſaries of life, but alſo all the pleaſures of habitation than that part of this country which lies upon the banks of the Miſſiſſippi.

Indigo is found in the greateſt plenty; and it is ſaid that great quantities of cochineal are to be met with here; alſo amethyſts, turquoiſes, lapis lazuli, and other precious ſtones; copper, quickſilver, pit-coal, and iron ore. The wild animals are the ſame as in the Carolinas and Georgia; black cattle and ſheep are found in vaſt plenty; and horſes are ſo numerous, that a good ſaddle-horſe may be purchaſed in exchange for goods of 5s. value prime coſt, and ſometimes for much leſs. The trade for furs, and various other branches, as likewiſe the fiſheries, might be rendered very profitable.

The Apulchian mountains, ſo often mentioned, are the moſt conſiderable; theſe give riſe to many of the noble rivers that run through the Floridas; the principal of which are the Miſſiſſippi, the Ohio, the Coza or Couſſa, and the river St. John. The Miſſiſſippi, which the French call St. Louis, is one of the fineſt rivers in the world, and ſuppoſed to run a courſe of 3000 miles, free from ſhoals and cataracts, and navigable within ſixty leagues of its ſource. Its numerous mouths, however, are in a manner choaked up by ſands, which deny acceſs to veſſels of any conſiderable burthen; and even the principal enterance is ſaid to have no more than twelve feet water on the bar, but within it is 100 fathom deep. The channel is every-where free from ſhallows, and the current gentle, except at a certain ſeaſon of the year, when, like the Nile, it becomes extremely rapid, and overflows its banks. The principal bays are, St. Barnard's, Aſcenſion, Mobille, Penſacola, Dauphin, Joſeph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles Bay. The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Sambles, Anclore, St. Auguſtine, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninſula. Pearls, it is ſaid, are found upon the coaſts.

The moſt conſiderable Indian tribes here are the Creeks, Cherokees, Choctaws, Chickeſaws, and Natches. Their hair is long and black. Both ſexes go naked, except a deer-ſkin round their waiſt. The men have robuſt bodies, and finely proportioned limbs. The women are handſome and well ſhaped; and ſo remarkably active, that they will ſwim acroſs broad rivers with their children on their backs, and and climb with ſurpriſing agility to the tops of the higheſt trees. In religion, they are bigotted idolaters; and the cruelty of the Spaniards has rendered Chriſtianity odious to them.

Penſacola is the chief town in Weſt-Florida, and is ſituated in 30 deg. 22 min. north lat. and 87 deg. 20 min. weſt long. within the bay of the ſame name, on a ſandy ſhore, acceſſible only by ſmall veſſels; but in the road, which is one of the beſt in all the gulf of Mexico, ſhips may lie ſecure againſt every kind of wind, being ſurrounded on all ſides by land. This place ſent in ſkins, logwood, dyeing ſtuff, and ſilver in dollars, to the yearly amount of 63,000l. and, at an average of three years, received to the value of 97,000l. of our manufactures.

The capital of Eaſt Florida is St. Auguſtine, in 29 deg. 45 min. north lat. and 81 deg. 12 min. weſt long. The town runs along the ſhore, is of an oblong form, divided by four regular ſtreets croſſing each other at right angles; it is fortified with baſtions, encloſed with a ditch, and defended by a caſtle called Fort St. John; and the whole is well furniſhed with cannon. At the enterance into the harbour are the north and ſouth breakers, which form two channels, whoſe bars have eight feet water at low tides.

It was natural to expect, from the luxuriancy of the ſoil, the ſalubrity of the air, the cheapneſs and plenty of proviſions, and the encouragement given by the Britiſh government for perſons to ſettle here, that the number of Engliſh inhabitants would have been much more conſiderable; but this defect is by ſome aſcribed to the injudicious management of the colony. However this may be, the reduction of Penſacola in 1781, by the arms of the king of Spain, and his poſſeſſion of this country at preſent, have deprived us of thoſe flattering proſpects of great advantages to England, which were expected to have been derived from our property in the Floridas.

There being many particulars reſpecting perſon, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, which are peculiar to the original Indians of Florida, we ſhall preſent them to the reader. They ſtain their ſkin with the juice of plants, and have long black hair, which they have a method of twiſting and binding upon the head, ſo as to render it rather becoming. The women, in general, have good features, and are well made. The men, being ſtout and well proportioned, make uſe of bows and arrows with great dexterity. The ſtrings of their bows are made of the ſinews of ſtags; and they point the ends of their arrows with ſharp ſtones, or the teeth of fiſhes.

In the management and diſtribution of their corn, which is accounted the common ſtock of the public, their œconomy is well worthy of notice. The crop, which is calculated to ſerve only half the year, is collected into granaries appointed for that purpoſe, and afterwards regularly delivered out to every family, in proportion to the number of perſons it contains. The ſoil is, indeed, capable of affording much more corn than they are able to conſume; but they chooſe to ſow no more than will ſerve them for that term, retiring, for the remainder of the year, into the receſſes of the foreſts, where they build huts of palm trees, and live upon roots, wild fowl, and fiſh. They are very fond of the fleſh of aligators, which has a ſtong muſky ſmell. Their meat is deſſed in the ſmoke upon a gridiron made of ſticks, and water ſerves for their common drink.

The people are, in general, ſatisfied with one wife, but the chiefs are indulged with more, though the children of only one of them ſucceed to the father's dignity.

The government of the original Floridas is in the hands of many chiefs, who are called Caciques. They are frequently at war with each other. In their warlike expeditions they carry with them honey and maize, and ſometimes fiſh dried in the ſun. The chief marches at the head, carries a bow in one hand, and a bow and arrows in the other; his quiver hangs at his back; and the reſt follow tumultuouſly with the ſame arms. In their warlike deliberations, if the matter be of great moment, their prieſts, who are alſo a kind of phyſicians, are called in, and their opinions particularly aſked. Then the cacique carries round a kind of liquor like our tea, made by the infuſion of the leaves of a certain tree.

They celebrate the funeral of a deceaſed cacique with great ſolemnity. They place upon his tomb the bowl out of which he was accuſtomed to drink, and ſtick great numbers of arrows in the earth around him, bewailing his death for three days with faſting and loud lamentations. The generality of them cut off their hair as a ſingular teſtimony of their ſorrow. Their chieftains alſo ſet fire to, and conſume, all the houſehold furniture, together with the hut that belonged to the deceaſed, after which ſome old women are deputed, who every day, during the ſpace of half a year, at morning, noon, and evening, bewail him with dreadful howlings, according to the practice of ſome more civilized nations, and particularly the ancient Romans, who frequently hired women at the funerals of their relations and friends.

CHAP.

CHAP. XIX.

NEW MEXICO, including CALIFORNIA.

Situation, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Vegetable Produce, Mines, Inhabitants, and Chief Towns.

NEW MEXICO is ſituated between 23 and 43 deg. of north lat. and between 94 and 126 deg. of weſt long. being about 2000 miles in length, and 1600 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by unknown lands, on the ſouth by Old Mexico and the Pacific Ocean, on the eaſt by Louiſiana, and on the weſt by the South Sea, and contans 600,000 ſquare miles. The diviſions, &c. are the following.

Divisions.	Subdivisons.	Ch. Towns.
North-eaſt diviſion	New Mexico proper	Santa Fé
South-eaſt diviſion	Aphaiera	St. Antonio.
South diviſion	Sonora	Tuape.
Weſt diviſion	California, a Peninſula	St. Juan.

The air of this extenſive country is in general clear and healthy, and the climate very pleaſant; the ſummers, though very warm, are neither ſultry nor unwholeſome, and the winters, though pretty ſharp, far from being inſupportable.

This country is beautifully diverſified with plains enamelled with flowers, gentle eminences clothed with beautiful trees of various kinds, ſome producing excellent fruit, and interſected with rivers and ſtreams of water. The ſoil in many places is exuberantly rich, and the provinces might be rendered one of the moſt delightful countries in America, or any other part of the world. A great variety both of wild and tame animals are found in this kingdom. Their vegetable productions conſiſt of piſtachios, figs of different colours, pompions, and water-melons of a prodigious ſize, grapes, &c. They have alſo a ſpecies of manna, being a juice which exudes from a particular ſpecies of roſe-tree, and has all the ſweetneſs of refined ſugar, though without its whiteneſs.

In New Mexico are rich mines of gold and ſilver, but their value cannot be aſcertained; turquoiſes, emeralds, and other precious ſtones are alſo found here. The multitude and variety of fiſh with which the rivers are ſupplied, is incredible: ſalmon, turbot, barbel, ſkate, mackerel, &c. alſo oyſters, cray-fiſh, lobſters, and other exquiſite ſhell-fiſh, abound in the gulf of California, which affords one of the richeſt pearl-fiſheries in the world; excellent turtle are alſo caught in the utmoſt plenty on the coaſt of the South-Sea; and in the heart of the country there are plains of ſalt quite firm, which, if the country ſhould ever be inhabited by an induſtrious trading people, would be of the utmoſt ſervice in curing the fiſh that are found on the coaſts.

Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico, in W. long. 104. N. lat. 36. ſtands near the Riodel Norte, and about 130 leagues from the gulf. It is ſaid to be a handſome, well built, rich town, and the ſeat of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Mexico, as well as of the governor of the province, who is ſubordinate to the viceroy of Old Mexico.

California was firſt diſcovered by Hernando Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; but Sir Francis Drake, our famous navigator, landed there in 1578, and took poſſeſſion of it, which was confirmed to him by the chief king of the peninſula, who formally inveſted him with his principality. Since that time, however, the Engliſh have never made any pretenſions to it, though their right is undoubtedly preferable to that of the Spaniards. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from thoſe of Old Mexico. Though the Spaniſh ſettlements here are at preſent comparatively weak, yet they are increaſing every day, in proportion as new mines are diſcovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spaniſh miſſionaries have in many places brought over to Chriſtianity, to a civilized life, and to raiſe corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to New Spain.

The original Indians who inhabit California are, in geneal, well formed and robuſt, of a healthy countenance, but ſwarthy complexion. Their habitations are wretched huts, built near the few ſtreams, wells, and ponds found in the country. As they are under the neceſſity of frequent migrations in ſearch of food, they eaſily ſhift their reſidence, it requiring only the labour of a few hours to build a little habitation fitted for all their purpoſes; and it is uſual with them, in the ſeverity of winter, to live in ſubterraneous caverns. Their furniture and property conſiſts of implements for fiſhing, hunting, and war, in which moſt of their time is ſpent. Their boats are only rafts; and their arms are bows, arrows, and jagged clubs.

The dreſs of the men is little more than a girdle round the waiſt, with a few ornaments about their hair. The women wear their hair looſe. They have alſo a kind of cloak and petticoat, made of palm leaves; ſome wear fillets of neat net-work. Their arms are likewiſe frequently adorned with net-work, or ſtrings of pearls in the form of bracelets. The love of ornament prevails among the women more than among the men. Their greateſt ingenuity appears in their fiſhing nets, which are made with admirable ſkill, of various colours, and ſuch diverſity of texture and workmanſhip, as cannot be deſcribed.

At the gathering in of the fruits of the earth, they have a high feſtival, when they indulge themſelves in feaſting, dancing, and mirth.

CHAP XX.

OLD MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climates, Soil, Vegetable Productions, Rich Mines, Inhabitants, Trade.

THIS country is ſituated between the 83d and 110th deg. of weſt long. and the 8th and 30th deg. of north lat. being 2,000 miles in length, and 600 in breadth, and contains 318,000 ſquare miles. It is bound by New Mexico, or Granada, on the north: by the gulf of Mexico, on the north-eaſt; by Terra Firma, on the ſouth-eaſt; by the Pacific Ocean, on the ſouth-weſt, and is divided into the three following audiences, viz.

Audiences.	Provinces.	Ch. Towns.
I. GALICIA	Guadalajarra	Guadalajarra
	Zacatecas	Zacatecas.
	New Biſcay	St. Barbara.
	Cinoloa	Cinoloa.
	Culiacan	Culiacan.
	Charmetlan	Charmetlan.
	Xaliſco	Xaliſco.
II. MEXICO	Mexico	Mexico.
		Acapulco.
	Mechoacan	Mechoacan.
	Panuco	Tampice.
	Tlaſcala	Tlaſcala.
		Vera Cruz.
	Guaxaca	Guaxaca.
	Tobaſco	Tobaſco.
	Jucatan	Campeachy.
	Chiapa	Chiapa.
	Soconuſco	Soconuſco.
III. GUATIMALA	Verapaz	Verapaz.
	Guatimala	Guatimala.
	Honduras	Valladolid.
	Nicaragua	Nicaragua
	Coſta Rica	Nicoya.
	Veragua	Santa Fé.

The

The gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras, are on the north ſea; and the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco and Salinas, are in the Pacific Ocean. The capes in the North-Sea are, Cape Sardo, St. Martin, Corunduceda, Caroche, Honduras, Camereon, Graiſas Dios; and thoſe in the South-Sea are, Cape Marques, Spirito Sancto, Corientes, Gallero, Blanco, Burica, Pruereos, and Mala.

Moſt part of Mexico being ſituated within the torrid zone, the climate is very hot; but this heat is in a great meaſure allayed by the land and ſea breezes, which blow alternately. The greateſt heats are during the months of February, March, and April, when the ſun is ſeldom ſhaded by a cloud, and in many places the waters are entirely dried up. Towards the latter end of April the rainy ſeaſon comes on, and continues till the month of September, being always preceded by the moſt dreadful tempeſts of thunder, lightning, and winds, which the Spaniards term tornadoes. At this time, all along the eaſtern coaſt, where the land is low and marſhy, it is flooded, and always extremely unwholeſome; but on the weſtern ſide, which lies higher, and in the inland parts, the air is more temperate and ſalutary. About the full and change of the moon, the winds in the gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent ſeas, blow ſtrongly from the north. Trade-winds prevail every where at a diſtance from land within the tropic; and near the coaſt in the South-Sea, they have the monſoons, or periodical winds.

The ſoil is various, but in moſt places rich, fertile, and proper for culture, and were the inhabitants induſtrious, all ſorts of grain might be produced here.

No country under heaven has a greater variety of vegetable productions than Mexico. Beridel-maize, its native grain, pine-apples, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, grow here in the greateſt plenty and perfection. This country alſo produces a great quantity of ſugar, eſpecially towards the gulf of Mexico, and the provinces of Guaxaca and Guatimala. The Maho-tree alſo flouriſhes here, and furniſhes the natives with thread for linen and cordage. Copal, aninies, tacamahuca, carinica, liquid amber, guaiacum, china-root, ſarſaparilla, and lightwood-tree, are among the productions of New Spain. The bays of Campeachy and Hunduras afford cedar trees and logwood. But the prodigious mines of gold and ſilver with which this part of North America abounds, was the firſt inducement the Spaniards had to ſettle in it. Theſe valuable productions are generally found in the mountainous and barren parts of the country; the principal gold mines being in Veragua and New Granada, while thoſe of ſilver, which are much richer, as well as more numerous, are found in ſeveral parts, but in none ſo much as the province of Mexico.

Gold is diſcovered either in the ſand of rivers, native, and in ſmall grains, or it is dug out of the earth, in the ſame condition, in ſmall pieces, almoſt wholly metallic, and of a tolerable purity; or it is found, like the ore of other metals, in an aggregate opaque maſs, in a mixture of earth, ſtone, ſulphur, and other metals: in this ſtate it is of all colours, and makes very little ſhew of the riches it contains. But gold, however found, whether native, or in what is called the ore, is ſeldom or ever without a mixture of other metals, which are moſt commonly ſilver or copper. When the ore is dug out of the mine, the moſt uſual method is to break it to pieces in a mill; the gold is then ſeparated as much as poſſible from the impure maſs by repeated waſhings, and mixed with a quantity of quickſilver, which has, of all other bodies, the greateſt attraction to gold. This therefore immediately breaks the links whereby it was held to the former earth, and adheres cloſely to this congenial ſubſtance. It is then put into a trough, and a rapid ſtream of water ſuffered to run upon it, which ſcouring away, through a hole made on purpoſe, the lighter earth leaves the gold and mercury, precipitated by its weight, at the bottom. This amalgama, or paſte, is put put into a linen cloth, where it is ſqueezed ſo as to make part of the quickſilver ſeparate and run out; but to complete this ſeparation entirely, it is neceſſary to fuſe the metal, and then all the mercury flies off in fumes.

Silver, the ſecond metal in rank, is the firſt in conſequence to the Spaniards, as their mines yield a much greater quantity of it, than of gold. It is found in the earth under different forms; the manner of refining it does not eſſentially differ from the proceſs which is employed for gold, though the method of purifying it is much more difficult.

Old Mexico, with the other provinces of Spaniſh America, ſupply the whole world with ſilver; and it is ſaid that the revenues of Mexico, proceeding from gold and ſilver only, amount to 24,000,000l. ſterling annually. Cochineal and cocoa are the next important articles to gold and ſilver; the former is uſed in dyeing, and alſo in medicine as a ſudorific and cordial; of the latter chocolate is made. This country is alſo ſaid to produce ſilk and cotton in great abundance, and to contain precious ſtones, jaſper, porphyry, exquiſite marble, amber, and pearl.

The inhabitants of New Spain are compoſed of Whites, Indians, Negroes, and the ſeveral mixtures of theſe. Theſe mixtures form various gradations, which are carefully diſtinguiſhed from each other, becauſe every perſon expects to be regarded in proportion as a greater ſhare of Spaniſh blood runs in his veins. The firſt diſtinction ariſing from the intermarriage of the Whites with the Negroes, is that of the Mulattoes, which is well known. Next to theſe are the Tercerones, produced from a White and Mulatto: from the intermarriage with theſe and the Whites, ariſes the Quarterones, who though ſtill nearer the former, are diſgraced with a tint of Negro blood. The race deſcending from theſe and the Whites are the Quinterones, who are only to be diſtinguiſhed from the Spaniards by being of a fairer complexion. The ſame gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the Mulattoes and the Negroes; beſides which there are a thouſand others, ſome of which are ſcarcely known even by the natives themſelves. The whites are either born in Old Spain, or are Creoles. Thoſe who are native Spaniards are moſtly in offices or in trade. They poſſeſs the ſame character and manners with the Spaniards of Europe; the ſame gravity of behaviour; the ſame natural ſagacity and good ſenſe; the ſame indolence, and a yet greater ſhare of pride and ſtatelineſs. The Creoles, who are deſcendants of the native Spaniards, but born in the country, have little of that courage, firmneſs, and patience, which conſtitute one of the fineſt parts of the character of their anceſtors, but are univerſally weak and effeminate. Reſiding conſtantly in an enervating heat, ſurfeited with wealth, and giving up their whole time to loitering and inactive pleaſures, they have nothing bold or manly to fit them for making a figure in active life, and few of them have any taſte for the ſatisfactions of a learned retirement: luxurious without variety or elegance, and expenſive with parade and little convenience; their general character is no more than a grave and ſpecious inſignificance. They are temperate in eating and drinking, and their whole buſineſs ſeems to be amour and intrigue, which they carry on in the old Spaniſh taſte, by doing and ſaying extravagant things, by bad muſic, worſe poetry, and exceſſive expences. The ladies are not diſtinguiſhed by their great chaſtity, or domeſtic virtues. One fifth of the white people are prieſts, monks, and nuns, of all orders, who enjoy immenſe revenues: but in general the clergy there are too ignorant to be able inſtructors by their preaching, and too looſe and debauched in their own manners to inſtruct by their

 example;

example; ſo that the people, over whom they have great influence, are little the better for their numbers. The Indians, whatever they were formerly, are now humble, dejected, timorous, and docile. Their numbers are ſtill conſiderable, and they are treated by the Spaniards with the greateſt haughtineſs. The negroes who are imported from Africa, like thoſe of our colonies, are ſtubborn, hardy, of little underſtanding, and fitted for the groſs ſlavery they endure.

The civil government of Old Mexico is adminiſtered by tribunals, called audiences, conſiſting of a certain number of judges, divided into different chambers, which bear ſome reſemblance to the parliaments in France. At the head of the chief of theſe chambers the viceroy himſelf preſides when he thinks proper: his employment is one of the greateſt for truſt and power the King of Spain has in his gift, and is perhaps the greateſt government intruſted to any ſubject in the world; but neither the viceroy, nor any other officer, is ſuffered to hold his poſt longer than three years. In this reſpect, as in all others relative to the Indies, the ſpirit of jealouſy influences all the regulations of the court of Spain, and is attended with this very bad effect, that every officer, from the higheſt to the loweſt, has the avidity which a new lucrative poſt inſpires; ravenous, becauſe his time is ſhort, he oppreſſes the people and defrauds the crown; another ſucceeds him with the ſame diſpoſitions; and no man is ambitious to eſtabliſh any uſeful amendment in his office, knowing that his ſucceſſor will trample upon every regulation which is not ſubſervient to his own intereſts.

A council for the Indies is eſtabliſhed in Old Spain, which conſiſts of a governor, four ſecretaries, twenty-two counſellors, and other officers. The members are generally choſen from the viceroys, and others who have been employed in America, and their deciſion is final in matters relative to that country.

There are ſome troops kept in New Spain, and a good revenue appropriated for their maintenance, and for the ſupport of the fortifications: but the ſoldiers are few, ill clothed, ill paid, and worſe diſciplined.

Mexico, the capital city, ſtands in the midſt of a great lake of its own name, in lat. 19 deg. 40 min. about 170 miles weſt of the gulf of Mexico. The ſtreets are ſtraight, and ſo exactly diſpoſed, that, from any part of the town, the whole is viſible; the public edifices are magnificent, and the inhabitants are computed at 300,000. This city may be reckoned the centre of commerce in theſe parts; for here the principal merchants reſide, and the greateſt part of the buſineſs is negotiated. The Eaſt-India goods from Acapuclo, and the European from Vera Cruz, paſs through it. Hither all the gold and ſilver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is depoſited, and here are wrought all thoſe utenſils and ornaments in plate which are every year ſent into Europe. Acapulco ſtands in 17 deg. north lat. on a large and commodious bay of the South-Sea, about 110 miles ſouth-eaſt from Mexico. The town is large, but ill built; a part of it conſiſts of warehouſes. The above deſcribed are the moſt conſiderable places: we ſhall only add to this article, that, on the ſeventh of June 1773, the city of Guatimala was ſwallowed up by an earthquake, when 8000 families inſtantly periſhed. New Guatimala, which ſtands at ſome diſtance, is well inhabited.—

The whole of the trade between Old Spain and the Spaniſh American dominions, is by means of a fleet, called the flota, which is fitted out at Cadiz, and diſtined to La Vera Cruz. The ſhips are not permitted to break bulk, on any account, till they arrive there. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, cochineal, indigo, cocoa, tobacco, ſugar, and hides, which are the returns for Old Spain. From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havannah, which is the place of their rendezvous, where they meet the galleons. Theſe are another fleet, which carry on all the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena; and of Peru, by Panama and Porto-Bello; in the ſame manner as the flota ſerves for New Spain. When the flota arrives at the Havannah, and joins the galleons and regiſter ſhips, which aſſemble at the ſame port from all quarters, ſome of the cleaneſt and beſt ſailing veſſels are diſpatched to Old Spain, with advice of the contents of theſe ſeveral fleets, as well as with treaſure and goods of their own, that the court may judge what indulto or duty is proper to be laid on them, and what convoy is neceſſary for their ſafety.

Regiſter-ſhips are ſent out by merchants at Cadiz and Seville, when they judge that goods muſt be wanted at any particular ports in the Weſt-Indies. Their way is, to petition the council of the Indians for a licence to ſend a ſhip of 300 tons burthen, or under, to that port; they pay for this licence forty or fifty dollars, beſides preſents to the officers, in proportion to the connivance neceſſary to the deſign; for, though the licence runs only to 300 tons at moſt, the veſſel fitted out is ſeldom leſs than 600. This ſhip and cargo are regiſtered at the pretended burthen: it is required too, that a certificate be brought from the king's officer at the port to which ſhe is bound, that ſhe does not exceed the ſize at which ſhe is regiſtered; all this paſſes of courſe. Theſe are what they call regiſter-ſhips, and by theſe the trade of Spaniſh America has been carried on for many years paſt.

Though this trade is carried on entirely through the hands of the Spaniards, and in the very heart of their dominions, yet they are comparatively but ſmall gainers by it; for, as they allow the Dutch, the Engliſh, and other commercial ſtates, to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the flota, ſo the Spaniſh inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the ſame indolence which ruined their European anceſtors, permit the Chineſe merchants to furniſh moſt of the cargo of the galleons. We are however told, that, notwithſtanding great quantities of gold and ſilver are run and concealed, no leſs than 2,000,000 of ſilver marks, weighing eight ounces each, are entered yearly, out of which they coin 700,000 marks into pieces of eight, quarter-pieces, rials, and half-pieces, the value of the latter being about three-pence ſterling.

The ſacrifices of the ancient Mexicans were various, and horrid beyond expreſſion. In general the victims ſuffered death by having their breaſts opened; ſometimes they were drowned in a lake; ſometimes they died with hunger ſhut up in caverns of the mountains; and ſometimes they fell in what was called the gladiatorian ſacrifice.

The place for the performance of the common ſacrifice was the temple, in the upper area of which ſtood the altar. The miniſters were the prieſts, the chief of whom, on ſuch occaſions, was cloathed in a red habit fringed with cotton. On his head he wore a crown of green and yellow feathers. The other miniſters, which were five in number, were dreſſed in habits of the ſame make, but embroidered with black, and their bodies were dyed all over with the ſame colour. Theſe barbarous miniſters carried the victim naked to the upper area of the temple, and having pointed out to the by-ſtanders the idol to whom the ſacrifice was made, extended him upon the altar. Four prieſts held his legs and arms, and another kept his head firm with a wooden inſtrument made in the form of a coiled ſerpent, and put about his neck. The body of the victim lay arched, the breaſt and belly being raiſed up and totally prevented from moving. The inhuman chief prieſt then approached, and with a cutting knife made of flint dexterouſly opened the breaſt, and tore out the heart, which, while yet palpitating, he offered to the ſun,

and

and afterwards threw it at the feet of the idol: he then took it up and burnt it, and the aſhes were preſerved as a precious relic. If the idol was of large ſize and hollow form, it was cuſtomary to introduce the heart of the victim into its mouth with a golden ſpoon. It was uſual alſo to anoint the lips of the idol, and the cornices of the door of the temple, with the blood of the victim. If the victim was a priſoner of war, they ſevered the head from the body, to prſerve the ſkull. The body was carried by the officer, or ſoldier, to whom the priſoner had belonged, to his houſe, to be boiled and dreſſed for the entertainment of his friends. If he was not a priſoner of war, but a ſlave purchaſed for ſacrifice, the proprietor carried off the body from the altar for the ſame purpoſe. They eat only the legs, thighs, and arms, burning the reſt, or preſerving it for food for wild beaſts and birds of prey. Some ſects among them having ſlain the victim, tore the body in pieces, which they ſold at market. Others ſacrificed men to their gods, women to their goddeſſes, and children to their inferior deities. This was the moſt common mode of ſacrifice: there were others leſs frequent; ſuch as putting the victims to death by fire, drowning children of both ſexes in the lake, ſhutting them up in a cavern, and ſuffering them to periſh with fear and hunger.

But the principal ſacrifice among the ancient Mexicans was that called by the Spaniards the Gladiatorian. This was an honourable death, and only priſoners diſtinguiſhed by their valour were permitted to die by it. The priſoner was placed on a ſtone in a conſpicuous part of the city, armed with a ſhield and a ſhort ſword, and tied by one foot. A Mexican officer, or ſoldier, better armed, mounted the ſtone to combat with him. If the priſoner was vanquiſhed, he was carried by a prieſt, dead or alive, to the altar of the common ſacrifices, where his breaſt was opened, and his heart taken out, while the victor was applauded and rewarded with ſome military honour. If the priſoner conquered ſix different combatants, who ſucceſſively engaged him, he had his life and liberty granted, and was diſmiſſed with honour to his native country.

HISTORY OF MEXICO,

AND CONQUEST OF IT BY THE SPANIARDS.

MEXICO was under the ſole government of its own monarchs, till the Spaniards, under the command of Fernando Cortez, invaded and conquered it. This expedition was undertaken with only 508 foot, ſixteen troopers, and 108 ſeamen. Cortez, with his forces, landed on the coaſt of the bay of Campeachy, and having diſperſed the natives with his artillery, marched to the city of Tobaſco, which he ſeized upon. The next day the Indians aſſembled an army of 40,000 men, with which they attacked the Spaniards; but Cortez, at the head of the horſe, attacking them in the flank, they retired. The day after the battle, the cacique, or prince, ſent a ſolemn embaſſy to Cortez, to implore peace, attended with a preſent of ſuch fruits and proviſions as his country afforded, together with jewels, plumes, and painted cotton linen, and whatever he thought moſt acceptable to the conquerors. The ambaſſadors approached Cortez as they uſed to do their gods, with golden pads or cenſers, in which they burnt aromatic gums, and other incenſe: the cacique afterwards came in perſon, and made his ſubmiſſion, bringing him twenty beautiful Indian virgins, which he made Cortez a preſent of. One of theſe, whom the general afterwards cauſed to be baptized by the name of Donna Marina, ſerved him, during the whole expedition, in the double capacity of concubine and interpreter; for ſhe was a native of Mexico, a female of ready wit, and underſtood the cuſtoms of the country, and the language perfectly well; and indeed to her merit and addreſs the Spaniards aſcribe the ſucceſs of their arms in a great meaſure. When the cacique of Tobaſco came to make his ſubmiſſion, Cortez let him know, that he came from a powerful prince; and that his principal view was to make them all happy in this world and the next, by making them ſubjects of the ſame ſovereign, and converting them to the true religion. To this the frighted cacique anſwered, that he and his people ſhould think themſelves happy in obeying a king, whoſe power and greatneſs appeared to ſuch advantage in the valour of his ſubjects: but as to the point of religion, he gave very little hopes of their converſion.

As Cortez was about to advance ſtill further with his fleet on the Mexican coaſt, he was under the greateſt concern that he muſt leave thoſe people before he had fully inſtructed them in the Catholic religion; and on Palm-Sunday, the day he appointed to embark his troops, he firſt cauſed an altar to be erected in the open field, where he celebrated high maſs in the preſence of the Indians, and all his troops marched in their ranks to the altar, with boughs or palms in their hands, to celebrate that feſtival: the proceſſion ſeemed to excite in the natives the utmoſt awe and reverence, inſomuch that ſome of them cried out, "This muſt be a great God, that ſuch brave men adore." Cortez ſailed to the port of St. John de Ulva, where he landed, and Donna Marina acted as interpreter.

When the general was informed that Montezuma, the Emperor of Mexico, had ſent to know the reaſon of the Spaniards invading his country, he anſwered ambiguouſly, but ſtill preſerved his deſign of penetrating into the country. Montezuma, in all his meſſages, tried to prevent the Spaniards from coming to Mexico, and Cortez as inflexibly perſiſted in that intent. He foreſaw that the Mexicans would not be able to prevent his approaching Mexico, eſpecially as he was joined, about this time, by a cacique, or prince of the country, named Zempoala, who offered to enter into an alliance with Cortez againſt Montezuma, whom he repreſented as a cruel tyrant and oppreſſor. The cacique furniſhed him with 400 men to carry his baggage, and others to draw his artillery, there not being any beaſts in this part of the country fit to draw carriages, but every thing of this kind was done by the ſtrength of men.

The Spaniſh commander continuing his march by the ſea-coaſt to Vera Cruz, was joined there by about thirty caciques from the mountains, who reinforced his troops with 100,000 men; and ſome parties of Europeans, hearing of the ſucceſs of Cortez, alſo voluntarily followed him thither, and joined his troops: whereupon he became ſo confident, that he burnt all his ſhips, and having fortified Vera Cruz, in which he left a ſmall garriſon, he began his march directly for the city of Mexico, being joined by the people of Tlaſcala, a country of great extent, who offered to become ſubjects of the King of Spain; at which Montezuma was ſo alarmed, that he offered to pay the Spaniards an annual tribute, amounting to one half of his revenues; and, when he found it in vain to oppoſe the general's march, he thought fit to give him an invitation to his capital; but Cortez, who was determined to have the plunder of the capital city, pretended that the Mexicans were not ſincere in their invitation, but had entered into a conſpiracy to ſurpriſe the Spaniards, when they had drawn them into an ambuſcade, and maſſacre them; and, therefore immediately began hoſtilities, and cut to pieces ſome thouſands of Montezuma's ſubjects.

The Spaniards, after this, continuing their march, were attended by ſeveral other caciques and lords of the country, who complained of the intolerable oppreſſions of Montezuma; telling Cortez, that they looked upon him as their deliverer, ſent from heaven to reſtrain and puniſh the injuſtice and cruelty of tyrants: to whom he promiſed his protection, and drawing

ing near to Mexico, in order to ſtrike the greater terror into the natives, he ordered his artillery and ſmall arms to be diſcharged; and cauſed ſeveral Indians to be ſhot, that approached too near his quarters, while he lay encamped at Amemeca, on the borders of the Mexican lake. Here Prince Cacumatzin, the the nephew of Montezuma, attended by the Mexican nobility, came to the general, and bid him welcome; aſſuring him, that he would meet with a very kind and honourable reception from the emperor; but intimated, that there having been lately a great ſcarcity of proviſions in the city of Mexico, occaſioned by unſeaſonable weather, they could not accommodate them as they deſired; and, therefore, entreated he would defer his entrance into that capital, if he did not think fit entirely to decline going thither. But Cortez appearing determined to advance, the prince ſeemed to acquieſce; and the preparations for the reception of the Spaniards were continued.

Arriving at Quitlavaca, a city ſituated on an iſland in the great lake, five or ſix leagues from Mexico, Cortez had ſome apprehenſions that the Mexicans would break down the cauſeway, and remove the bridges on it, which would have very much embarraſſed him, becauſe he could neither have advanced or retired in that caſe, eſpecially with his horſe and artillery. But the cacique of Quitlavaca, who appeared to be a friend of the Spaniards, very much encouraged the general, telling him, he had nothing to fear; that the prodigies in the heavens, the anſwers of the oracles, and the fame of the great actions and ſurpriſing arms of the Spaniards, had perfectly diſpirited their emperor, and diſpoſed him to ſubmit to whatever the general ſhould impoſe on him. Soon after, Cortez entered Mexico at the head of 450 Spaniards and 6000 Tlaſcalans; when they were met by Montezuma himſelf, who was brought in a chair of beaten gold, on the ſhoulders of his favourite courtiers. The conference between the emperor and the general was ſhort, their ſpeeches were ſuitable to the occaſion, and the emperor commanded one of the princes, his relation, to conduct the general to the palace aſſigned for his reſidence, and then returned to his own palace.

About noon, the Spaniards were brought to the royal houſe appointed for their reception, which was ſo ſpacious, as to contain all the Europeans and their auxiliaries: it had thick ſtone walls, flanked with towers: the roof of the palace was flat, and defended by battlements and breaſt work; inſomuch that, when the general had planted his arrtillery, and placed his guards, it had very much the appearance of a fortreſs. To this place Montezuma came the ſame evening, and was received by Cortez in the principal ſquare of the palace; and that monarch having entered the room of ſtate, and ſeated himſelf, ordered a chair for Cortez, and a ſignal was made for his courtiers to retire to the wall: whereupon the Spaniſh officers did the ſame; and Cortez being about to begin his ſpeech by his interpreters, Montezuma prevented him, by ſpeaking as follows;

"Illuſtrious and valiant ſtranger! Before you diſcloſe the important meſſage the great monarch you came from has given you in command, it is neceſſary ſome allowance be made for what fame has reported of us on either ſide. You may have been informed by ſome, that I am one of the immortal gods; that my wealth is immenſely great, and my palaces covered with gold: and on the other hand, you may have heard that I am tyrannical, proud and cruel. But both the one and the other have equally impoſed upon you: you ſee I am a mortal of the ſame ſpecies with other men; and though my riches are conſiderable, my vaſſals make them much more than they are; and you find that the walls of my palaces are nothing more than plain lime and ſtone. In like manner, no doubt, has the ſeverity of my government been magnified: but ſuſpend your judgment of the whole, till you have an opportunity of informing yourſelf concerning it; and you will find that what my rebellious ſubjects call oppreſſion, is nothing more than the neceſſary execution of juſtice.

"After the ſame manner have your actions been repreſented to us: ſome ſpeak of you as gods; affirming that the wild beaſts obey you; that you graſp the thunder in your hands, and command the elements: while others aſſure me, you are wicked, revengeful, proud, and tranſported with an inſatiable thirſt after the gold our country produces.

"I am now ſenſible ye are of the ſame compoſition and form of other men, and diſtinguiſhed from us only by accidents which the difference of countries occaſions.

"Theſe beaſts (horſes) that obey you are, probably, a large ſpecies of deer, that you have tamed and bred up in ſuch imperfect knowledge as may be attained by animals: your arms are made of a metal, indeed, unknown to us, and the fire you diſcharge from them, with ſuch an aſtoniſhing ſound, may be ſome ſecret taught by your magicians. As to your actions, my ambaſſadors and ſervants inform me, that you are pious, courteous, and governed by reaſon: that you bear hardſhips with patience and chearfulneſs, and are rather liberal than covetous; ſo that we muſt, on both ſides, lay aſide our prejudices and prepoſſeſſions, and rely only on what our eyes and experience teach us."

To this the general anſwered, "That it was true, various were the reports they had heard: ſome endeavoured to defame and aſperſe him, while others adored him. But the Spaniards, who were endowed with a penetrating ſpirit, eaſily ſaw through the different colours of diſcourſe, and the deceit of the heart; that they neither gave credit to his rebellious ſubjects, or thoſe that flattered him; but came in his preſence, aſſured that he was a great prince, and a friend to reaſon; but very well ſatisfied, however, that he was a mortal, as they themſelves were: that the beaſts which obeyed him were not deer, but fierce and generous animals, inclined to war, and ſeemed to aſpire after the ſame glory as their maſters. That their fire-arms were, indeed, the effect of human induſtry, and owed nothing to the ſkill of the magician, whoſe arts were abominated by the Spaniards."

Cortez, having thus given ſome anſwer to the emperor's ſpeech, proceeded to inform him, "That he came ambaſſador from the moſt potent monarch under the ſun, to deſire his friendſhip and alliance: that there might be a communication and intercourſe between their reſpective dominions: and by that means, the Chriſtians might have an opportunity of convincing them of their errors, and, inſtead of blocks of wood (the works of men's hands) inſtruct them to worſhip and adore the true God, the Creator of the whole univerſe. That this was the firſt and principal thing the king his maſter commanded him to inſiſt on as the moſt likely means of eſtabliſhing a laſting amity; that, being united in principles of religion, their alliance might become indiſſoluble."

The emperor replied, that, "he accepted the alliance propoſed by the King of Spain; but as to the overture concerning religion, he totally objected to it;" and making Cortez a rich preſent, returned to his palace.

For ſome time, Cortez continued very intimate with Montezuma, often viſiting the Mexican court; and that monarch frequently came to the Spaniſh quarters, making preſents to the general, and to his officers and ſoldiers, exhibiting ſhews and entertainments for their diverſion. The Mexicans ſtill treated the Spaniards with a reſpect that ſavoured of great humility and condeſcenſion. Montezuma ſpoke of their king with the greateſt veneration. His nobility paid a profound reſpect to the Spaniſh officers, and the people bowed the knee to the meaneſt Spaniſh ſoldier.

But

But an accident happened, which very much leſſened the eſteem, or rather dread, the Mexicans at firſt entertained of theſe foreigners. It was this: One of the emperor's generals, levying the annual tax impoſed on the vaſſal princes in that part of the country, which lay in the neighbourhood of the Spaniſh garriſon of Vera Cruz, theſe caciques, who had thrown off their ſubjection to the Mexican empire, and entered into alliance with the Spaniards, applied themſelves to John de Eſcalante, governor of Vera Cruz, for protection; who thereupon marched out of that fortreſs, with 40 Spaniards, and 3 or 4000 confederate Indians, to their aſſiſtance; and though he had the good fortune to defeat the Mexican general, yet one of the Spaniards was killed, and his head ſent up to the court; and the governor, with five or ſix more of his garriſon, were mortally wounded. This news being brought to Cortez, gave him great uneaſineſs; and the more, becauſe he was informed by the confederate Indians, that the Mexicans were conſulting how to drive him out of their territories, which they did not apprehend to be impracticable ſince the engagement near Vera Cruz. The Spaniſh general, therefore, finding it impoſſible to maintain his authority among the Indians any longer, without entering on ſome action that might give them freſh cauſe of aſtoniſhment, and recover that reputation they ſeemed to have loſt by that unfortunate accident, reſolved to ſeize the perſon of Montezuma, and bring him priſoner to his quarters; and accordingly, at an hour when the Spaniards were uſed to pay their court to that prince, Cortez, having given orders for his men to arm themſelves without noiſe, and poſſeſs themſelves of all the avenues leading to the palace, in ſmall parties, that no notice might be taken of it, went to the Mexican court, attended by ſeveral of his officers, and 30 ſoldiers, whoſe reſolution he could rely on, and being admitted to the emperor's preſence, he complained of the violation of the peace between them, by one of the Mexican generals falling upon his confederates, and afterwards killing a Spaniard he had taken in cool blood. To which Montezuma anſwered, "That if any thing of that nature had been done, it was without his orders; and he was ready to make ſatisfaction for any injury that might have been done undeſignedly, either to the Spaniards or their allies." But Cortez gave him to underſtand, that nothing would ſatisfy them but his ſurrendering himſelf into their hands, and reſiding with them in the palace aſſigned to the Spaniards for their quarters.

This inſolent demand at firſt aſtoniſhed Montezuma, who remained for ſome time ſilent; but recovering from his ſurpriſe, he ſaid, that princes of his rank were not accuſtomed to yield themſelves up to a priſon; nor would his ſubjects permit this, even if he ſhould forget his dignity ſo far. Cortez anſwered, "If he would go along with them voluntarily, they were not afraid of any oppoſition his ſubjects ſhould make; and they would treat him with all the regard due to his dignity: he might continue to exerciſe his authority as formerly, and no reſtraint ſhould be put on his actions; only, for their ſecurity, he inſiſted that the emperor ſhould reſide among them." Montezuma, ſtill refuſing to put himſelf into their hands, was given to underſtand, that if he would not, they would carry him off by force, or murder him if they were oppoſed; whereupon he ſubmitted to do what he found it was impoſſible to avoid; and gave orders to his officers to prepare for his removal to the Spaniſh quarters, whither he went in the uſual ſtate, and voluntarily, to all appearance, except that he was attended by a company of Spaniards, who ſurrounded his chair.

The Indian monarch, as muſt be eaſily ſuppoſed, was rendered very miſerable by this indignity; and his ſervants, lamenting their emperor's hard fate, threw themſelves at his feet, endeavouring to eaſe him of the weight of his fetters; and though, when he recovered from his firſt amazement, he began to expreſs ſome impatience, yet, correcting himſelf, he acquieſced in his misfortunes, and waited the event, not without apprehenſions that there was a deſign againſt his life: but Cortez having ſeen his plan performed, by which he found he had ſtruck ſuch a terror into the Mexicans, that little was to be feared from them, he returned to Montezuma's apartment, and ordered his fetters to be taken off; and, as ſome writers relate, he fell on his knees, and took them off with his own hands; for which favour the empeperor embraced and thanked him. But, what is ſtill more difficult to be believed, they aſſure us, that Cortez gave the emperor leave to return to his palace, and that he refuſed the offer, out of regard to the Spaniards; telling them, he knew very well that as ſoon as he was put out of their power, his ſubjects would preſs him to take up arms againſt them, to revenge the wrongs he had ſuffered: nay, the Spaniſh hiſtorians poſitively affirm, that, notwithſtanding all the injuries and indignities they had offered to Montezuma, he expreſſed a more than ordinary friendſhip and regard for them, preferring their intereſt to that of his own ſubjects.

The Spaniſh hiſtorian, De Solis, relates, that Cortez gave Montezuma leave to go whither he pleaſed, which he ſeems to contradict in a very few lines afterwards: for he tells us, when that prince only deſired to perform his devotions in one of his temples, it was granted upon certain conditions, namely, that he ſhould give his royal word to return to the Spaniſh quarters again, and from that day aboliſh human ſacrifices; and we make no doubt but they inſiſted on a third, viz. that he ſhould take a guard of Spaniards with him; for they acknowledge that a body of Spaniards actually attended him to the temple, which they could do with no other view than that of ſecuring their priſoner: though De Solis ſays, indeed, it was at the requeſt of Montezuma that they went with him: nor did he ever go abroad without a Spaniſh guard, or without aſking leave of Cortez; or ever lay one night out of their quarters, by their own confeſſion; which they would have us aſcribe purely to choice, and his affection to the Spaniards, who had put ſuch indignities upon him. They add, that Cortez was now become his prime miniſter; that all poſts of honour or profit were diſpoſed of by him and his principal officers, who were courted by the Mexican nobility, when they ſaw that no places or preferments could be had but by their intereſt: which poſſibly might be true; but ſurely it is much more probable that Montezuma was influenced more by his fears than his affection for the Spaniards. And we may obſerve from hence, that, with all theſe advantages, Cortez, and his Spaniards, might have eſtabliſhed their power upon ſuch a foundation, as could not eaſily have been overthrown, without ſuch a deluge of blood as they ſpilt afterwards, if Cortez had been as able a politician as he was a ſoldier; or if his benevolence and humanity had exceeded his cruelty and avarice.

Cortez ſeems to have left ſcarce any means untried for his ſecurity and eſtabliſhment but the principal, namely, gaining the affections of the Indians, and winning them over to his party, as well as to the Chriſtian religion, by acts of generoſity and beneficence. He was ſo careful of himſelf, that he cauſed ſome brigantines to be built on the lake of Mexico, whereby he entirely commanded the lake, and the cauſeways leading to the city; and at the ſame time he increaſed his reputation with the Mexicans by the artful management of thoſe veſſels; for the Indians were, at this time, ignorant of the uſe of ſails and rudders.

About this time, Don Diego Velaſques, governor of Cuba, being informed that Cortez had met with great ſucceſs in Mexico, and was endeavouring to render himſelf independent of him, declared him a

rebel, and ſent Pamphilio de Narvaez, with 800 men, to reduce him, and take upon him the command of the Spaniſh forces in Mexico. Whereupon Cortez leaving a garriſon in the city of Mexico, and confining Montezuma there, marched to meet Narvaez his rival, ſurprized him in the night-time, made him priſoner, and ſo corrupted the officers of the troops that came over with Narvaez, by the rich preſents he made them, that they agreed to join Cortez. Thus reinforced, he returned to the city of Mexico again; and now imagining himſelf powerful enough to ſubdue that empire by force, without courting Montezuma or his ſubjects, he treated that monarch with great contempt. But ſome of the Spaniſh hiſtorians obſerve, that in this he committed a very great error: for had the general, on his returning in triumph with ſuch an addition of forces, entered into a treaty with that emperor and his nobility, they would have yielded to almoſt any terms; and he might have gained the dominion of that empire, for the King of Spain, his maſter, without any bloodſhed. But he was too much elated with ſucceſs to think of pacific meaſures. On the contrary, he reſolved to give the Mexicans all manner of provocations, and even rendered them deſperate, that he might have a colour to deſtroy them, and ſeize all their poſſeſſions, whether lands or treaſure. He found a garriſon of 80 Spaniards able to repel the whole force of Mexico; and he did not doubt, now he ſaw himſelf at the head of 1100 Spaniſh horſe and foot, with a multitude of confederate Indians, he ſhould be able, by force, to reduce the Mexicans, and make ſlaves of them.

But Cortez was near paying very dear for his preſumption; for ſending out a detachment of 400 Spaniards and confederate Indians in ſearch of the enemy, who were retired to the furtheſt part of the city, they were ſurrounded, and in danger of having their retreat cut off; and he himſelf, with the reſt of his troops, narrowly eſcaped being ſtarved, or cut in pieces; for the Mexicans, rendered brave by their deſpair, were not afraid to attack Cortez in his quarters, though defended by a numerous garriſon, and a train of artillery; and when, at any time, he made a ſally, he found entrenchments in the ſtreets, and the bridges broken down, which rendered his cavalry, in a manner, uſeleſs; and though he uſually came off victorious, he found he had committed a very great error in ſhutting himſelf up in Mexico, from whence it was almoſt impoſſible to make his retreat, and where he found it impracticable to fetch in proviſions; the enemy being maſters of all the cauſeways that led to the town, and of all the boats upon the lake; ſo that if his people were not deſtroyed by the continual attacks of the enemy, they muſt certainly, in a ſhort time, be reduced by famine. In this diſtreſs, Cortez thought fit to endeavour a reconciliation with Montezuma, and make uſe of the authority he ſtill retained among his ſubjects, to induce them to lay down their arms, and permit the Spaniards to march out of Mexico, which, it was preſumed, they would readily have come into, that they might get rid of a people ſo much dreaded, as well as hated, by them.

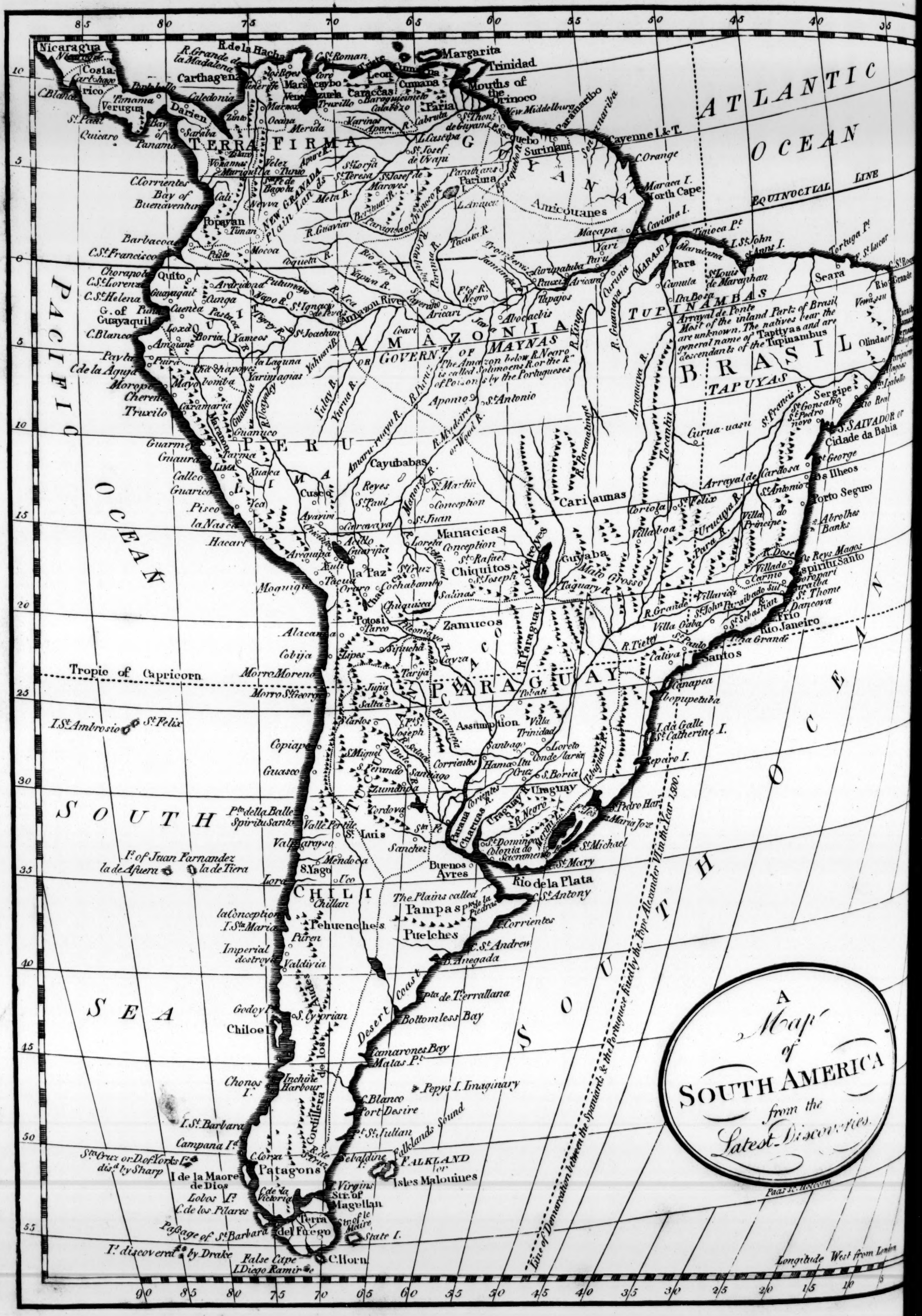
Accordingly, a parley being propoſed and agreed to, Montezuma appeared on the battlements of the palace, and ſome of the Mexican nobility advancing to hear what overtures he would make them, the Spaniards tell us, their emperor made a ſpeech to his ſubjects, wherein he greatly reprimanded them for taking up arms without his leave, though it was with an intention to obtain the liberty of their prince, declaring that he was, in reality, under no manner of reſtraint, but remained with the Spaniards from choice; that he thought himſelf obliged to ſhew the Spaniards this favour, on account of the reſpect they had always paid him, and out of duty to the prince that had ſent them; that their embaſſy being diſpatched, he was about to diſmiſs theſe foreigners from his court, and deſired his ſubjects would lay down their arms, and not interrupt their march, and he would readily pardon their having taken up arms; or to that effect.

This ſpeech was but little regarded by the Mexicans, who knew that whatever their emperor's words were, they were put into his mouth by the Spaniards, whoſe priſoner he was, and tended only to procure them a ſafe retreat; and they were ſenſible, if they loſt the advantage they had, they muſt never expect ſuch another opportunity of getting rid of theſe unwelcome gueſts. They had them cooped up in this fortreſs, where no relief could be brought them, and from whence it was ſcarce poſſible for them to retreat, if the Mexicans broke down the bridges and cauſeways upon the lake, and made ſuch ditches and trenches in the ſtreets, as the Spaniards themſelves had taught them; but foreſaw, if ever their enemies got over the lake again, they might not only receive freſh reinforcements from Spain and their Indian allies, but they muſt engage them to great diſadvantage in their open country, having nothing to oppoſe their horſe and artillery. The Mexicans reſolved, therefore, not to conſent to a ceſſation of arms, but rejected the overture with diſdain, as being framed only to give their mortal enemies an opportunity of eſcaping out of their hands, and reinforcing themſelves to the deſtruction of their country; and they were ſo enraged at the overture, that they ſhot at their emperor for making it to them, and mortally wounded him.

The Spaniard, finding the Mexicans were not to be amuſed with inſidious propoſals, from what hand ſoever they came; that his proviſions were almoſt ſpent, and that it would be impracticable to make his retreat in the day-time; reſolved to attempt it in the dark night. Having divided the treaſure, therefore, amongſt his men, with which they were pretty well loaded, for it amounted to an immenſe ſum, he iſſued out of his quarters at midnight, the weather being extremely tempeſtuous, whereby his march was for ſome time concealed; but he had not advanced a mile upon the cauſeway before he found himſelf attacked on every ſide by the Mexicans, both by land and water, the lake being filled with their canoes or boats; and as they had broken down the bridges, and cut the cauſeways through in ſeveral places, the Spaniards were in great danger of being entirely cut off. Cortez, indeed, had foreſeen this, and provided a portable bridge to paſs the breaches in the cauſeway, which was of great uſe to him in ſeveral places: but the Indians found means to deſtroy this bridge before they were all paſſed over, and their rear-guard, conſiſting of 2 or 300 Spaniards, and 1000 confederate Indians, were cut in pieces. They alſo loſt their artillery, priſoners, baggage, and treaſure, with 46 Horſes. Cortez, however, with the beſt part of his force, broke through the Indians, and eſcaped to the other ſide of the lake. Some impute this loſs to the avarice of his ſoldiers, who were ſo loaded with gold and ſilver, that they could ſcarce make uſe of their arms; and poſſibly there may be ſome truth in it: but we believe every one who conſiders his circumſtances, muſt be of opinion, that he was very fortunate in eſcaping ſo well. Had the enemy provided a body of forces to oppoſe him on the further ſide of the lake, he muſt inevitably have periſhed; but they did not expect his ſallying out ſo ſuddenly, eſpecially in that tempeſtuous ſeaſon, and were not, therefore, provided to attack him.

The Spaniſh hiſtorian endeavours to give us a particular account of this action, admires the valour and conduct of Cortez and his officers, and informs us how every one diſtinguiſhed himſelf in this memorable retreat. He proceeds to inform us, that they arrived juſt as it was day-light on firm land, and thought themſelves very happy that there was no

army


A Map of SOUTH AMERICA from the Latest Discoveries.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
SOUTH SEA
TERRA FIRMA
GUYANA
AMAZONIA
BRASIL
PERU
CHILI
PARAGUAY
TUCUMAN
Amicouanes
TUPINAMBAS
TAPUYAS
Arrayal de Ponte Most of the inland Parts of Brasil are unknown. The natives bear the general name of Tapityas and are descendants of the Tupinambus
Desert coast
Pampas
Patagons
Pehuenches
Puelches
Chiquitos
Manacicas
Cayubabas
Cariaumas
Zamucos
Isles Malouines
FALKLAND
Line of Demarcation between the Spaniards & the Portuguese drawn by the Pope Alexander VI in the Year 1500.
Tropic of Capricorn
Longitude West from London

army to oppoſe them there, and that they were purſued no further, till they had time to form and recover themſelves from their conſternation.

This good fortune, it ſeems, was owing to the compaſſion the Mexicans expreſſed for the two ſons of Montezuma, and ſeveral princes of the royal blood, whom they found ſlaughtered among the Spaniards, when the day-light appeared. The Mexicans relate that Montezuma himſelf was of that number; and that the Spaniards murdered both him and his ſons, when they found they could not carry them off. The Spaniards, on the other hand, ſay, that Montezuma was killed before by the arrows of the Mexicans; and that the princes, alſo, were accidentally killed in the engagement while it was dark, as they could not diſtinguiſh friends from foes. But however that was, it is agreed that the princes were found dead, pierced through with many wounds; and the Mexicans deferred the purſuit of the Spaniards, to ſolemnize the obſequies of thoſe two princes, or of Montezuma himſelf. To which piece of piety, Cortez and the Spaniards, who were left alive, in a great meaſure owed their ſafety.

The Spaniſh forces having halted ſome time to refreſh themſelves, and take care of their wounded men, continued their march towards Tlaſcala, the country of their faithful allies and confederates: but they had not advanced many leagues before they were again overtaken, and attacked by the Mexicans, at a time when they were ſo fatigued and haraſſed, that had not Cortez taken poſſeſſion of a temple, that very fortunately lay in his way, he would have found it difficult to have repulſed the enemy. But the Mexicans, finding they could make no impreſſion on the Spaniards, as they lay entrenched within thoſe walls, thought fit to ſound a retreat. However, Cortez apprehending he ſhould be diſtreſſed here for want of proviſions, began his march again at midnight, with great ſilence, in hopes to have got the ſtart of the enemy ſo far, that he ſhould have reached the Tlaſcalan territories before they could have overtaken him; but, to his great ſurpriſe, being arrived on the top of a very high mountain, he diſcovered the whole forces of the Mexicans, conſiſting of 200,000 men, drawn up in battalia in the valley of Otumba, through which it was neceſſary to paſs, in his way to Tlaſcala; whereupon Cortez made only this ſhort ſpeech to his officers, "We muſt either die or conquer;" and finding an uncommon ardour in his ſoldiers to engage, he immediately led them on.

The fight was, for ſome time, bloody and obſtinate; and Cortez, apprehending his men would be wearied out by the continual ſupplies of freſh forces, which the Indians poured in upon him, gave a ſurpriſing turn to the battle, by attacking the imperial ſtandard, carried by the Mexican general, who was ſurrounded by the nobility; for having routed them, killed the general, and taken the ſtandard, the reſt of their troops turned their backs and fled, and were purſued with incredible ſlaughter by the Spaniards and their Indian allies, who made themſelves ample amends with the ſpoils of the enemy, for the treaſure they loſt on retiring from the city of Mexico. Cortez now found it neceſſary to cultivate a good underſtanding with the caciques and princes of the country, and to take their troops into his ſervice; and made himſelf maſter of ſuch poſts as might be of moſt advantage to him in reducing the city of Mexico; and as he could not approach it by land, but on the cauſeways, he built 13 brigantines and ſloops, whereby he became maſter of the navigation of the lake, and then attacked the town by water as well as on the land ſide, having about 1000 Spaniards in his army, and 200,000 Indian allies. He took the city by ſtorm on the 13th of Auguſt 1521. One hundred thouſand Mexicans periſhed in the defence of the city; and this conqueſt was attended with the ſubmiſſion of moſt of the neighbouring provinces, who conſented to acknowledge themſelves the ſubjects to the king of Spain (the then emperor Charles V.)

The city of Mexico being thus reduced, Cortez diſtributed the plunder among his ſoldiers, reſerving only a fifth, with the moſt remarkable curioſities, for the king, which he ſent to Spain by ſome of his principal officers, together with an account of his conqueſt, and the ſtate of that country, deſiring his majeſty would confirm the magiſtrates he had appointed to govern it, with the grants of the conquered lands, and Indian ſlaves he had made, to his ſoldiers. Among the rich jewels Cortez ſent to the emperor, it is ſaid, there was a fine emerald, of a pyramidal form, as large as the palm of a man's hand at the biggeſt end; a noble ſet of gold and ſilver veſſels; ſeveral things caſt in gold and ſilver, viz. beaſts, birds, fiſhes, fruits, and flowers; bracelets, rings, pendants, and other ornamental pieces of plate and jewels: ſome of their idols, cotton veſtments of their prieſts, furs, and feathers of various colours.

The general requeſted his Imperial Majeſty to ſend over perſons qualified to ſurvey the country, that it might be improved to the beſt advantage, with the prieſts and miſſionaries for the converſion of the people; as alſo cattle, with ſeeds and plants to improve the lands: but, it is ſaid, he provided particularly againſt the ſending over phyſicians or lawyers. What could have been his reaſon againſt ſending phyſicians, is not eaſy to be conceived; but he had certainly all the reaſon in the world to deſire that neither laws or lawyers ſhould be admitted there, having determined to treat the natives as ſlaves, and ſeize both their perſons and poſſeſſions, and, indeed, to uſurp an arbitrary dominion over both Spaniards and Indians in the New World.

SPANISH DOMINIONS
IN SOUTH AMERICA.

CHAP. XXI.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILLA DEL ORO.

Situation, Boundaries, Diviſions, Bays, Harbours, Capes, Climate, Soil, Vegetable Produce, Animals, Fiſh, Natives, Commerce, and Government.

THE province of Terra Firma is ſituated between the equator and 12 deg. north lat. and between 60 and 82 deg. of weſt long. being about 1400 miles in length, and 700 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by a part of the Atlantic Ocean, called the North Sea; on the South by Peru and the country of the Amazons; on the eaſt by Guiana; and on the weſt by Old Mexico and the Pacific Ocean. It is divided as in the following table:

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
North Diviſion	Terra Firma Proper, or Darien	Porto Bello, Panama.
	Carthagena	Carthagena.
	St. Martha	St. Martha.
	Rio de la Hache	Rio de la Hache.
	Venezuela	Venezuela.
	Comana	Comana.
	New Andaluſia, or Paria	St. Thomas.
South Diviſion	New Granada	Santa Féde Bagota.
	Popayan	Popayan.

The line which ſeparates Terra Firma from the kingdom of New Spain forms alſo the boundary between

tween North and South America. This boundary is drawn acroſs the iſthmus of Darien, a few leagues to the weſtward of Porto Bello and Panama. It croſſes the iſthmus in its narroweſt part, which is not here above ſixty miles in breadth.

The chief bays in Terra Firma are thoſe of Panama and St. Michael, both in the South Sea. In the North Sea are the bays of Porto Bello, Sino, Carthagena, Maracaiba, Guiara, and Curiaco, together with the gulfs of Darien, Venezula, Trieſto, and Paria.

The principal harbours are thoſe of Porto Bello and Carthagena.

The capes moſt worthy of notice are, Cape del Agua, de Vela, Conquibacao, Cabelo, Blanco, Galera, Three Points, Naſſau, Sambles Point, Point Canoa, and Swart Point.

The climate is neither pleaſant nor healthy; the inhabitants, one part of the year, being ſcorched by the moſt intenſe and burning heat, and the other almoſt drowned with perpetual floods of rain, pouring from the ſky with ſuch violence as if a general deluge was to enſue.

In ſo large a tract of country, the ſoil muſt neceſſarily vary. Accordingly, in ſome parts, it is a barren ſand, or drowned mangrove land, that will ſcarce produce any kind of grain; in others, it yields Indian corn, balms, gums, and drugs, almoſt all manner of fruits, as well of Old as of New Spain, ſugar, tobacco, Brazil wood, and ſeveral kind of dyeing woods; a variety of precious ſtones, particularly emeralds and ſapphires; veniſon, and other game. The plantations of cocoa, or chocolate nuts, in the diſtrict of Caraccas, are eſteemed the beſt in America. The trees, moſt remarkable for their dimenſions, are, the cedar, the maria, and balſam-tree. The manchineel tree is very remarkable: it bears a fruit reſembling an apple, but which, under this ſpecious appearance, contains the moſt ſubtle poiſon, againſt which, common oil is found to be the beſt antidote. Such is the malignity of this tree, that ſhould a perſon only ſleep under it, he would find his body all ſwelled, and racked with the ſevereſt tortures. The beaſts, from inſtinct alone, avoid it.

The mountains abound with tygers, and, according to ſome, with lions, and great numbers of other wild beaſts. Among the animals peculiar to this country, the moſt remarkable is the Sloth, or, as it is called by way of deriſion, the Swift Peter. It bears ſome reſemblance to an ordinary monkey in ſhape and ſize, but is of a moſt wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its ſkin all over corrugated. He ſtands in no need of either chain or hutch, never ſtirring, unleſs compelled by hunger, and is ſaid to be ſeveral minutes in moving one of his legs, and blows do not make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with ſuch plaintive and diſagreeable cries, as excites at once pity and diſguſt. The whole defence of this wretched creature conſiſts in this cry; for on the firſt hoſtile approach he naturally puts himſelf in motion, which is always accompanied with diſguſtful howling, ſo that his purſuer flies much more ſpeedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of the horrid noiſe he makes. This animal, when he finds no wild fruits on the ground, looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he aſcends with a great deal of uneaſineſs, moving ſlowly, crying, and ſtopping by turns. Having at length mounted the tree, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to ſave himſelf ſuch another troubleſome journey, and rather than undergo the fatiguing labour of coming down again, he wraps himſelf together in a bunch, and with a ſhriek drops to the ground. Other ſpecies of monkeys are very numerous in theſe countries; they keep together 20 or 30 in a herd, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a ſingle perſon, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; if not, they chatter, and make a frightful noiſe, throwing things at him; they hang themſelves by the tail on the boughs, and ſeem to threaten him all the way he paſſes, but they uſualy ſcamper away, when they ſee two or three people together. Many of the animals of North-America, already deſcribed, are found in theſe ſouthern parts.

The rivers, ſeas, and lakes, teem with fiſh, and alſo with alligators; and the bowels of the earth were once furniſhed with the richeſt treaſures, now almoſt exhauſted. The ſame may be ſaid of pearl fiſheries on the coaſt, which are far from being ſo profitable now as formerly.

The natives of Terra Firma are bold and warlike, and as they have almoſt impregnable and inacceſſible fortreſſes, and bear an inveterate hatred to the Spaniards, they never have been, and it is probable never will be, entirely ſubdued. They have lank, coarſe, long black hair. Their natural complexion is a copper colour. The inhabitants are differently dreſſed, according to the Spaniſh faſhion. The men wear a caſſock without folds, deſcending to the knees, a large cape, and ſleeves open at both ſides; it has buttonholes, and two rows of buttons. The habits of the better ſort are made of embroidered ſtuffs. The handicrafts wear a blue ſtuff, of the manufacture of the country, but in make it differs not from the other. The Indians of diſtinction are ſingular, in wearing a kind of trowſers of white cotton, which deſcends from the waiſt to the middle of the leg. The ladies wear the *Faldelin*, a ſpecies of ſtays or rather jumps; a ſhift which deſcends only to the waiſt; a bay mantle encloſes the upper part of the body, conſiſting of an ell and a half of that ſtuff; and their whole dreſs is ornamented with rich laces. The dreſs of the labouring women is not diſtinguiſhable from that of the ladies, but by its inferior quality, the faſhion being the ſame. A mongrel, or Creole, is known by the ſuperiority of his habit and his ingenuity. The Indian peaſant wears a bay mantle; and the common native Indian, a piece of ſackcloth faſtened over the ſhoulders by two pins.

The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello, which are three of the moſt conſiderable cities in Spaniſh America, and each containing ſeveral thouſand inhabitants. Three annual fairs, for Indian, American, and European commodities are held here. Among the natural merchandiſe of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coaſt, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the leaſt conſiderable. An immenſe number of negro ſlaves are employed in fiſhing for theſe, and their dexterity in this occupation is very ſurpriſing. This kind of fiſhing is of great advantage to the inhabitants of all the iſlands in the bay, ſince every one of theſe negro-divers is obliged to deliver to his maſter daily a certain number of pearls. They are ſometimes, however, devoured by fiſh, particularly the ſharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are cruſhed againſt the ſhelves of the rocks.

The government of Terra Firma is on the ſame footing with that of Mexico. The governor of Porto Bello, who always belongs to the army, is ſubordinate to the preſident of Panama, which is the capital town, whither all the treaſures of gold and ſilver, with other rich merchandiſe from all parts of Peru and Chili, are brought, and lodged in ſtore-houſes, till they can be tranſported to Europe.

CHAP. XXII.

PERU.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Animals, Birds, Vegetable Productions, Inhabitants, Slaves, &c.

PERU is ſituated between the 60th and 70th deg. of weſt long. and between the equator and 25th deg. of ſouth lat. being 500 miles in breadth, and 2000 in length. It is bounded by Terra Firma on the north; by the Cordilleras on the eaſt; by Chili on the ſouth; and by the Pacific Ocean on the weſt.

DIVISIONS.	PROVINCES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
North diviſion...	Quito.....	Quito, Payta.
Middle diviſion..	Lima, or Los Reyes..	Lima, Cuſco, and Callao.
South diviſion...	Los Charcos.....	Potoſi, Porco.

The Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, borders on Peru. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaio, Coſma, Vermeio, Guara, Ylo, Arica, and Callao, the port-town to Lima. The rivers are, Granada, or Cagdaleira, Oronoque, Amazon, and Plate, which riſe in the Andes, as do likewiſe many others, which fall into the Pacific Ocean, between the equator and eighth deg. ſouth lat. The water of one of the rivers is as red as blood; others, in their courſe, turn whatever they touch, or paſs over, into ſtone; and here are fountains of liquid matter, called Coppey, reſembling pitch and tar, and uſed for that purpoſe by the ſeamen.

Though this country is ſituated within the torrid zone, it is not ſo prodigiouſly hot as tropical countries in general are, and in ſome parts the cold is even painful. By the elevation of Peru above the ſurface of the ſea, or rather of the whole earth, the winds are more ſubtle, congelation more natural, and the heat moderated. The ſky too, which is almoſt conſtantly covered with clouds, ſhields them from the direct rays of the ſun; but what is remarkable, it ſcarely ever rains here, which defect is ſupplied by a ſoft, kindly dew that falls every night, and refreſhes the vegetable creation ſufficiently, ſo as to produce in many places the greateſt fertility; but near Quito they have ſometimes very heavy rains, attended by dreadful ſtorms of thunder and lightning; earthquakes are alſo frequent, and ſometimes very deſtructive in this country. The ſoil, in the inland parts of Peru, and by the banks of rivers, is uſually very fertile, but along the ſea coaſts it is a barren ſand.

Vaſt quantities of cattle were imported by the Spaniards into Peru, when they took poſſeſſion of that country; theſe are now ſo amazingly increaſed, that they run wild, and are hunted like game. There are few wild beaſts, and thoſe not very fierce or dangerous; but the moſt remarkable animals are the Peruvian ſheep, called lamas, and the vicunnas. The lama in ſeveral particulars reſembles the camel, as in the ſhape of its neck, head, and ſome other parts; but has no bunch, is much ſmaller, and cloven-footed. Its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it ſpits a kind of venomous juice, that inflames the part on which it falls. The wool with which it is covered, is of different colours, but uſually brown. Theſe animals are naturally docile, ſo that the Indians uſe them as beaſts of burden, and they will carry any load under a hundred weight. Formerly they uſed to eat their fleſh, and ſtill continue to make that uſe of ſuch as are paſt their labour, eſteeming it preferable to mutton. The vicunna reſembles the lama in ſhape, but is ſmaller, and its wool ſhorter and finer. It is brown all over the body except the belly, which is whitiſh. In this creature is found the bezoar-ſtone, eſteemed a ſpecific againſt poiſons.

The moſt remarkable birds found in Peru are the cendors, and zumbadors or hummers. The cendor is prodigiouſly large and ſtrong, and in colour and appearance reſembles the bird called galinazo, and, like that, is exceedingly carnivorous, frequently ſeizing the lambs as they are feeding upon the heath, and flying away with them. The ſtrength of this bird is ſo great, that it will ſometimes knock down with its wing the man who approaches to kill it: their wings alſo ſerve them as a ſhield, by which they ward off blows aimed at them. The zumbador, or hummer, is a bird peculiar to the mountainous deſerts of Peru. They are ſeldom ſeen, though frequently heard, both by their ſinging, and a ſtrange humming made in the air by the rapidity of their flight, which, when near, cauſes a noiſe equal to that of a rocket. The inſects found in Peru are muſquitoes in prodigious numbers, miguas, and ſeveral others equally venomous; alſo a variety of beautiful butterflies; and that valuable article in the commerce of this country, the cochineal, formerly ſuppoſed to be the fruit or ſeed of a plant, but is now proved to be an inſect; as hereafter deſcribed.

The vegetable productions are, plenty of European corn, maize, caſſava, and other roots; pine-apples, melons, grapes, from which the Peruvians make excellent wine and brandy, guavoes, patolas, bananas, tamarinds, olives, and figs; ſeveral ſorts of gums and drugs, as ſarſaparilla, dragons blood, balſam of Tolu and Peru, ſome rhubarb, ſtorax, and guaiacum. Among their foreſt-trees the moſt valuable is that which yields the quinquina, or Jeſuits bark. It is about the ſize of a common cherry tree; the leaves are round and indented, and it bears a long reddiſh flower, from whence ariſes a pod containing a kernel reſembling an almond; but neither the kernel nor the fruit have the ſame virtue as the bark, which is an efficacious medicine in intermitting fevers, and various other diſorders. In the plains of Truxillo there is a tree which bears twenty or thirty flowers, all of them different, and of divers colours, hanging together like a bunch of grapes. Another, called maguey, is of the utmoſt uſe to the inhabitants, as it ſupplies them with honey, vinegar, and drink. The ſtalks and leaves are not only good to eat, but may be wrought like hemp; and from them they make a thread called pica. The wood is fit for covering houſes; the prickles or thorns, with which it abounds, ſerve for needles, and the fruit has all the qualities of ſoap. Guinea or Cayenne pepper, is produced in the greateſt abundance in the vale of Arica, a diſtrict in the ſouthern parts, from whence they export it annually to the value of ſix hundred thouſand crowns.

That valuable article of the commerce of this country, cochineal, formerly ſuppoſed to be the fruit or ſeed of ſome particular plant, but now aſcertained to be an inſect; it is bred on a plant called Opuntia, or Prickly Pear, which conſiſts wholly of thick ſucculent oval leaves joined end to end, and ſpreading out on the ſides in various ramifications. The flower is large, and the fruit reſembles a fig; this is full of a crimſon juice, and to this juice the cochineal owes its colour. When the rainy ſeaſons come on, thoſe who cultivate this plant cut off the heads which abound moſt with ſuch inſects as are not arrived at their full growth, and preſerve them very carefully from the weather and all other injuries. Theſe branches, though ſeparated from their parent ſtock, preſerve their juices for a long time, and this enables the inſect not only to live till the rains are over, but to grow to its full ſize, and be in readineſs to bring forth its young as ſoon as the inclemency of the ſeaſon is paſt. When this time comes on, they are brought out, and placed upon the proper plants, diſpoſed in little neſts of ſome moſſy ſubſtance. By the enlivening influence of the freſh air, they bring forth in three or four days at furtheſt, when the young, ſcarce bigger than a mite, run about

with wonderful celerity, and the whole plantation is immediately filled. What is ſingular, this animal, ſo lively in its infancy, quickly loſes all its activity, and, attaching itſelf to the leaſt expoſed, and moſt ſucculent, part of the leaf, clings there without ever moving. It is alſo remarkable, that it does not at leaſt in any viſible manner, injure the plant, but extracts its nouriſhment by means of its proboſcis, through the fine teguments of the leaves. The males of this ſpecies of inſect, differ greatly from the females, than which they are ſmaller. The males, in fact, are of no value, the females only being gathered for uſe. The value of the drug chiefly conſiſts in the method of killing and drying the inſect. The firſt is, by dipping the baſket, into which they are gathered, into boiling water, and afterwards drying them in the ſun; the ſecond, by drying them in ovens; and the third, by drying them on cakes of maize, which are baked upon flat ſtones. The laſt is the worſt kind. One admirable quality of this drug is, that, though it belongs to the animal creation, it never decays. Without any other care than having been put into a box, ſome have been known to keep 60, and even an 100 years, and retain their quality. It is uſed in dyeing all the ſeveral kinds of the fineſt ſcarlet, crimſon, and purple.

In the northern parts, not far from Lima, there are many gold mines; and ſilver is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are conſtantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns ſhift with the mines. That of Potoſi, when firſt worked at an eaſy expence, contained 90,000 ſouls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were ſix to one; but the miners having ſince dug very deep, the ſilver is not ſo eaſily brought up.

Lima, the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spaniſh empire, is ſituated in a fine valley, about two leagues from the ſea, in lat. 12 deg. 2 min. ſouth. It is large, magnificent, populous, contains many noble ſtructures, and is the reſidence of the viceroy. This city is well watered by the river Rimac; and for the ſplendor of its inhabitants, the grandeur of its public feſtivals, the extent of its commerce, and the delightfulneſs of its climate, is ſuperior to all other cities in South-America. Theſe eminent advantages are however conſiderably overbalanced by the dreadful earthquakes which frequently happen here, and which keep the inhabitants in perpetual apprehenſions of being buried in the ruins of their own houſes: it has more than once been laid in ruins by theſe tremendous convulſions of nature.

The laſt earthquake happened in the year 1747, when Callao, the ſea-port of Lima, was entirely ſwallowed up, and three-fourths of the capital itſelf levelled with the ground. The deſtruction of Callao was the moſt perfect and terrible that can be conceived, one only of all the inhabitants eſcaping, and he by a providence the moſt ſingular and extraordinary imaginable. This man was on the fort which overlooked the harbour, going to ſtrike the flag, when he perceived the ſea to retire to a conſiderale diſtance, and then ſwelling in a mountainous wave, returned with irreſiſtible violence. The inhabitants ran from their houſes in the utmoſt terror and confuſion; he heard a dreadful cry riſe from all parts of the town, and immediately all was ſilent; the ſea had utterly overwhelmed the place, and buried it for ever in its boſom; but the ſame wave which deſtroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man ſtood, into which he threw himſelf, and was ſaved. The town, before this dreadful earthquake happened, contained about 3,000 inhabitants. But the calamity did not ſtop here; for the concuſſions continued, with ſhort intervals, for the ſpace of four months afterwards, in which time no leſs than 450 ſhocks had been felt, ſome of them no leſs violent than the firſt; ſo that it was computed 12,000 people periſhed, ſome being ſwallowed up in the earth, or buried in the ruins of their houſes and effects, and others drowned by the waves of the ſea, which laid great part of the neighbouring country under water.

This city, which extends two miles in length, and one and a quarter in breadth, contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites make only a ſixth part. Its wealth will be ſufficiently demonſtrated by the following remarkable event: when the viceroy, the Duke de la Paladas made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, cauſed the ſtreets to be paved with ingots of ſilver, amounting to ſeventeen millions ſterling. Travellers in general mention with aſtoniſhment the decorations of the churches with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, which load and ornament even the walls.

Cuſco, the capital of the empire of Peru before the arrival of the Spaniards, and the ancient ſeat of the Incas, ſtands above 326 miles from Lama towards the eaſt. It was then very large, magnificent, and populous. Here ſtood the famous Temple of the Sun, which was called Curiachanchi, and contained immenſe riches. The Incas reſided in a part of the citadel, the walls of which were incruſted with gold and ſilver, and the whole fortreſs was built of ſtones, ſo long that ſeveral oxen could hardly draw one of them. It is ſtill a conſiderable town, containing about 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians. The air is very pure and wholeſome, and the neighbouring country very pleaſant and fruitful. Here are ſome manufactures of bays and cotton cloth, and leather; and in the adjacent mountains are gold and ſilver mines.

Quito, the capital of the province of the ſame name, is ſeated in a pleaſant valley, between two chains of high mountains. It is about a mile in length, and three quarters of a mile in breadth, and is a biſhop's ſee. There are ſeveral religious communities, and two colleges, which are a ſort of univerſities, under the direction of the Jeſuits and Dominicans. It contains about 35,000 inhabitants, of which one third are original Spaniards. All ſorts of merchandiſes and commodities are exceeding dear, chiefly on account of the difficulty of bringing them hither. It is the ſeat of the treaſurer of the kingdom, as well as of the other officers.

A very extenſive commerce is carried on by the merchants of Lima, who are immenſely rich; they are ſaid to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the ſouthern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima for ſuch articles as the inhabitants of Peru have occaſion for; the fleet from Europe, and the Eaſt-Indies, land at the ſame harbour; where the commodities of Aſia, Europe, and America, are bartered for each other. The merchants of Lima purchaſe on their own accounts what there is not an immediate vent for, which they lay up in warehouſes, knowing that they muſt ſoon have an opportunity of ſelling them, from the great communication they have with almoſt every trading nation. There are in Cuſco ſeveral manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which ſupply all the kingdom of Peru with thoſe articles. Thoſe who trade in European commodities, reſort to Potoſi, as to a market, where they are ſure of converting their merchandiſe into ſilver. Another ſpecies of commerce, carried on by a ſet of people called Aviadores, conſiſts in exchanging coin, towards paying the neceſſary expences of the workmen, for ingots and pinnos. The article of ſilver is wholly engroſſed by the crown. At Lima, there is a treaſury court, for receiving a fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the King of Spain.

The inhabitants of Peru greatly reſemble thoſe of Mexico, only the former ſeem to be of a more liberal turn, and of greater ingenuity; but they are equally deſtitute

deſtitute of all cultivation, and poſſeſs a moſt unbounded ſhare of lazineſs and pride.

The ſlavery of the Indians is, if poſſible, more ſevere than in other parts of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. The magiſtrate and the prieſt devour their whole ſubſtance, and every Spaniard inſults them with impunity. The native Spaniard has alone all the lucrative offices, civil, eccleſiaſtical, and military. He deſpiſes the Creolian: the Creolian hates and envies the Spaniard: both contemn and maltreat the Indians, who, on their ſide, are not inſenſible of the indignities they ſuffer: even the blacks are encouraged to trample on the Indians, and to conſider their intereſts as altogether oppoſite; whilſt the Indians, in their nominal freedom, look with an envious diſdain upon the ſlavery of the Negroes, which makes them their maſters.

Peru is governed by a viceroy, who is abſolute; but it being impoſſible for him to ſuperintend the whole extent of his government, he delegates a part of his authority to the ſeveral audiences and courts, eſtabliſhed at different places throughout his territories.

HISTORY OF PERU.

THIS country was diſcovered by a Spaniard called Vaſco Numez de Balbao, and no deſign was entertained of conquering it, till the concluſion of the war in Mexico, when the expedition was undertaken by three private perſons, viz. Pizarro, Almagro, and De Luque; the two firſt being officers, and the laſt an eccleſiaſtic. It was ſtipulated, that Pizarro ſhould command the embarkation; that Almagro ſhould from time to time raiſe and ſend him recruits: and, that De Luque ſhould remain at Panama, and lay in ammunition and proviſions for the ſupport of the enterprize: and they agreed to ſhare the profits ariſing by the expedition equally, after the emperor's fifth ſhould be deducted.

Pizarro met with many difficulties, in his firſt attempt, from the croſs winds and currents; theſe, and the inceſſant rains that fell near the Equator, were ſuch diſcouragements, that all his men forſook him, and returned to Panama, except fourteen; but Almagro joining him with ſome recruits, theſe two heroes determined to continue their courſe to the ſouthward, and having croſſed the bay of Panama, went on ſhore, expecting to have found a paſſage to Peru by land; but the country being overflowed, or encumbered by rocks, woods, and mountains, they were obliged to return on board again, and ſetting ſail to the ſouthward, made ſo little way, that they were two years in advancing to the bay of Guiaquil. The firſt conſiderable town they viſited there was the city of Tumbez, to the cacique whereof Pizarro ſent one of his officers, to let him know they came as friends, and the cacique thereupon ſent them all manner of refreſhments.

Not having a ſufficient body of troops to undertake ſo important an expedition, he returned to Panama for reinforcements, taking with him ſome of the inhabitants, animals, and treaſures of Peru. Pizarro then went to Spain, procured the emperor's commiſſion, returned and took with him three of his brothers, and ſet ſail for Panama upon another expedition, A. D. 1530. He had now with him 125 ſoldiers, and 37 horſes, with which he landed and began his depradations. The Indians fled before him, but many of his people dying, he ſent his ſhips back laden with plunder, to bring more recruits. Almagro joining him with reinforcements, they advanced together, defeated a large body of Peruvians, took the town of Tumbez, with immenſe treaſures which were heaped up in the temple of the Sun and the inca's palace. They now erected a fortreſs near the ſea, and then purſued the inca or emperor Atabilipa.

Finding that the Peruvians were engaged in a civil war among themſelves, Pizarro took pains to foment their inteſtine diviſions, in order to prevent their uniting againſt him. The caſe was, that Atabilipa, a prince of illegitimate birth, had depoſed and confined the emperor Huaſcar, and oppreſſed his friends. Theſe latter applied to Pizarro for aſſiſtance to dethrone the uſurper. On the contrary Atabilipa made a ſimilar application to the Spaniards for their friendſhip and countenance. Atabilipa and Pizarro, having appointed an interview, the Spaniards traiteroufly attacked the Indians during the conference; and having ſlaughtered many, made the inca priſoner. Almagro, having raiſed a conſiderable body of forces at Panama, arrived at the camp of Pizarro ſoon after the ſlaughter of the Indians, and the impriſonment of their emperor Atabilipa.

Pizarro went out to meet Almagro, congratulated his arrival, received him with all the marks of affection and eſteem imaginable, and offered to divide the ſpoils with him, though it is evident they were, at that time, meditating each others deſtruction; and it is ſaid, Pizarro diſtributed as much gold and ſilver at this time among the Spaniſh ſoldiers as amounted to 15,000,000l. ſterling. The ſoldiers being poſſeſſed of this prodigious wealth, fell into all manner of exceſſes, raiſing the price of things to a very great rate, by offering any ſums to gratify their appetites or fancies. And now Pizarro thought it a proper time to ſend over the fifth part of the treaſure to the emperor, as he had ſtipulated, and with it his brother Ferdinando Pizarro, to ſolicit for ſuch reinforcements as might eſtabliſh the dominion of the Spaniards in Peru, and to petition that his government might be extended ſtill further to the ſouthward; Marſhal Almagro alſo employed his agents to repreſent to the court of Spain, with what expence and application he had ſent and carried reinforcements, and ſupplied the general with ammunition and proviſions from time to time, to enable him to make this conqueſt; and to deſire that all that part of South America which lay to the ſouthward of the lands granted to Pizarro, might be put under his government: and with theſe agents, ſent by the general and the marſhal, returned ſeveral adventurers, to the number of fifty or ſixty, who having obtained 30,000 or 40,000 ducats apiece for their reſpective ſhares of the ſpoils, were perfectly ſatisfied with it, and choſe to enjoy what they had got, the remainder of their lives, in their own country, rather than undergo more hazards and difficulties to increaſe their fortunes.

In the mean time, Atabilipa, the royal priſoner, having offered Pizarro a prodigious treaſure for his liberty, and actually paid great part of it, was ſtill detained, and at length being tried upon what were called Articles of Impeachment, was moſt unjuſtly put to death. Atauchi, the brother of this unfornate prince, having determined on revenge, ſurpriſed the Spaniards on their march to Cuſco, killed ſome, and took others, Sancho de Cellar, who had drawn up the proceſs againſt the late inca, being among the latter. With theſe they retired, ſtrangling Sancho at the very place where the emperor was put to death; but ſuch of the Spaniards, as had been againſt the cruel meaſure, they reſtored to liberty. The Peruvians were ſtill inclined to treat upon reaſonable terms; but the Spaniards inſiſted that they ſhould immediately renounce their religion, give up their country, and reſign their freedom. This broke off the treaty, when Pizarro marched forward to the capital city of Cuſco, where he arrived in the month of October 1532, the people having abandoned the city, and carried off the greateſt part of their treaſure; but ſtill the Spaniards found ſo much left behind, that they were amazed at the heaps of gold and ſilver they met with there: but the reigning inca, Manco Capac, being about to aſſemble the whole Peruvian nation againſt theſe invaders, Pizarro thought fit

fit to treat with the inca and the Peruvians. He even invited the emperor to return to his capital, and proclaimed him Inca. Theſe meaſures Pizarro found himſelf under the neceſſity of taking at this time, not only becauſe he ſaw all the ſouthern provinces of Peru aſſembling againſt them, under the inca Manco Capac, but becauſe Rumminavi, Quinquiz, and other Peruvian generals, had aſſembled a very great army in the northern provinces, and poſſeſſed themſelves of Quito, which obliged him to ſend a conſiderable detachment of his forces under the command of Sebaſtian Belalcazar, to reinforce the new colony to St. Michael's, and to make head againſt the Peruvian generals in Quito. Belalcazar, thereupon, marching into Quito, made himſelf maſter of the capital city, and was in a fair way of reducing the reſt, when advice was brought that Don Pedro de Alvarado was upon the coaſt of Peru with a conſiderable fleet, and landed 700 or 800 men, intending to take the government of Peru upon him, and expel Pizarro and Almagro from thence; at which news, theſe two adventurers were thunderſtruck, apprehending they ſhould be diſpoſſeſſed of all the ſpoils they had taken, and perhaps ſent priſoners to Spain, to give an account of their murdering the late inca Atabilipa, and maſſacring his people; they continued therefore to cultivate a good underſtanding with the Indians of the ſouthern provinces, and treated the inca and his ſubjects as their friends and allies, promiſing to perform punctually whatever they had agreed on; knowing how great an advantage it muſt be to have the country in their intereſt, if they were obliged to contend with Alvarado for the poſſeſſion of it. They, however, at length found means to bribe Alvarado from the country, and perſuade moſt of his followers to enter into their ſervice.

Theſe additional forces rendered the adventurers very formidable, when Almagro marched to Cuſco; and Pizarro founded the city of Lima, and other places on the coaſt. Pizarro now, according to the grant of the emperor, remained in poſſeſſion of Peru, and Almagro made an expedition into Chili. Almagro advanced as far as the province of Charcas, 200 leagues to the ſouthward of Cuſco, without meeting with any thing to obſtruct his deſigns, that country being all under the dominion of the inca, and ſupplying him with proviſions as he went; but finding Charcas a wretched barren country, and being ignorant of the rich mines it contained, he reſolved to proceed further to the kingdom of Chili; though, had he known the invaluable mines of Potoſi were ſituated in this barren country, he would certainly have ſet up his reſt here, for in this mountain was afterwards found more ſilver than any, or perhaps all the countries in the Old World produced at that time.

Almagro was now informed by the Indians, that there were two ways to approach the kingdom of Chili, both extremely difficult and hazardous. The firſt was over a branch of the mountains of the Andes, or Cordilleras, which, at this time (being winter) were covered deep in ſnow, and ſo cold that no Indian could live on the tops of them, though this was much the ſhorteſt paſſage, if it could be performed; the other was over a ſandy deſert by the ſea-ſide, in which they would be in danger of periſhing by exceſſive heat, and the ſcarcity of water; intimating that they were averſe to the journey either way, but moſt dreaded that over the mountains of the Andes: however, Almagro, reſolving to remove forward, took the way of the mountains, as being the ſhorteſt, and more agreeable to the conſtitutions of his Europeans, than the ſcorching ſands; and having gathered what proviſions the country afforded, and laid it on the ſhoulders of the Indian porters, he began to aſcend the hills; but had not advanced far before he found the ſnows ſo deep, that they were forced to dig their way through them, the Indians dying by hundreds with the intenſe cold: The Spaniards, alſo, were almoſt ſtarved, and many of them periſhed with their horſes on thoſe mountains, either by cold or want; and ſome of the men, who eſcaped with their lives, loſt their fingers and toes. However, Almagro himſelf, with between 300 or 400 Spaniards, the inca Paulla, the high-prieſt, and about 5000 Indians, reached the other ſide of the mountains, and came into a fine temperate and pleaſant country. The people of Chili preſented the Spaniards with many preſents; and Almagro penetrated into the country a conſiderable way: but being informed, by the arrival of ſome Spaniards from Europe, that the part allotted to him by the emperor, included Cuſco, he returned to Peru.

Having ſuffered ſo much in their march over the mountains, the Spaniards and Peruvians returned by the way of the deſert, where the hardſhips they underwent were but little inferior to the former. In the mean time the inca Manco Capac, obſerving that Pizarro only gave him the title of Inca, and that in reality he had very little command even in the capital city of Cuſco, where he reſided, put him in mind of his promiſe of reſtoring him to his empire, and performing the capitulations that had been agreed on between them; but Pizarro put him off from time to time, telling him he muſt wait with patience till he heard that thoſe capitulations were ratified by his ſovereign the emperor, which he expected to receive every day by his brother Ferdinando, and was going to Lima in hopes of meeting him there; deſiring that the inca, during his abſence, would reſide in the caſtle, and not ſtir from thence. The inca finding they would make him priſoner by force, if he did not voluntarily ſubmit to this confinement, diſguiſed his reſentment, and immediately went to the caſtle.

The Indians were far from taking this impriſonment of their emperor patiently, and only waited for a favourable conjuncture to obtain his liberty; for Ferdinando Pizarro returning from Spain with his brother's new commiſſion, and the patent for the title of marquis, brought ſome orders with him that were not acceptable to the marquis or his people; particularly he informed them, that the emperor expected they ſhould be accountable to him for all the treaſure they had received as the ranſom of Atabilipa, his imperial majeſty alone being entitled to it, or at leaſt that they ſhould raiſe him a good round ſum, to be ſent over to Spain in lieu of it; but the marquis and his officers replied, this was neither reaſonable or poſſible; as they had hazarded their lives, and made a conqueſt of the country at their own expence, without any charge to his imperial majeſty, they ought to reap the fruits of their labour; and beſides, that money had been long ſince ſpent in ſupporting the conqueſt, building towns, and planting colonies, to preſerve what they had gained, which would all redound to the honour and profit of his majeſty, who by that means was confirmed and eſtabliſhed in the ſovereignty of that rich country.

Ferdinando hereupon deſired his brother would confer on him the government of the capital city of Cuſco, and he did not doubt but he ſhould ſoon have it in his power to raiſe a ſum of money to gratify the court of Spain; which the marquis conſenting to, his brother Ferdinando immediately repaired to his government of Cuſco; where obſerving that ſeveral officers had been greatly enriched by preſents Manco Inca had made them, in order to be kindly uſed, he applied himſelf alſo to the inca, giving him to underſtand, that he would be reſtored to his dominions, and all his demands granted, if he could procure a conſiderable ſum for the court of Spain; and ſuffered the inca to come out of the caſtle to his palace in the city again, and to be treated with the honours of a ſovereign prince. Whereupon the inca ſent expreſſes to ſeveral parts of his dominions, directing them

them to bring their uſual tribute of gold and ſilver plate, as the moſt probable means of delivering him from the hands of the Spaniards. The treaſures were brought, but the Spaniards ſtill deceived him, when he delivered himſelf by the following ſtratagem.

He pretended, that in the valley of Yarico great riches were hid, particularly a ſtatue of ſolid gold as big as life, but that none but himſelf could find out the place. Ferdinando Pizarro was deluded by this pretence, and ſuffered the inca to go to the valley with only a guard of Spaniards, from whom (as they did not ſuſpect his deſign) he made his eſcape. Being at liberty, he raiſed three powerful armies, one being deſigned againſt Lima, the ſecond to attack Cuſco, and the third to cut off Almagro. The principal army, under the inca himſelf, attacked Cuſco with great fury, but were repulſed with terrible ſlaughter. After cutting off ſeveral detachments of Spaniards, the ſecond Peruvian army inveſted Lima, which not being able to take, they only blockaded; but the third army did not attack Almagro, who arriving before the walls of Cuſco, ſummoned Ferdinando Pizarro to ſurrender, who refuſed; but the place was betrayed to Almagro by ſome of the garriſon, when the governor and another of the marquis of Pizarro's brothers were made priſoners.

The marquis of Pizarro, not hearing from his brothers, ſent a ſtrong force to Cuſco under the command of Don Alonzo de Alvarado. Peter de Lerma was ordered alſo to march with this detachment as a private captain of a troop of horſe, though he was an older officer than Alvarado, and had done great ſervice in thoſe wars; which ſo diſguſted de Lerma, that he, from this time, meditated the ruin of the enterpriſe, as is ſuppoſed by the Spaniſh writers. Alonzo de Alvarado continuing his march with the utmoſt diligence, moſt of the Indians that were preſſed to carry his baggage, amounting to upwards of 5000, periſhed in the firſt part of the journey, either by the intolerable fatigue, being loaded and driven beyond their ſtrength, or ſtarved for want of food.

Almagro, having received intelligence that Alonzo was advancing to the city, ſent ſome Spaniards of quality to him, to repreſent that Cuſco belonged to his government, according to the diviſion the emperor made of Peru, between him and the marquis de Pizarro, and therefore adviſed him to retire to Lima again, till he and the marquis ſhould adjuſt the limits of their reſpective governments: but Alvarado was ſo far from entertaining any pacific thoughts, that he made all the gentlemen priſoners that were ſent to treat with him. Whereupon Almagro took the field, conſtituting Don Orgonnez his lieutenant-general; and having made a party of Alvarado's horſe priſoners, underſtood by them, that great part of his troops were better affected to him, than they were to the Pizarros; particularly, he underſtood that Peter de Lerma, with a great many of his friends, would deſert Alvarado the firſt opportunity. He advanced therefore as far as the bridge of Abancay, on the other ſide whereof Alvarado lay encamped, ſo that there was nothing but a ſmall river that parted their forces; they remained quiet, however, without attempting to attack each other all day; but in the night time, Orgonnez fording the river, at the head of Almagro's horſe, put Alvarado's forces into great confuſion; and giving Peter de Lerma, and the reſt of their friends, by this means, an opportunity to join them, Almagro gained an eaſy victory, with very little bloodſhed, making Don Alonzo de Alvarado his priſoner; with whom he returned in triumph to Cuſco.

After the battle, Almagro marched with 500 Spaniſh horſe and foot, and ſome thouſand Indians, towards the valley of Chinca on the ſea-coaſt, taking with him his priſoner Ferdinando Pizarro; but he left Alonzo Pizarro and Alonzo de Alvarado priſoners in the city of Cuſco.

The marquis de Pizarro, in the mean time, hearing no news from Alonzo, and imagining the Indians might have poſſeſſed themſelves of the paſſes in the mountains, and thereby cut off his communication with that general, marched in perſon at the head of 300 or 400 Spaniards, towards the mountains, to get intelligence; and after ſome days march, received advice, that the Indians had raiſed the ſiege of Cuſco: that Almagro was returned from Chili, had poſſeſſed himſelf of that capital, and made his brothers Ferdinando and Alonzo priſoners; and that his other brother John Pizarro was killed during the ſiege of Cuſco; and a day or two after he had news brought him of the defeat of Don Alonzo de Alvarado. Whereupon he thought fit to retire to Lima, and fortify himſelf there, till he ſhould receive a reinforcement of troops, which he expected every day; and to divert Almagro from taking the advantage of his preſent weakneſs, and putting his brother to death, he diſpatched ſeveral Spaniards of quality to attend him, and offer him any terms he ſhould inſiſt upon, to procure his brother's liberty: Almagro was willing to treat, and an interview with only twelve horſemen of a ſide was agreed, but with ſo much treachery on Pizarro's ſide, that Almagro with great difficulty eſcaped an ambuſcade laid for him.

At length Pizarro, by various artifices, obtained the liberty of his brothers, and then demanded not only Cuſco, but all the conqueſts in Peru. Almagro very naturally rejected this unreaſonable requiſition, when a war immediately commenced between thoſe rivals; Almagro was defeated and taken priſoner, and at the ſame time the city of Cuſco was loſt. The unfortunate Almagro was afterwards cruelly put to death by his rival Pizarro; but the latter did not long ſurvive him, being aſſaſſinated in his palace at Lima by a natural ſon of Almagro. Thus untimely fell the two conquerors of Peru, by means of their own reciprocal enmity, of whom it is only neceſſary to ſay, that both were equally poſſeſſed of courage, fortitude, and temperance; but both were equally ambitious and rapacious. Almagro was the moſt generous, Pizarro the moſt politic; the former poſſeſſed the moſt noble ſentiments, but the latter had the greateſt penetration.

CHAP. XXIII

CHILI.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Animals, Fowls, &c. Chief Cities, Commerce, and Exports.

THIS country is ſituated between 12 and 37 deg. ſouth lat. and 50 and 75 deg. weſt long. being about 1500 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth, and bounded by Peru, on the north; La Plata on the eaſt; Patagonia, on the ſouth; and the Pacific Ocean, on the weſt.

DIVISIONS.	PROVINCES.	CH. TOWNS.
On the weſt ſide of the Andes...	Chili Proper.....	St. Jago. Baldivia. Imperial.
On the eaſt ſide of the Andes...	Cuyo, or Cutio....	St. John de Frontiera.

The Pacific Ocean, on the weſt, is the only ſea that borders upon Chili. The moſt noted rivers are, the Salado, or Salt River, Gacaſco, Caquimbo, Bohio, and the Baldavia; theſe fall into the Pacific Ocean, and are ſcarcely navigable but at their mouths. The principal bays, or harbours, are, Caſtro, Brewer's-Haven, La Moucha, Copiapo, Baldivia, Coquimbo,

Jata, Govanadore, Volupariſo, Santa Maria, Conception.

The climate of Chili, conſidered in general, is one of the moſt delightful in the world, being a medium between the intenſe heats of the torrid, and the piercing colds of the frigid zone. Along the coaſt of the Pacific Ocean, they enjoy a fine temperate air, and a clear ſerene ſky moſt part of the year; but ſometimes the winds that blow from the mountains, in winter, are exceedingly ſharp. There are few places in this extenſive country where the ſoil is not exuberantly fertile, producing Indian and European corn, hemp, grapes, and other fruits, ſome medicinal plants, and the panqua uſed in tanning leather; and were its natural advantages ſeconded by the induſtry of the inhabitants, Chili would be the moſt opulent kingdom of any in America.

The animal productions of Chili reſemble thoſe of Peru, but the latter has the preference. Their horſes and mules, particularly the former, are in great eſteem: horſes and aſſes were originally carried hither from Spain, and are greatly improved. Here are prodigious numbers of fine oxen, goats, and ſheep. Turkies, geeſe, and all kinds of poultry and wild fowl, are alſo found in great numbers in this country. A very particular ſpecies of bird is found in Chili, called diſpertadore, or the awakener. It is about the ſize of a middling fowl; its plumage black and white, has a thick neck, the head rather large, erect, and beautifully adorned with a tuft of feathers; its eyes are large, ſharp, and lively; its bill well proportioned, ſtrong, and a little curved. On the fore-part of its wings are two ſpurs, about an inch in length, of a reddiſh tinct towards the root, but their points reſemble thoſe of a cock, being very hard and ſharp. Theſe are the weapons it makes uſe of againſt other birds, particularly thoſe of prey. It has obtained the appellation of the awakener, from the notice it gives to its companions on the leaſt appearance of danger. On hearing the noiſe of the approach of any creature, whether man or beaſt, it immediately riſes from the ground, and makes a loud chattering, not unlike that of a magpye, continuing the noiſe, and flying about in the air over the object which cauſed the alarm. This being underſtood by every bird near, they take wing, and by that means avoid the impending danger.

The original natives of Chili, or the free Indians, have hitherto eluded all attempts of the Spaniards to civilize and reduce them. However, about the year 1723, the miſſionaries had formed ſeveral villages, and flattered themſelves that they ſhould induce their converts to practiſe the precepts they had endeavoured to inculcate; but an inſurrection happening at that time, their innate ſavageneſs returned, they abandoned the prieſts, and joined their countrymen; and there have lately been ſome formidable inſurrections of the Chileſians againſt the Spaniards, which have greatly alarmed the Spaniſh court. The Spaniards amount to about 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, are ſuppoſed not to be fewer than 60,000.

The chief cities are St. Jago, Conception, and Baldivia, or Valdivia.

St. Jago, the capital of Chili, is ſituated in 77 deg. weſt long. and 34 deg. ſouth lat. It ſtands at the weſt foot of the Cordilleras, on the little river Mapocho. The town is about a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth. The ſtreets are all ſpacious, paved, and ſtraight. The houſes are low, to prevent their being demoliſhed by the earthquakes, to which this place is ſubject. That in July 1730 laid the greateſt part of it in ruins, and was ſucceeded by an epidemical diſtemper, which ſwept away moſt of thoſe who had eſcaped the preceding calamity.

Conception ſtands on the ſouth-weſt ſhore of a beautiful bay, on a ſmall declivity, having a little river running through it. The houſes are all either of mud-walls or unburnt bricks, but covered with tiles. This city ſuffered, if poſſible, more than St. Jago, by the ſame earthquake, ſucceeded by a dreadful inundation from the ſea, which, being followed by other violent ſhocks, demoliſhed the whole city.

Baldivia, or Valdivia, is ſituated on a river to which it gives its name. This city is defended by four ſtrong caſtles, mounting above 100 pieces of fine braſs cannon; but they are never properly ſupplied either with men or ammunition. This is the chief port whereby the commerce is carried on between Chili and Peru, and 10 large ſhips are conſtantly employed in that trade.

The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and ſome parts of Mexico. Their articles of export to theſe places are gold, copper, cattle, ſalted proviſions, corn, tallow, graſſa, hides, dried fiſh, neats tongues, hemp, flax, cordage, cocoa-nuts, Bend leather tanned, Cordovan leather, wines, and fruits: in return for which, they receive iron, cloth, hats, bays, though not many of the latter, there being manufactures of the ſame kind in Chili; ſugar, cocoa, ſweetmeats, pickles, tobacco, oil, earthen-ware, and all kinds of European goods, which are brought to the port of Callao for ſale.

HISTORY OF CHILI.

IN the hiſtory of Peru, we have already obſerved, that Almagro, who fell a victim to the imperious cruelty of Pizarro, attempted the conqueſt of Chili, but was defeated in his deſign by the Indians laying ſiege to Cuſco, which rendered his preſence neceſſary in that country. The conqueſt of Chili was therefore ſuſpended till the year 1541, when Pedro de Valdivia was ſent to finiſh the war which Almagro had begun. He penetrated to the valley of Mapocho, where he founded the city of St. Jago, and built a caſtle for its defence. The Chileſians attacked this caſtle; but Valdivia, receiving reinforcements from the viceroy of Peru, did all he could to ſecure his conqueſts. But ſtill it appears that he was not ſtrong enough to make any great progreſs; and the Indians giving out that there were many very rich gold mines in a certain part of the country, not far from St. Jago, drew a detachment of his forces (who went in ſearch of them) into an ambuſcade, and cut off every man of them, except their commander and a negro, who eſcaped to St. Jago by the ſwiftneſs of their horſes; whereupon Valdivia ſent for another reinforcement of troops, to enable them to advance againſt the Chileſians, and build the town and caſtle of Coquimbo, or Serera, on a bay of the ſea, to ſecure his communication with Peru.

The civil wars between the Spaniards in Peru breaking out, Valdivia was recalled, but afterwards returned to Chili with a large body of veteran troops. The Spaniards now diſagreeing among themſelves, the Chileſians took advantage of their broils, and deſtroyed the garriſons of Copiapo, and Coquimbo, demoliſhing, at the ſame time, the towns and fortifications. Valdivia, however, recovered what he had loſt, rebuilt thoſe towns, proceeded further ſouthward, and erected the town of Conception. The fortifications here being finiſhed, though under conſiderable difficulties, Valdivia determined to continue his route ſtill further ſouthward, when he founded the city of Imperial, four leagues eaſt of the Pacific Ocean, and 40 ſouth of Conception. From hence he marched to the mountains of Andes, 16 leagues eaſt of Imperial, and built the city of Villa Rica.

The braveſt nation of the Chileſians, called Araucans, had oppoſed the Spaniards with the greateſt ſucceſs, but had been at laſt obliged to ſubmit; and this being one of the moſt deſirable countries in Chili,

Valdivia,

Valdivia, in the diſtribution of the lands, had reſerved this valley for himſelf; and being ſenſible that the natives were not to be kept under but by pure force, he erected three caſtles in this valley, and left garriſons in them, while he marched further ſouthward. He built the town of Valdivia, where finding ſtill richer mines, it is ſaid, he employed 50,000 Indians in working them, and ſpent ſo much time in amaſſing wealth, that the Araucans, taking advantage of his abſence, engaged the whole country in a conſpiracy againſt the Spaniards, and choſe the celebrated Caupolican for their general.

Intelligence being received by Valdivia of the intended inſurrection, he returned in ſome haſte to the valley of Arauca, where he found 13 or 14,000 of the natives aſſembled in arms, whom he carged with his horſe, and obliged them to retire into the woods and encloſures as often as they appeared, but was not in a condition to diſperſe them entirely. They frequently rallied and attacked his troops; and thus they continued to encounter him for ſeveral days in a ſort of running fight. The Chileſian general, obſerving that his engaging the Spaniards with ſuch numbers only occaſioned confuſion among the people, thoſe in the front frequently giving way to the Spaniſh cavalry, and diſordering the reſt of his forces, before ever they were engaged, divided his army into battalions of 1000 each, ordering them to charge the enemy by turns. He repreſented to them, that the Spaniards were but 150 horſe, and that 1000 of his brave countrymen might eaſily maintain their ground for ſome time againſt ſo ſmall a number, notwithſtanding the advantage the enemy had in their arms and horſes. However, he only deſired they would make their utmoſt effort. He had no expectation that the firſt battalion would gain the victory, but when they found themſelves obliged to retire, required them to take care, in their retreat, not to diſorder the other bodies, but rally themſelves, and draw up in the rear, that they might be ready for a ſecond charge; and the ſame commands he gave to the officers of the other battalions.

The firſt battalion, in purſuance of theſe orders, engaged the Spaniſh horſe with great reſolution, and having held them in play ſome time, leiſurely retired, being ſucceeded by the ſecond, and that by the third, and ſo on, till the Spaniards had continued the engagement for ſeven or eight hours without intermiſſion, and both men and horſes began to faint with the labours of the day, or for want of refreſhment; which Valdivia too late obſerving, made a precipitate retreat, ordering his troops to take poſſeſſion of a paſs about a mile from the field of battle, where he did not doubt he ſhould be able to defend himſelf againſt all the power of the enemy. But a Chileſian, who had been page to Valdivia, and baptized by the name of Philip, whoſe Indian name was Lautaro, hearing his maſter give orders for their retreat, deſerted at that inſtant to his countrymen, and directed them to take poſſeſſion of the paſs before the Spaniards could arrive there. He bid them make uſe of the advantages they had in their hands, recover their liberties, and reſcue their country from deſtruction, by cutting off theſe thieves and uſurpers who had invaded it; and, taking a ſpear, charged his late lord Valdivia at the head of a company of Chileſians, while another detachment of the Indians ſecured the paſs as he directed them.

As the Chileſians now perceived the Spaniards were unable to reſiſt their attacks any longer, they preſſed them on every ſide, without giving them a moment's time to breathe. They cut them all in pieces on the ſpot, except the general Valdivia; him they bound and carried before Caupolican, the Chileſian general, who ordered him to be tied to a tree, that he might be executed with more ceremony than thoſe that fell in the battle. Valdivia, it is ſaid, meanly begged his life of the conquerors, addreſſing himſelf chiefly to Lautaro, who was but a few hours before his ſlave. He promiſed, if they would ſpare him, to withdraw all the Spaniſh forces out of Chili, and never more diſturb their peace, ſwearing by all that was ſacred to perform his promiſe; but the unrelenting enemy was deaf to his entreaties: even Lautaro obſerved, that it was madneſs to truſt to the promiſes of a captive, who would infallibly change his note if he was ſet at liberty; whereupon the general pronounced his doom.

Authors differ about the manner of Valdivia's execution. Some affirm that they poured melted gold down his throat, bidding him to ſatisfy himſelf with that metal he ſo violently thirſted after. Others relate, that one of the Indian caciques, not bearing to hear it debated whether the deſtroyer of their country ſhould live or die, beat out his brains with a club, without aſking the general's leave: and all the Spaniſh writers agree, that they made trumpets and flutes of his bones, and preſerved his ſkull as a memorial of that important victory, which they celebrated by feaſting and dancing after their country manner; and inſtituted public ſports and exerciſes, ſuch as running, wreſtling, and leaping, to be obſerved annually in memory of it; and expecting the Spaniards would give them another viſit, they encamped in ſome of their moſt inacceſſible woods and mountains, and Caupolican conſtituted Lautaro his lieutenant-general, for the ſervices he had done in the late battle, finding him every way qualified for that poſt. The Spaniards, however, attempted to recover their loſſes; the war continued about 50 years, but the Chileſians were moſt generally ſucceſsful, and at length almoſt expelled them from their country.

The Dutch being informed of theſe particulars in 1642, ſent a ſquadron of men of war under the command of Captain Brewer, with ſome land forces on board, to make a ſettlement at Chili. This officer arrived on the coaſt of Chili on the 30th of April, 1643; and landing 50 ſoldiers on the 20th of May, they had a ſmart engagement with a Spaniſh party, whom they defeated, and ſome Chileſians came on board, who gave the Hollanders hopes of ſucceſs; but Brewer, the Dutch commodore, dying, who projected the enterprize, and the natives growing jealous of the deſigns of the Hollanders, and ſeeming ready to join the Spaniards againſt them, Herekerman, who ſucceeded Brewer in the command of the ſquadron, thought fit to return home without effecting any thing, having firſt demoliſhed a little fort they had erected on the harbour of Valdivia.

An old Spaniard, who reſided in the court of England, having repreſented to King Charles II. that the Spaniards had been beaten out of moſt of their ſettlements on the coaſt of Chili, and that it would be no difficult matter for the Engliſh to poſſeſs themſelves of them, Sir John Narborough was ſent, in 1669, with a man of war, called the Sweepſtakes, of 36 guns, to view the coaſt of Chili, and inquire into the feaſibleneſs of planting colonies there: he was accompanied thither by the old Spaniard, named Don Carlos. Sir John paſſed through the ſtreights of Magellan, and not round Cape-Horn, as Brewer had done; and arriving on the coaſt of Chili near Valdivia, Don Carlos was ſet on ſhore, and took the road to the fort of Valdivia, which the Spaniards had rebuilt, being then in poſſeſſion of the country, and Don Carlos was never heard of more. The Spaniards permitted the Engliſh to trade with their people for trifles at firſt, but would not ſuffer them to have a communication with the Indians, and, at length, made one of the lieutenants and three ſeamen priſoners, whom they refuſed to releaſe, and what became of them was never known. Sir John Narborough ſoon after returned home, having no authority to commit hoſtilities againſt the Spaniards. In Queen Anne's reign the deſign of making ſettlements here was reſumed, but proved abortive.

Thus

Thus the martial genius of the natives continually retarded the progreſs of foreigners, and has always been the cauſe why the Spaniſh ſettlements here are ſo diſproportionate to the extent, fertility, and riches of the country. The free Indians are much more numerous than the Spaniards, who are computed at no more than 20,000. All the inhabitants of Chili, including Europeans, Meſtizoes, Mulattoes, and Negroes, are reckoned at 150,000 only. Even the free Indians, it ſeems, now acknowledge the dominion of the King of Spain, and pay tribute to his governor; but the ſubjected Indians belong entirely to the Spaniards, living among them, and ſerving them in the ſame manner as the natives of Peru and Mexico.

The greater part of Chili is ſtill poſſeſſed by the free Indians, who are rather allies than ſubjects of Spain, having, it is ſaid, in the laſt treaty, conſented to acknowledge the king of Spain for their lawful ſovereign, only upon condition that they were ſuffered to continue under the protection of their own laws and government; an engagement which it will be hazardous for the Spaniards to break, however it may counteract their great deſign of gaining entire poſſeſſion of theſe countries, and thereby repairing the conſtant decline of wealth and decay of their precious metals in their other ſettlements. The free Indians are governed by their own chiefs, whom the Spaniards call caciques, who claim no authority, beſides that of adminiſtering juſtice, and commanding their tribes in times of war; having neither palaces, guards, revenue, or any other badges of ſovereign authority, veſted in them.

CHAP. XXIV.

PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

Situation, &c. Diviſions, Cattle, Poultry, Wild Animals, Chief Towns, Provinces, and Commerce.

THIS country is ſituated between the 50th and 75th deg. of weſt long. and between the 12th and 37th deg. of ſouth lat. being 1500 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth. It is bounded by Amazonia on the north; by Brazil on the eaſt; by Patagonia on the ſouth; and by Peru and Chili on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The eaſt diviſion contains.....	Paraguay.....	Aſſumption.
	Parana.....	St. Ann.
	Guaira.....	Cividad Real.
	Uragna.....	Los Reyes.
The ſouth diviſion contains.....	Tucuman.....	St. Jago.
	Rio de la Plata..	Buenos Ayres.

Beſides horſes, mules, ſheep, goats, hogs, poultry, game, grain, fruits, &c. this country produces an admirable drug called by the name of the country, Paraguay; which is an excellent emetic, and of itſelf might form a conſiderable article of commerce. The foreſts abound with wild beaſts, and the rivers and lakes, beſides various kinds of fiſh, with crocodiles, alligators, &c. The mines contain gold, ſilver, copper, iron, amethyſts, &c. To the weſt of the great river Paraguay, the country is barren, but to the eaſt, where the Jeſuits have erected a temporal and ſpiritual monarchy, it is fertile. The next conſiderable river is that of Plate or La Plata, which riſes in Peru, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean.

This country abounds with lakes, the chief of which are the Xaraya, the Caracoraes, and the Veronas. The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which ſtands the capital city of Buenos Ayres, hereafter mentioned; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory.

The climate of Paraguay differs but little from that of Spain; and the diſtinctions between the ſeaſons are much the ſame. In winter, indeed, violent tempeſts of wind and rain are very frequent, accompanied with ſuch dreadful claps of thunder and lightning, as fill the inhabitants, though uſed to them, with terror and conſternation. In ſummer, the exceſſive heats are mitigated by gentle breezes, which conſtantly begin at eight or nine in the morning. In ſhort, for the enjoyment of life, eſpecially with regard to the ſalubrity of the air, a finer country cannot be imagined.

Nueſtra Sennora de Buenos Ayres, the capital of Paraguay, ſtands on a point called Cape Blanco, in 34 deg. 34 min. ſouth lat. in a fine plain, riſing by a gentle aſcent from a ſmall river fronting it. It has ſtraight broad ſtreets, and is of a conſiderable extent, containing no leſs than 3000 houſes, built moſtly of chalk or brick. The river La Plata, is here ſeven leagues in breadth, and navigable for any ſhip 60 leagues above the town, but no further, by reaſon of a cataract. The Spaniards bring hither, down the river, part of the treaſures of Peru, and ſhip them for Spain, with vaſt quantities of hides, cotton, ſtuffs, fruits, and other commodities of this country, and their returns are very valuable.

There are three other towns in Paraguay, called Monte de Vides, Corrientes, and Santa Fé; but neither of them merits a particular deſcription.

What has rendered this province ſo very remarkable, is an extraordinary ſpecies of commonwealth which was eſtabliſhed in the interior parts by the labours of the Jeſuits. The foundations of this remarkaple republic were laid about the middle of the laſt century, when thoſe fathers obtained an uncontrolled liberty to practiſe every expedient, within certain limits, for converting the Indians, and forming them into a body or republic. At the ſame time time the governors of the adjacent provinces received ſtrict orders not to interfere, nor ſuffer any Spaniard to enter into this diſtrict without a licence from the fathers. On the other hand, the Jeſuits agreed to pay a certain capitation tax in proportion to the number of their converts, and to ſend a certain number to work in the mines, whenever they ſhould be wanted; and the miſſions became ſufficiently populous to anſwer the demand.

"The terms being ſettled (ſays a modern author) the Jeſuits applied themſelves with indefatigable induſtry to ſettle the country of which they had obtained a grant. They began with gathering a few Indian families they had before converted, from the ſeveral parts of the country where they were ſettled, and uniting them into a ſmall townſhip: upon this ſlight foundation they have erected a ſuperſtructure which has aſtoniſhed the world. Wholly intent upon executing the arduous undertaking, no difficulties could ſtop, no dangers repreſs their ardour. They viſited every tribe of the Indians; they molified the minds of the moſt ſavage nations; they fixed the moſt rambling; they ſubdued the moſt averſe to government. Thouſands of diſperſed families embraced their religion, and ſubmitted to their government. By this rapid increaſe, their ſubjects amounted a few years ago to near 400,000 families. They lived in towns, were regularly clothed, practiſed agriculture, carried on manufactures; and ſome of them profeſſed the polite arts of muſic and painting. They were inſtructed in the military art with the moſt exact diſcipline, and could bring a force of ſixty thouſand men, well armed, into the field. In order to effect theſe valuable purpoſes, the fathers had from time to time

brought

brought over from Europe ſeveral mechanics, muſicians, painters, &c.

"The whole country was divided into forty-ſeven miſſions or diſtricts, over each of which a Jeſuit preſided in chief. He reſided in a large and commodious houſe, called the Preſbytery: adjoining to this houſe are the church and the magazines. No perſon under the juriſdiction of the fathers had any thing that could be juſtly called his own property. Each man's labour was allotted him in proportion to his ſtrength, or to his ſkill in the profeſſion which he exerciſed. The produce was brought faithfully to the public magazines, from whence he was again ſupplied with all things which the managers judged to be expedient for the ſuſtenance of himſelf or his family. All neceſſaries were diſtributed regularly twice a week; and the magazines always contained ſuch a ſtock of proviſions and goods of every kind, as to anſwer not only the ordinary exigences, but to provide againſt a time of ſcarcity, or for thoſe whom accidents, age, or infirmities, have rendered incapable of labour. Under the Jeſuits, magiſtrates or caciques were choſen from among the Indians; theſe regulate all matters reſpecting marriages, decide ſuch differences as were too minute for the attention of the father, and gave him regularly an exact account of the ſtate of his diſtrict, and the merit and demerit of its inhabitants; and according to this report they were rewarded or puniſhed. Nothing could equal the obedience of the people of theſe miſſions, except their contentment under it. Far from murmuring that they have only the neceſſaries of life, by a labour which might, in ſome degree, procure them the conveniences of it, they thought themſelves a diſtinguiſhed and favoured people in wanting them; and they believed their obedience a duty, which not only ſecured their order and repoſe in this world, but the very beſt means of inſuring their happineſs in the next. This was carefully inculcated; and the Indians under their juriſdiction were, by their inſtructions, rendered an innocent people, civilized without being corrupted.

"In order to preſerve this innocence and tranquillity, the Jeſuits were extremely ſtrict in preſerving their privilege in keeping all ſtrangers from among them. If any perſon happened either through accident, or in purſuing his journey, to enter the country of the miſſions, he was immediately carried to the Preſbytery, where he was treated with great hoſpitality during his ſtay, but watched with the utmoſt circumſpection. The curioſities of the place were ſhewn him in company with the Jeſuit; but he was allowed no private converſation with any of the natives. In a reaſonable time he was civilly diſmiſſed, with a guard to conduct him to the next diſtrict without expence, where he was treated in the ſame manner till he had paſſed the limits of the country of the miſſions. Cautions equally ſtrict, and in the ſame ſpirit, they obſerved, whenever the natives were obliged to go out of their own territories. They avoided all manner of converſation with ſtrangers, looking upon them with a kind of horror; and therefore returned to their country as uninformed and untainted as they left it.

"It is impoſſible to imagine any thing in the Indies more regular or more magnificent than their pariſh churches; they were capacious, well built, and very elegantly furniſhed; gilding and painting ſtrike the eye on every ſide, all the ſacred utenſils were gold and ſilver, and many of them adorned with emeralds and other precious ſtones. Divine ſervice was celebrated with the moſt ſolemn ſplendor: on one ſide of the high altar were tribunes for the civil magiſtrates; and, on the other, the ſame conveniences for military officers: the father himſelf officiated with the utmoſt devotion. Their muſic, both vocal and inſtrumental, was far from being contemptible; and the Indians had a genius for muſic, which the fathers took care to cultivate."

In the year 1757, the court of Spain thought proper to make a ceſſion of ſome part of this territory to the crown of Portugal, in exchange for Santo Sacrament, and to make the Uragna the bounds of their poſſeſſions; but the inhabitants refuſed to comply with this diviſion, or to ſuffer themſelves to be tranſferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own conſent. We were, however, informed, upon government authority, that the Indians actually took up arms; but, notwithſtanding the exactneſs of their diſcipline, they wete eaſily, and with conſiderable ſlaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were ſent to reduce them. And in 1767 the Jeſuits were ſent out of America by order of the king, and their late ſubjects were put upon the ſame footing with the reſt of the inhabitants of the country.

PATAGONIA.

SOME writers have deſcribed Patagonia, at the ſouthern extremity of America, as part of Chili: but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almoſt unknown, and is generally repreſented as a barren, inhoſpitable country. Some of the inhabitants are from ſix to ſeven feet high, but the greater part of them are of a moderate and common ſtature. Some are mere ſavages, and others of a more gentle, humane diſpoſition. They live upon fiſh and game, and what the earth produces ſpontaneouſly. Their huts are thatched, and, notwithſtanding the rigour of the climate, they wear no other clothes than a mantle made of ſeal-ſkin, or the ſkin of ſome beaſt, and that they throw off when they are in action. Their complexions are tawny, their hair black, and they paint their faces and bodies with ſeveral colours. They are exceedingly hardy, brave, and active, making uſe of their arms, which are bows, and arrows headed with flints, with amazing dexterity. In 52 deg. ſouth lat. are the ſtreights of MAGELLAN, having Patagonia on the north, and the iſlands of TERRA DEL FUEGO, or the Land of Fires, on the ſouth. Theſe ſtreights extend from eaſt to weſt 110 leagues, but the breadth in ſome places falls ſhort of one. They were firſt diſcovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portugueſe, in the ſervice of Spain, who ſailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby diſcovered a paſſage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. In 1616, La Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the ſouthward of theſe ſtreights, diſcovered in lat. 54, one-half of another paſſage, ſince known by the name of Straights La Maire; and this paſſage, which is practicable only in January and February, and is called doubling Cape Horn, has been generally preferred by ſucceeding navigators.

GUIANA, in South America, extends from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and is bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazons, on the ſouth, but is little known, except a ſlip along the coaſt, where the French at Cayennes, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made ſome ſettlements, which, from the unhealthineſs of climate, almoſt under the equator, and other cauſes, can hardly be extended any conſiderable way back. The inhabitants of Guiana are either natives who are of a reddiſh brown, or negroes and Europeans, or a mixed progeny of theſe. This country abounds in ſerpents of various kinds; one ſort, not venomous, meaſures ſometimes above 30 feet in length, and three in circumference: it has a taper tail armed with two claws, like thoſe of a dunghill cock; ſmall deer have been found in their ſtomach.

AMAZONIA is bounded by Terra Firma on the north, La Plata on the ſouth, Brazil and the

Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt, and by Peru on the weſt. It is 1200 miles in length, and 960 in breadth; but this vaſt extent of country is but little known, except along the banks of the great river Amazons, and towards the Braſilian frontiers. The river of Amazons is the largeſt in the world. It riſes in the Cordilleras, and increaſes in a moſt amazing manner as it proceeds towards the Atlantic, into which it diſembogues itſelf by 84 channels. It winds 5000 miles is ſeveral miles broad, and near 40 fathoms deep. Many rivers fall into it, particularly the rivers Negro, Xauxa, and Maranhon. No European nation has hitherto made any ſettlement here: ſome attempts have indeed been made by the Spaniards and Portugueſe, but always attended with vaſt difficulties, ſo that few of the adventurers ever returned back; and no gold is found in the country, as was expected.

THE SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CHAP. XXV.

CUBA.

Extent, Situation, Fertile Soil, Produce, Towns, Commerce, and valuable Exports.

THIS iſland extends in latitude from 20 deg. 20 min. to the tropic of Cancer, and from 75 deg. 15 min. weſt long. It lies 60 miles to the weſt of Hiſpaniola, 25 leagues to the north of Jamaica, 100 miles to the eaſt of Jucatan, and as many to the ſouth of Cape Florida, being about 700 miles in length, and not above 70 in breadth. A chain of hills, which runs through the middle of the iſland from eaſt to weſt, gives riſe to ſeveral rivers, but their courſe is ſo ſhort from thence into the ſea, that ſcarce any of them are navigable. The land near the ſea, being for the moſt part level, is flooded in the rainy ſeaſon, when the ſun is vertical.

The whole iſland is well watered, and agreeably diverſified with woods, lawns, and vallies. The ſoil is capable of producing, in the greateſt plenty, every thing that grows in the other American iſlands; and the Cuba, commonly called the Havannah tobacco, is particularly thought to excel that of all the world; and their ſugar would equal their tobacco in goodneſs, had they hands to cultivate the canes. The other products are, ginger, long pepper, and other ſpices; caſſia, maſtic, aloes, large cedars, and other odoriferous trees; oaks, pines, palm-trees, plenty of large vines, fine cotton trees, plantains, bananas, ananas, guavas, lemons, cocoas, and two ſorts of fruit, called camilor and guanavana; the firſt like a china-orange, and the other ſhaped like a heart, with a juice between ſweet and acid. There are ſeveral good harbours in the iſland, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, advantageouſly ſituated, and ſtrongly fortified, but neither populous nor rich.

Havannah, the capital, on the north-weſt coaſt of the iſland, and fifty leagues from Cape Antonio, is a place of great ſtrength and importance, containing about 2000 houſes, a great number of convents and churches, and about 26,000 ſouls. Towards the cloſe of the war of 1756, this city after a long and obſtinate defence, ſurrendered, with all its forts and dependencies, to his Britannic majeſty's arms, by capitulation, on the 12th of Auguſt 1762; but was reſtored at the peace. The value of the cargo of the galleons, flota, and other ſhips which rendezvous here in September to take in proviſions and water, previous to their return to Old Spain, is ſeldom leſs than 7,000,000l. ſterling.

†

The other towns in the iſland, worth mentioning, are, St. Jago, which is much inferior to the Havannah, and ſtands at the bottom of a large bay, about two leagues from the ſea, on the ſouth ſide of the iſland; Santa Cruz, which has a tolerable harbour, and ſtands about 168 miles eaſt of the Havannah; Porto del Principe, ſituated on the coaſt, about 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of the Havannah; and Baracoa, ſituated on the north-eaſt part of the iſland, and having a ſmall harbour.

HISPANIOLA, OR ST. DOMINGO.

THIS iſland is poſſeſſed in common by the Spaniards and French, but the far moſt conſiderable part is now in the hands of the French. The great Columbus diſcovered it in 1492, and called it The Spaniſh Iſland, a denomination it has preſerved, under that of Hiſpaniola, ever ſince. It is ſituated about 13 leagues to the eaſt of Cuba, between the 17th and 21ſt deg. north lat. and the 67th and 74th of weſt long. The face of the iſland preſents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the ſoil is allowed to be uncommonly fertile, producing ſugar, indigo, cotton, maize, caſſava-root, cocoa, coffee, tobacco, ginger, various kinds of drugs and dyeing woods, pine-apples, bananas, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, toronias, limes, dates, and apricots: in the centre of the iſland are mountains well covered with cabbage-trees, elms, oaks, pines, acajou, and other large and lofty trees. Salt is found in plenty, and great quantities of ambergris. Mines of ſilver and gold have been diſcovered, but they are not worked. Horſes and herds of cattle are ſo numerous in this iſland, that they ſupply the neighbouring colonies. There are alſo ſeveral kinds of fowl, and the coaſts abound in fiſh, but are alſo infected with alligators. The north-weſt parts, which are in poſſeſſion of the French, conſiſt of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles above-mentioned in great plenty. In ſhort, this is the pleaſanteſt and moſt fruitful iſland in the Weſt-Indies, being every where diverſified with hills and vallies, woods and rivers.

St. Domingo, the capital, is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, has a ſpacious harbour, and is a large, well built city, inhabited by Europeans, creoles, mulattoes, meſtizoes, and negroes, whoſe number is about 30,000. This moſt ancient town in all the new world was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the Admiral, in 1504, who called it Domingo in honour of his father Dominic, which appellation the French give to the whole iſland. Conception, twenty leagues north of St. Domingo, belonging to the Spaniards, is alſo a conſiderable town.

Cape François, the capital of the French diviſion of the iſland of St. Domingo, is ſituated on a cape on the north ſide of the iſland, at the edge of a large plain, twenty leagues long, and about four broad, between the ſea and the mountains. There are few lands better watered, but there is not a river that will admit of a ſloop above three miles. This ſpace is cut through by ſtraight roads, forty feet broad, conſtantly lined with hedges of lemon-trees, intermixed with long avenues of lofty trees, which lead to plantations producing a greater quantity of ſugar than any country in the world. The town, which is ſituated in the moſt unhealthy place of this moſt extenſive and beautiful plain, conſiſts of twenty-nine ſtraight, narrow, and dirty ſtreets, divided into 226 allotments, which comprehend 810 houſes. The governor's houſe, the barracks, and the king's magazine, are the only public buildings which attract the notice of the curious; but thoſe that deſerve to be conſidered by the humane, are two hoſpitals, called the houſes of Providence, founded for the ſupport of thoſe Europeans who come hither without money or merchandize.

The

The harbour is only a bay, open to the N. and E. winds, before which is a conſiderable extent of ſand-banks, reefs, and rocks, by which it is ſheltered from the ſea. What is called the port, is in the bottom of the bay, about three quarters of a mile from the town; the W. point going in, which is high and ſteep, is called Point Picolet.

The town is ſituated on the W. ſide, about two miles from Point Picolet, cloſe to the water, and near the mountains; lat. 19. 45 N. long. 72. 13 W.

On the 18th of June 1793, the Civil Commiſſioners, Meſſrs. Sonthonax and Polverrel, arrived at the Cape from Port-au-Prince: they immediately ſuſpended Monſ. Galbau, the governor and commander of the troops at that place, and ſent him on board; on the 12th a number of mulattoes were encouraged by theſe gentlemen to come into the town, who, by unfair means, armed all the negroes belonging to the citizens, and encouraged them to aſſiſt in deſtroying the whites; which ſcene actually began on the 20th about noon, when a moſt horrid maſſacre took place, neither women nor children were ſpared; upwards of 10,000 white inhabitants were butchered, and 2500 ſaved themſelves in the French and American veſſels in the harbour: the wretches then began to plunder the town, after which they ſet fire to it; and on the 23d, when the Captain ſailed, the burning was going on, and there was only the church, government-houſe, le Caſerne, and Gregaric ſaved; they left there the Amerique of ſeventy-four guns. Captain Fanning ſailed in company with about 150 ſail of veſſels, bound to different ports in America, under convoy of two French ſeventy-fours, and four frigates.

Cape François was a neat, well-built city, the buildings chiefly of ſtone—ſaid to be as large as New-York. The large church has eſcaped the flames, being all of ſtone, and covered ſo as fire cannot make any impreſſion. The government-houſe has ſuffered much from the cannot ſhot. The ſoldiery were ſtill engaged in fighting in town. It is ſuppoſed that this diſaſtrous affair proceeded entirely from the difference between the two Commiſſioners, who aſſumed the power, and the Governor Galbau, who thought his rightful authority invaded. He headed a number of ſailors from the ſhips, who made the firſt attack, and repulſed the mulattoes, but they having at hand a number of negroes with arms, repulſed the ſailors and whites. Capt. Fanning, who brought this account to New-York, obſerves, that he could have carried off loads of plunder when he came away, as the inhabitants had left their houſes and property to ſave their lives.

As the French poſſeſs the moſt fertile part of this iſland, they omit no pains or induſtry which may tend to its improvement. Upwards of thirty years ago, it is ſaid, their exports in ſugar, indigo, tobacco, and coffee, amounted to 1,200,000l. annually, and there is no doubt they have been much exceeded by this time. The Spaniards themſelves alſo contribute greatly to increaſe the power and wealth of the French in this iſland; for, being poſſeſſed of great treaſures, and no induſtry, they laviſh their dollars in exchange for the manufactures and commodities of their indefatigable neighbours.

When Hiſpaniola was firſt diſcovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at leaſt one million: but ſuch was the infernal cruelty of the Spaniards, and to ſo infamous a height did they carry the oppreſſion of the poor natives, that they were reduced to ſixty thouſand in the ſpace of fifteen years. The gold mines here were found to be exceedingly rich, which brought all the robbers of Spain in crowds. The greater part of the male Indians periſhed in theſe mines; and almoſt all the females by the exceſſive labour of cultivating the fields of maize for the uſe of the conquerors; the others were maſſacred either in cool blood or in ranged battles, for ſo they called thoſe kinds of chaces which the Spaniards, covered with iron and followed by bull-dogs, made to a multitude of theſe unhappy wretches quite naked, and flying with all their might.

PORTO-RICO.

THIS iſland is ſituated between the 64th and 67th deg. of weſt long. and in the 18th of north lat. lying between Hiſpaniola and St. Chriſtopher's. It is about 100 miles in length, and 40 in breadth.

The chief part of the country is diverſified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the ſame fruits as the other iſlands. It is well watered with ſprings and rivers; but the air is exceſſive hot, and, during the rainy ſeaſon, very unwholeſome.

The north part of the iſland, which is the moſt barren, contains ſeveral mines, ſome of which formerly produced great quantities of ſilver and gold. It was on account of the latter that the Spaniards ſettled here, but there is no longer any conſiderable quantity found in it.

The woods are ſtored with parrots, wild pigeons, and other fowl. European poultry is found here in plenty, and the coaſt abounds with fiſh. A breed of dogs, which the Spaniards brought over to hunt and tear in pieces the defenceleſs natives, are ſaid to run wild in the woods near the ſea-ſhore, and ſubſiſt upon land-crabs that burrow in the ground.

Porto Rico, the capital town, is ſituated on a ſmall iſland on the north coaſt. This iſland forms a capacious harbour, and is joined to the chief iſland by a cauſeway. It is defended by forts and batteries, which render the place almoſt inacceſſible: it was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the Earl of Cumberland, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The town is well built, and populous, being the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the Engliſh and French with the Spaniards; it is alſo the ſeat of a governor, as well as a biſhop's ſee.

The Spaniſh government have taken great pains to prevent an illicit trade being carried on at this place; but ſuch is the convenience of its ſituation for that traffic, that all the ſevere edicts iſſued againſt it have been ineffectual.

At the eaſt end of Porto-Rico are a number of ſmall iſlands, called Virgin Iſlands; and there is one on the ſame coaſt called Crab's Iſland, from the great number of crabs with which it abounds.

TRINIDAD.

THIS iſland is ſituated between the 60th and 62d deg. of weſt long. and in the 10th deg. of north lat. It lies between the iſland of Tobago and the Spaniſh main, from which it is ſeparated by the Streights of Paria, and is about 90 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. The number of inhabitants is ſmall when compared with the extent of the iſland, which may be attributed to the unwholeſomeneſs of the climate. The ſoil however is fertile, and produces ſugar, tobacco, indigo, cotton, ginger, and Indian corn. This iſland was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered it, and extorted from the inhabitants a conſiderable ſum of money. It was taken by the Engliſh this war, who have put in a garriſon of their own troops.

MARGARETTA.

THIS is a ſmall iſland ſituated in 65 deg. of weſt long. and in 11 deg. 30 min. of north lat. being about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth. It abounds in wood, paſture, Indian corn, and all kinds of fruit, but has very little good water.

Formerly

Formerly a valuable pearl-fiſhery was carried on here, but it is now diſcontinued. In 1620, the Dutch invaded this iſland, and demoliſhed the caſtle, ſince which it has been entirely abandoned by the natives.

There are ſeveral other ſmall iſlands in theſe ſeas, belonging to the Spaniards, but entirely diſregarded by them. In the South-Seas they claim the iſlands of Chiloe, St. Mary's, Quiriquina, de la Moca or Mocha, Juan Fernandez, Tierra, Fuerra, and many others; but Chiloe and Juan Fernandez are the only ones that deſerve to be deſcribed.

CHILOE.

THIS is a conſiderable iſland, on the coaſt of Chili, lies between 42 and 44 deg. ſouth lat. is above 112 miles long, and 21 broad. The ſouth part is divided from the continent by a narrow ſea, and the continent there makes a bay. This coaſt is ſubject to tempeſtuous weather, eſpecially in March, when winter begins. The Spaniards have but one little fort in this iſland, called Chacao, always ill provided with warlike ſtores. Except wine, this iſland produces all neceſſary refreſhments and proviſions; and a great deal of ambergris is found here. About this iſland are forty more, all taking name from it.

Theſe iſlands of Chiloe are by a late navigator reputed barren; but their ſoil is not really ſo, only the exceſſive rains choke the ſeed, and let no corn thrive; ſo that they are without wheat, wine, or oil, and other plants which need much ſun.

With reſpect to the climate of this cluſter of iſlands, we are told, it rains almoſt all the year; ſo that only maize, or other ſuch grain, can ripen, that do not want ſo much ſun. The diet of the natives is moſtly of a root called papahs, which grows bigger here than in any other place. The manufactures are clothing for the Indians, who have a kind of veſt, which they call macun, without ſleeves, over which is a kind of cloak. They have vaſt woods of cedar trees of a prodigious ſize, ſo as hardly to be encompaſſed by a rope of ſix yards long. Caſtro is the principal town, and is the reſidence of a governor; it has a harbour well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDEZ.

THIS iſland, which lies in 83 deg. weſt long. and 33 ſouth lat. 300 miles ſouth of Chili, is at preſent uninhabited; but having ſome good harbours, is found extremely convenient for the Engliſh cruiſers to touch at and water; and here they are in no danger of being diſcovered, unleſs when, as is generally the caſe, our good friends in Braſil give notice to the Spaniards of their arrival in the South-Seas, and their motions. This was formerly a place of reſort for the Buccaneers, who annoyed the weſtern coaſt of the Spaniſh continent; they were induced to come hither from the multitude of goats, which it nouriſhed; to deprive them of this advantage, the envious Spaniards tranſported to it a conſiderable number of dogs, which increaſing greatly, have almoſt extirpated the goats, who now only find ſecurity among the ſteep mountains in the northern parts, which are inacceſſible to their purſuers.

There are inſtances of two men living, at different times, alone on this iſland for many years; the one was a Muſquito Indian; and the other Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, who being left aſhore in this ſolitary place by the crew of an Engliſh ſhip, was at length diſcovered by Capt. Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could ſcarcely be underſtood, ſeeming to ſpeak his words by halves: he was dreſſed in goat's ſkins, would drink nothing but water, and he could not for a conſiderable time reliſh the ſhip's victuals. During his ſtay in this iſland, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Thirty years after, ſome of thoſe were caught by Lord Anſon's people, and bore ſtrong marks of antiquity. From the hiſtory of this recluſe, Daniel Defoe is ſaid to have conceived the idea of writing his celebrated performance, called the Adventures of Robinſon Cruſoe, Selkirk having, we are told, put his papers into the hands of Defoe, to prepare them for publication, for which they were probably too crude and indigeſted.

The GALLIPAGO ISLES, ſituated 400 miles weſt of Peru, under the equator; and thoſe in the bay of Panama, called the King's, or Pearl Iſlands; are, beſides the above deſcribed, the only places deſerving notice.

FUERA, OR MASA-FUERO.

In 1765, Commodore Byron anchored off this iſland, and ſent out his boats to endeavour to get wood and water; but as the ſhore was rocky, and a ſurf broke with great violence upon it, he ordered the men to put on cork jackets, by the help of which they brought off a conſiderable quantity of both. Here they found plenty of goats, which proved to be as good food as veniſon in England. In this expedition the gunner, and a ſeaman who could not ſwim, went on ſhore with the waterers, and, when the buſineſs was completed, the violence of the ſurf, which beat againſt the ſhore, made them afraid to venture off to the boat; they were, therefore, left behind on the iſland. The next day the Commodore ſent out a boat to bring them back. The gunner ſwam through the ſurf, and got on board; but the ſeaman had ſo thorough a preſage of being drowned in the attempt to reach the boat, that, preferring life to ſocial intercourſe, he choſe to remain on the iſland at all events.

Having formed this reſolution, he took an affectionate leave of the people in the boat. A midſhipman, however, juſt as they were about to return without him, taking one end of a rope in his hand, jumped into the ſea, and ſwam through the ſurf to the beach, where the poor inſolated deſpondent ſat ruminating on his ſituation. The young man remonſtrated to him on the abſurdity of the reſolution he had formed, and having made a running nooſe in the rope, ſuddenly threw it over the ſailor, and fixing it round his body, the people in the boat began to drag him through the ſurf, and thus brought him on board; though he had ſwallowed ſo great a quantity of water on his paſſage, that he was to all appearance dead; but proper means being uſed, he ſoon recovered, and was, no doubt, abundantly thankful for the friendly violence that had forced him from the dreary ſolitude which his fears had before courted.

This iſland is by Capt. Carteret deſcribed to lie in 33 deg. 45 min. ſouth longitude, 80 deg. 46 min. weſt, from Greenwich. It is very high and mountainous, and, at a diſtance, appears as one hill or rock. It is of a triangular form, and ſeven or eight leagues in circumference. Here is ſuch plenty of fiſh, that a boat, with a few hooks and lines, may preſently catch as much as will ſerve 100 people. Here are coal-fiſh, cavilliers, cod, hallibut, and cray-fiſh. Capt. Carteret's crew caught a king-fiſher that weighed eighty-ſeven pounds, and was five feet and a half long. The ſharks here were ſo ravenous, that, in taking ſoundings one of them ſwallowed the lead, by which they hauled him above water; but he regained his liberty by diſgorging his prey. Seals are ſo numerous here, that Capt. Carteret ſays, if many thouſands were killed in a night, they would not be miſſed the next morning. Theſe animals yield excellent train oil: and their hearts and plucks are very good food, having a taſte ſomething like thoſe of a hog.

Their

Their ſkins are covered with very fine fur. There are many birds here, and ſome very large hawks. Of the pintado bird the crew of the ſwallow caught 700 in one night.

After the foregoing deſcriptions of the Spaniſh ſettlements in America and the Weſt-Indies, a few remarks on the policy of the Spaniards with regard to their colonies in the New World, may not be improper.—Happy would it have been for the natives, and even for the Spaniards themſelves, had not South America produced ſuch amazing quantities of gold, or had the veins of that metal ſtill remained unknown in the bowels of the mountains: the former would not then have been ſacrificed at the ſhrine of avarice and cruelty, nor the latter bartered their virtue, induſtry, and military character, for inhumanity, indolence, and eaſe. No country in Europe receives ſuch vaſt treaſures as Spain, yet in no country in Europe is ſeen ſo little money; and, ſtrange as it may appear, from the time the Indies fell into the hands of Spain, the affairs of that monarchy have been conſtantly going backward. The treaſure which flowed in annually from the New World, found them in debt to every part of the Old; for to the reſt of their revenues they had forgot to add œconomy; a great revenue itſelf, and a ſure ſupport of all others. The Spaniards unhappily adopted no means of retaining their conqueſts but by extirpating the people; no ſchemes for the advancement of trade; no attempts for the reformation of abuſes, which became formidable in proportion to the miſchiefs they had ſuffered by them; ſo that in government, there was tyranny; in religion, bigotry; in trade, monopoly. The Spaniſh nation have relied too much upon their riches: and the whole ſtate being moulded into a ſyſtem of corruption from the top to the bottom, things grew at laſt ſo bad, that the evils themſelves became a ſpecies of remedies, and they felt ſo ſeverely the conſequences of their former conduct, that they have for ſome years paſt turned their thoughts into a new and much better channel. They are beginning to open the American trade to ſome other ports in Spain beſides Cadiz. They have made a difference, in point of duty, between their own manufactures and thoſe of foreigners. They are, in ſhort, opening their eyes to the true intereſt of their country; they are moving their hand, though ſlowly, to promote it; and may in time, by perſeverance, riſe again, while others ſhall fall, by adopting the abuſes which brought them to the brink of ruin.

At preſent, the politics of Spain, with regard to America, ſeem to be;—to preſerve South-America, and particularly the navigation of the South-Seas, as much as poſſible, to themſelves; to deſtroy effectually the contraband trade; and to encourage the export of their own manufactures.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

CHAP. XXVI.

BRASIL.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Diviſions, Climate, Soil, Produce, Animals, Lakes, Rivers, Fiſh, Inhabitants, Towns, Trade, and Exports.

THIS country is ſituated between the 35th and 51ſt deg. of weſt long. and between the equator and 35 deg. of ſouth lat. being about 700 miles in breadth, and 2500 in length. It is bounded by the mouth of the river Amazons and the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by the ſame Ocean, on the eaſt; by the mouth of the river Plata, on the ſouth; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay, on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Ch. Towns.
North diviſion contains the captainſhips of	Para	Para, or Belim.
	Marignan	St. Lewis.
	Siara	Siara.
	Petaguez	St. Luc.
	Rio Grande	Tignares.
	Payraba	Payraba.
	Tamara	Tamara.
	Pernambuco	Olinda.
Middle diviſion contains the captainſhips of	Seregippe	Seregippe.
	Bahai	St. Salvador.
	Ilheos	Paya.
	Porto Seguro	Porto Seguro.
	Spirito Sancto	Spirito Sancto.
South diviſion contains the captainſhips of	Rio Janeiro	St. Sebaſtian.
	St. Vincent	St. Vincent.
	Del Rey	St. Salvador.

There are alſo ſome ſmall Iſlands on the coaſt of Braſil, where ſhips touch ſometimes for proviſions in their voyage to the South-Sea; particularly Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine's. Theſe will be deſcribed in their proper place.

The name Braſil was given to this country, becauſe great quantities of a wood of that name were found in it.

The coaſt of Braſil is waſhed by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north and north-eaſt, upwards of 3000 miles, forming ſeveral fine bays and harbours; viz. the harbours of Pernambuco, All Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, of St. Vincent, of St. Salvador, on the north ſhore of the river La Plata, and the harbour of St. Gabriel. The principal capes are Cape St. Mary, the moſt ſouthern promontory of Braſil, Cape Roque, Cape St. Auguſtine, and Cape Trio.

In the ſouthern provinces the heat, though exceſſive, is tolerable; the air being conſtantly refreſhed with breezes that blow from the ſea, and likewiſe from the mountains in the inland parts of the country. But the northern provinces are ſubject to great rains, and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have ſuch deluges of rain, accompanied with ſtorms and tornadoes, that the country is almoſt entirely overflowed, and the climate rendered extremely unwholeſome. The ſoil is in general amazingly fertile, producing ſugar, tobacco, indigo, ipecacuanha, balſam of Copiaba, and Braſil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, chiefly uſed in dyeing, but the colour produced by it is none of the beſt. Here are alſo five different ſorts of palm-trees, woods of ebony, maſtic, cotton-trees, citron, &c. and many others which produce admirable fruits and balſams, diffuſing around a moſt delicious fragrancy.

The animals in Braſil nearly reſemble thoſe of Peru and Mexico: and no country in the world affords a greater number of birds; ſome remarkable for their beauty, and others for their taſte. Their eatable fowls are turkies, very large and delicious: alſo hens, ducks, &c. Their bats are of a prodigious ſize; they will go into houſes in the night-time, and if they find any perſon aſleep and uncovered, will faſten on them, and ſuck their blood.

The ſea-coaſts, lakes, and rivers, are ſtored with great plenty and variety of fiſh, among which is the globe fiſh, called by the Latins *orbis minor*, from its circular form; it is ſo beſet all round with ſharp ſpikes, like thoſe of a hedge-hog, as to bid defiance to all fiſhes of prey. But of all the living creatures in this ſea, the moſt remarkable is the ſea bladder, ſo called becauſe it greatly reſembles one, and ſwims on the ſurface of the waves. The inſide is only filled with air, except about a ſpoonful of water that

ſerves to poiſe it. The ſkin is thin and tranſparent, and, like a bubble raiſed in the water, reflects a great variety of colours.

The Portugueſe in America are repreſented, by the moſt judicious travellers, as a people at once ſunk into the moſt effeminate luxury, and practiſing the moſt deſperate crimes; of a diſſembling, hypocritical temper; of little honeſty in dealing, or ſingularity in converſation; alſo lazy, proud, and cruel. They are poor and penurious in their diet, not more through neceſſity than inclination; for, like the inhabitants of moſt ſouthern climates, they prefer parade, ſtate, and attendance, to the joys of free ſociety, and the ſatisfaction of a free table; yet their feaſts, though ſeldom made, are ſumptuous even to profuſion. Being ambitious to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the reſt of mankind, by ſhewing themſelves above uſing thoſe legs which nature hath given them to walk on, they cauſe themſelves to be carried about, in a moſt ſlothful manner, on beds of fine cotton hanging by the ends to a long pole, which two negroes carry either on their heads or ſhoulders. The bed is covered with a teſter or canopy, to which are hung ſome curtains to draw cloſe or open, by which the perſon is ſecured from rain, wind, and if he pleaſes from ſight. Thus lying along at his eaſe, and his head reclined on a ſoft velvet pillow, the proud ſluggard is carried about by his ſlaves more gaily than in a coach, or ſedan. Theſe cotton hammocks are called, according to our author, ſerpentins, and not palankins, as travellers commonly ſtyle them. Almoſt every perſon of faſhion paſſes in this manner through the ſtreets.

The city of St. Salvador, or Ciudad dà Bahai, is ſituated in the bay of All Saints, and has a noble, ſpacious, and commodious harbour. it is built on a high rock, having the ſea on one ſide, and a lake, forming a creſcent, inverting it wholly on the other. This ſituation has rendered it almoſt impregnable by nature, to which ſtrong fortifications have been added by the Portugueſe. The houſes are handſome, and the public buildings ſumptuous and magnificent. A prodigious trade is carried on in this city; and the ſtreets are crowded with negroes of both ſexes, quite naked, except a piece of cloth wrapped round their middle.

All the ſhips in the Braſil trade, being under the direction of the government, have their appointed ſeaſons for going and returning, under a convoy of a certain number of men of war; nor can a ſingle ſhip clear out, or ſet ſail, except with the fleet, but by a ſpecial licence from the king, which is ſeldom obtained. The fleets ſail in exact order and at ſtated periods, viz. the firſt to Rio Janeiro, in January; the ſecond to Bahai, or the bay of All Saints, in February; and the third and laſt to Fernambuco, in the month of March. About May or June they all rendezvous in the bay of All Saints, and ſet ſail together for Europe, with a cargo little inferior in value to the treaſures of the flota and galleons: the gold alone amounts to near four millions ſterling; but this is not all extracted from the mines in Braſil, for they bring from Africa, eſpecially from their ſettlement at Mozambique, vaſt quantities of gold, together with ebony and ivory, which goes into the amount of the cargo of the Braſil fleets for Europe. Great part of their gold is coined in America.

The exports of Braſil are gold, diamonds, and other precious ſtones; ambergris, ſugar, tobacco, indigo, balſams, cotton, hides, tallow, Braſil wood, roſin, and ſweetmeats. Formerly the Portugueſe employed only twelve ſhips in their Braſil commerce; but at preſent there are no leſs than twelve hundred ſail of large veſſels conſtantly going to and returning from theſe colonies. The ſlave-trade, from the number of ſlaves annually tranſported from Africa to Braſil, alſo employs a great number of ſhips.

In order to form ſome idea adequate to the riches of the Braſil fleet, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that the diamond-mines are not rented at one-fifth part of their real value; and that there is returned to Europe, in thoſe precious ſtones, to at leaſt the value of 130,000l. This, with the ſugar, which is principally the cargo of the Fernambuco fleet, the tobacco, the hides, the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may convince us of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe. The returns to Braſil are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal: they conſiſt of the woollen goods of all kinds from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the ſilks of France and Italy; oil from Spain; lead, tin, iron, copper, and all ſorts of utenſils wrought in theſe metals, from England, as likewiſe ſalt-fiſh, beef, flour, and cheeſe: wine, with ſome fruits, is nearly all with which they are ſupplied from Portugal. The profits in this trade are exceedingly large, yet few of the Portugueſe merchants trade upon their own ſtocks, but are generally credited by the foreign merchants, whoſe commidities they vend, eſpecially the Engliſh.

The Portugueſe, following the example of the Spaniards, have endeavoured to prevent all foreign powers from trading to their plantations; but theſe regulations are as little attended to in Portugal as in Spain. The Portugueſe are properly nothing more than truſtees and factors, in which capacity they act with a fidelity equal to that of the Spaniards; though it is well known that, in moſt other occurrences, this nation is not remarkable for their ſentiments of honour.

Some writers have repreſented the Braſilians as very ſavage, devoid of all principles of religion, cruel in war, and cannibals, or devourers of fleſh; but theſe ſtories are generally looked upon as fictions of the Portugueſe, to juſtify their cruel and inhuman treatment of them. They believe in certain inviſible beings, the diſpenſers of good and evil, the rewarders and puniſhers of virtue and vice: and their notion with reſpect to a future ſtate is, that after death they ſhall viſit their anceſtors, dwelling beyond the Andes; but they have no temples. Their prieſts make them believe, that if they bring them offerings, thoſe inviſible beings, who give them food and all the good things they enjoy, will proſper their affairs, but if they neglect this, ſome terrible misfortune will befal them. They have caciques who rule them in peace, and lead them in war. Their towns are without walls; their mode of carrying on war is by ambuſcades, and their weapons are bows, arrows, wooden clubs, and ſhields for defence.

HISTORY OF BRASIL.

AMERICUS VESPUSIO was the firſt diſcoverer of Braſil, in 1498, but the Portugueſe did not plant it till 1549, when they ſettled at the bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador, or St. Saviour. The court of Spain, conſidering the whole continent of South America as their property, gave them ſome interruption at firſt, but the affair was at length adjuſted by treaty, and the Portugueſe were allowed to poſſeſs all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they ſtill enjoy. The French afterwards attempting to plant colonies on this coaſt, were driven from thence by the Portugueſe, who remained without a rival till 1580, when they were ſtruck down by one of thoſe incidents, which at one blow often decides the fate of kingdoms. Don Sebaſtian, king of Portugal, loſt his life in an expedition againſt the Moors in Barbary, by which event the Portugueſe loſt their liberty, their kingdom being abſorbed into that of Spain. Some time after, the Dutch becoming independent, firſt attacked the Spaniſh, and afterwards the Portugueſe American territories: they took almoſt all the fortreſſes of the latter in the Eaſt-Indies, and ſome time after took

ſeven

ſeven of the captainſhips or provinces of Braſil; and would have ſubdued the whole country, had not their career been ſtopt by the archbiſhop, at the head of his monks, and a few ſcattered forces: however, about the year 1654, the Dutch were entirely driven out of Braſil; but their Weſt-India company, continuing their pretenſions, ſtill purſued the Portugueſe at ſea, till the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold to relinquiſh their intereſt in that country; which was accepted.

The only iſlands on the coaſt of Braſil, belonging to the Portugueſe, which merit deſcription, are thoſe of Fernando de Norona, Barbara, and St. Catharine's.

Fernando de Norona lies in 3 deg. 50 min. ſouth lat. and 30 deg. 35 min. weſt long. It is only about twenty miles in circumference, and almoſt wholly inſuſceptible of tillage, for want of moiſture, inſomuch that from the ſcarcity of water, the plants wither and die in their growth. Here are two harbours capable of receiving ſhips of the greateſt burden, and two ſmall forts are erected on the eaſt part. The French took poſſeſſion of this iſland ſoon after the Portugueſe ſettled at Braſil, but they were driven out in 1738, when the latter ſent a colony thither.

St. Barbara is a very ſmall iſland ſituated near the coaſt of Braſil, in 18 deg. 6 min. ſouth lat. and 40 deg. 4 min. weſt long. it is no more than 12 miles in circumference, but very fertile, and at the ſame time very thinly inhabited: it has no harbour capable of receiving ſhips of any conſiderable burden, and therefore very little frequented.

St. Catharine's is ſituated in 27 deg. 45 min. ſouth lat. and in 47 deg. 58 min. weſt long. It is about 27 miles in length, and ſix in breadth, and lies about 10 miles eaſt of the coaſt of Braſil. The ſoil is very luxuriant, producing fruits of moſt kinds ſpontaneouſly. The ground is covered with one continued foreſt of trees, of a perpetual verdure. Fruits and vegetables of all climates thrive here, almoſt without culture, and are produced in the greateſt plenty; ſo that there is no want of pine-apples, peaches, apricots, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, melons, plantains, onions, and potatoes. Here are a ſpecies of wild black cattle, reſembling buffaloes; monkeys, parrots, and pheaſants. The harbours and bays are ſtored with plenty of excellent fiſh, of various kinds. The water is extremely good, and found in various parts of the iſland. But amidſt all theſe bounties of nature, the air is far from being ſalutary, owing to the woods and mountains, which prevent a free circulation, and to other cauſes.

CHAP. XXVII.

FRENCH AMERICA.

BEFORE the war of 1756, the French made their poſſeſſions in North America, to conſiſt of almoſt the whole continent; and divided this vaſt country into two great provinces, the northern of which they called Canada (comprehending a much greater extent than the Britiſh province of that name, and in which a great part of the provinces of New-York, New-England, and Nova-Scotia, was included.) They called the ſouthern province Louiſiana, compriſing therein a diviſion of Carolina. Theſe unreaſonable claims, and the meaſures taken by the French to ſupport them, laid the foundation of the war in 1756, between Great-Britain and that nation, the iſſue of which has been already noticed. But while the French were uſing every means to increaſe their infant colonies, and with the moſt flattering hopes forming vaſt deſigns of an extenſive empire, one injudicious ſtep in politics loſt them the whole; and their imaginary dominions, which had no exiſtence but in their maps, vaniſhed like ſmoke. Having over-rated their ſtrength, they commenced hoſtilities many years too ſoon; and the conſequence was, they were forced to yield to Great-Britain all that fine country of Louiſiana, eaſtward of the Miſſiſſippi; but at the treaty of peace in 1763, they were allowed to keep poſſeſſion of the weſtern banks of that river, and the ſmall town of New Orleans, near the mouth of it; and even this they ceded to Spain in 1769, for reaſons beſt known to themſelves.

OLD CAYENNE, OR, EQUINOCTIAL FRANCE.

THIS country is ſituated between the equator and 5th degree of north lat. and between the 50th and 55th of weſt long. It extends 240 miles along the coaſt of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; is bounded by Guiana, on the weſt; by Amazonia, on the ſouth; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the eaſt; and by Surinam, on the north. Caen is the chief town. The land along the coaſt is low, marſhy, and very ſubject to inundations during the rainy ſeaſons, from the multitudes of rivers which deſcend with great impetuoſity from the mountains; higher up there are five hills, very proper for ſettlements, where the air is healthy, and the heats greatly mitigated by the ſea breezes; but the French have not yet extended them ſo far as they might, though they raiſe here the ſame commodities which they have from the Weſt-India iſlands, and in no inconſiderable quantity.

The iſland of CAYENNE, which the French have taken poſſeſſion of, on this coaſt, lies at the mouth of the river of that name, and is about 45 miles in circumference, it is very unhealthy, but having ſome good harbours, they have ſeveral ſettlements; but the fort, which ſtands at the bottom of one of the harbours, has no other freſh water than what is ſaved from rain in large ciſterns. The iſland is, however, extremely fertile in ſugar, coffee, tobacco, Indian corn, plants, fruits, and other neceſſaries of life.

CHAP. XXVIII.

FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

MARTINICO.

THIS is the moſt conſiderable of all the Weſt-India iſlands belonging to the French. It is ſituated about 120 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, between the 14th and 15th deg. of north lat. and in 61 deg. weſt long. The inland parts are mountainous, and from thence ariſe numerous rivulets, which in their courſe towards the ſea at once adorn and fertilize the country. The ſoil is in general fertile, and yields ſugar, tobacco, cotton, coffee, ginger, pimento, indigo, cocoa, aloes, plantains, and ſuch fruits as are common in theſe parts. Its bays and harbours, are numerous, ſafe, and commodious; and ſo well fortified, that they for ſome time bid defiance to the attempts of the Engliſh to take the place; but in the war of 1756, when the Britiſh arms were everywhere triumphant, this iſland ſurrendered to them, but was reſtored to the crown of France at the peace. Sugar is here, as in all the Weſt-India iſlands, the principal commodity, of which they export every year a conſiderable quantity. Martinico is the reſidence of the governor of the French iſlands in theſe ſeas. The moſt conſiderable places in the iſland are St. Pierre,

Pierre, Port-Royal, and Trinity-Town. An ineffectual attempt to take this iſland was made by the Engliſh in 1793.

GUADALUPE.

THIS iſland is ſituated in 16 deg. north lat. and in 62 deg. weſt long. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almoſt the ſame ſouth of Antigua: it is about 45 miles long, and 38 broad, and divided into two parts by a ſmall arm of the ſea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ſhips can venture; the inhabitants paſs it in a ferry-boat. It has a healthy air; and the ſoil is amazingly fertile, producing ſugar, coffee, cotton, indigo, ginger, baſtard cinnamon, and a variety of vegetables. This iſland is in a flouriſhing condition, and its exports of ſugar, which is of an excellent quality, are almoſt incredible, amounting, it is ſaid, to 100,000 hogſheads annually: and it is aſſerted, that if the ſoil of Guadalupe was as well cultivated as that of Barbadoes, it would yield ſugar enough to ſupply all Europe. Every attempt to reduce this iſland proved ineffectual, till the year 1759, when it was obliged to ſubmit to the Engliſh valour; but, like Martinico, it was, by the treaty of peace in 1763, given back to the French. It was again reduced by the Engliſh in 1794, but evacuated a few months after. Guadalupe was ſo called by Columbus, from the reſemblance of its mountains to thoſe of that name in Spain.

ST. LUCIA.

THIS iſland is about 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth; and ſituated in 14 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. weſt long. 80 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes. It is diverſified with hills and vallies, well watered, and furniſhed with excellent harbours; ſo that upon the whole, it is eſteemed one of the beſt iſlands among the Caribbees. The land is rich, but little of it cleared. The woods yield excellent timber, and abound in wild fowl, as the ſurrounding ſea does in fiſh. The Engliſh firſt ſettled on this iſland in 1637. From this time they encountered with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and by the Definitive Treaty it was agreed on between the latter and the Engliſh, that this iſland, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, ſhould remain neutral. But before the war of 1756 broke out, the French began to ſettle theſe iſlands, which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great-Britain, and this iſland to France. The Engliſh made themſelves maſters of it in 1778, but it was reſtored to the French by the ſubſequent peace; and was declared a free port under certain reſtrictions. It was taken by the Engliſh in the preſent war, and ſtill remains in their poſſeſſion.

TOBAGO.

THIS iſland lies in 11 deg. 15 min. north lat. and in 60 deg. 27 min. weſt long. being 40 leagues ſouth by weſt from Barbadoes, about 35 ſouth-eaſt from St. Vincent, 40 eaſt from Grenada, and between 30 and 40 from the Spaniſh main. It is 32 miles in length, about 9 in breadth, and 70 in circumference; ſo that it is rather larger than Barbadoes, or, indeed, any of our Leeward Iſlands; and near the north-weſt extremity lies a ſmall iſland called Little Tobago, which is two miles in length, and one in breadth.

The climate is far more temperate than could be expected in an iſland that is but 11 deg. 10 min. north from the equator; for the force of the ſun is diminiſhed by the ſea breezes. The ſpice and gum trees, with which it abounds, contribute to its ſalubrity. Tobago has another favourable circumſtance to recommend it, namely, its lying out of the track of thoſe hurricanes that often prove ſo fatal to the other Weſt-India iſlands. The north-weſt extremity is mountainous, but the reſt of the iſland agreeably diverſified with riſings and fallings. The ſoil, in general, is a rich black mould, proper for producing, in the greateſt plenty, whatever is raiſed in other parts of the Weſt-Indies. There are many ſprings, together with commodious bays and creeks. But the valuable trees which grow here are, perhaps, its greateſt riches; for, beſides the different kinds of wood that are found in the other Weſt-India iſlands, it is ſaid, that the true nutmeg-tree, and the cinnamon-tree, with that which produces the real gum copal, are found on this iſland. The fig-trees of Tobago are reckoned equal to thoſe of Spain and Portugal. Indian and Guinea corn, French beans, various kinds of peas, the coſhou-apple, that is both meat and drink, and yields an excellent lamp-oil; the prickle-apple, banana, pomegranate, pine-apple, ſweet and bitter oranges, lemons, ſugar, tobacco, indigo, ginger, ſarſaparilla, ſemper vivum, citrons, vanellos, limes, guavas, plantains, tamarinds, grapes, cuſtard-apple, ſour-apple, papaw-apple, mammea-apple, yellow plum, cherries; the cocoa-tree, that yields both meat, drink, and clothing; muſk, cucumbers, water-melons, pumkins, gourds, potatoes, yams, carrots, turnips, parſnips, onions, caſſada-root, natural balſam, ſilk-graſs, with five different ſorts of pepper, the long, the cod, the bell, the round, and the Jamaica.

As for animals, here are wild hogs, pickarees, which reſemble a hog; armadilloes; guanoes, which are of the alligator kind; Indian conies, badgers, horſes, cows, aſſes, ſheep, deer, goats, and rabbits. No iſland in the world, we are told can boaſt of ſuch a variety of fiſhes, both ſhell and others, particularly turtle and mullets, of a moſt delicious taſte. Of the feathered ſpecies there is alſo a great variety. Laſtly, in different parts of the iſland are found green tar, ſoap earth, with many curious ſhells, ſtones, marcaſites, and minerals.

King Charles II. granted this iſland to the duke of Courland, under whoſe auſpices a colony of Engliſh, and another of Dutch, were ſettled on it: but their plantations were ſo often ravaged by the Caribbees of the neighbouring continent, that the Engliſh abandoned the place. The Dutch, however, continued in their ſettlements, and had ſuch an opinion of their value and importance, that they long ſupported themſelves with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance again all the attempts of the Engliſh and French. It was declared a neutral iſland by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748; ceded to the Engliſh by the treaty of 1763; taken by the French in June 1781, and yielded to them by the late peace. It was taken by the Engliſh April 15, 1793.

MARIGALANTE.

THIS iſland was diſcovered by Columbus, in his ſecond voyage to America, in 1493, and received its appellation from that of his ſhip. It is ſituated a little to the ſouth-eaſt of Guadalupe, about five leagues in length, and four in breadth: it abounds in all the productions of the other iſlands. A great many grottoes are found here, abounding with large land crabs; and the high rocks, that run along the eaſtern ſhore, being full of great holes, give ſhelter to vaſt numbers of tropical birds. There are ſeveral rivers and ponds of freſh water in the iſland. The French began to ſend colonies hither about the year 1647; and, before the laſt reduction of it by the Britiſh arms, it manufactured above one thouſand hogſheads of ſugar annually.

ST. MARTIN, ST. BARTHOLOMEW, AND DESEADA.

THESE are three of the moſt inconſiderable iſlands the French poſſeſs in theſe parts.

ST. MARTIN lies a little to the north-weſt of St. Bartholomew, and is of no conſeqnence whatever.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW is ſituated about ten leagues north

north of St. Chriſtopher's, and, though encompaſſed with formidable rocks, produces tobacco and caſſava, with ſome excellent woods, and lime-ſtone; but this iſland is now to be conſidered as belonging to the crown of Sweden, being ceded to it by France in 1785.

DESEADA, which is a corruption of the word Deſiderada, or the Deſirable Iſland, was ſo called by Columbus, from being the firſt land he diſcovered in his ſecond voyage to America. It is ſituated about twenty miles north-eaſt of Guadalupe, and is ſaid to produce the beſt cotton of any of the French Weſt-India iſlands.

Though the French were among the laſt nations who formed ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies, they have made ample amends for the time they had loſt by the vigour with which they purſued their undertakings, and by that chain of judicious and admirable meaſures which they uſed in drawing from them every advantage which the nature of the climate would admit, and in ſtruggling with the difficulties which attend all infant ſettlements, eſpecially in the torrid zone.

As France is become ſenſible that all the benefits of her labours and acquiſitions, as well as all the proſperity of her plantations, muſt be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home; we ſhall therefore lay before our readers ſome part of the wiſe plan of conduct which this politic nation purſued, in order to render her colonies ſo highly advantageous to the mother country.

The colonies were particularly under the care and inſpection of the council of commerce; a board very judiciouſly conſtituted to anſwer all the purpoſes for which it was deſigned: for, to give it a proper reſpect and authority, it is compoſed of twelve of the moſt conſiderable officers of the crown; and then to enable it to judge perfectly of the matters which come before it, theſe twelve are aſſiſted by the deputies of all the conſiderable trading cities and towns in France, choſen out of the richeſt and moſt intelligent of their traders, and paid handſome ſalaries for their attendance at Paris, from the funds of their reſpective cities. This council ſits once a week. The deputies propoſe plans for redreſſing every grievance in trade: for raiſing the branches that are fallen; for extending new ones; for ſupporting the old; and in fine, for every thing that may improve the working or promote the vent of their manufactures, according to their own lights, or the inſtructions of their conſtituents. They keep a watchful eye upon every article of commerce; and they not only propoſe helps and improvements to it themſelves, but they hear the propoſals of others, which are not diſdainfully rejected, nor raſhly received; nor do they render the acceſs to themſelves difficult by unwieldy ſtate. They do not diſcourage thoſe who apply, by admitting the vexatious practice of fees, perquiſites, and exactions in their inferior officers. They do not ſuffer form and methods to load and burden that buſineſs they were ſolely intended to advance. They ſummon and examine thoſe who are ſuppoſed the moſt competent judges of the matter before them, and of every part of it, even the loweſt artizans. But though they examine thoſe men, and gain inſtruction from their experience, they are not determined by their opinions. When they are ſatisfied of the uſefulneſs of any regulation, they propoſe it to the royal council, where their report is always received with particular attention. An edict to enforce it iſſues accordingly, and it is executed with a punctuality which diſtinguiſhes their government, and which alone can render the wiſeſt regulations any thing better than ſerious mockeries. To the care of this body the plantations are particularly intruſted.

That the colonies may have as little load as poſſible, and that the governor may have leſs temptation to ſtir up troubleſome intrigues, or favour factions in his government, his ſalary is paid by the crown. His perquiſites are none; and he is ſtrictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the iſlands or on the continent, or to have any intereſt whatſoever in goods or lands within his government, except the houſe he reſides in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers are paid by the crown out of the revenues of France; the fortifications are built and repaired, and the ſoldiers are paid out of the ſame fund.

The colonies pay hardly any taxes; and when upon an extraordinary emergency taxes have been raiſed, they are very moderate; and even then, they who have begun new plantations are exempted from them. The duty upon the export of their produce at the iſlands, or at its import into France, is next to nothing; in both places hardly making two per cent. The commodities exported from France to the iſlands pay no duty.

Beſides thoſe above-mentioned, their regulations reſpecting the judges of the admiralty, law-ſuits, recovery of debts, lenity to ſuch as have ſuffered by earthquakes, hurricanes, or bad ſeaſons, the peopling their colonies, number of whites to be employed by the planters, and, laſtly, the management of negroes, cannot be ſufficiently admired; and ſome of them would, no doubt, be of great ſervice, were they introduced into our ſugar iſlands, where ſuitable regulations in many reſpects ſeem to be loudly called for.

CHAP. XXIX.

DUTCH AMERICA.

SURINAM, OR DUTCH GUIANA.

THIS country is ſituated between 5 and 7 deg. north lat. bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by the French ſettlements, on the eaſt and ſouth; and by the Spaniſh ſettlements, on the weſt; extending 100 miles along the coaſt from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, ſouth.

Surinam is the moſt conſiderable of all the Dutch colonies in Guiana; the plantations extend 30 leagues above the mouth of this river, on which the town is built. The climate of this country is generally reckoned wholeſome. The colony is in a leſs proſperous condition than it was ſome years ſince, owing, among other cauſes, to the wars the Dutch have been engaged in with their fugitive negroes, whom they have treated with great barbarity, and who are become ſo numerous by their continual increaſe year after year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods, which are almoſt impenetrable, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca, and Copename, and have been very troubleſome neighbours. They have even elected chiefs among themſelves, cultivate lands for their ſupport, and take frequent opportunities of revenging the injuries they have received from their old oppreſſors, by making incurſions into their plantations.

The exports of Surinam conſiſt of ſugar, tobacco, coffee, gums, dyeing woods, drugs, cotton, flax, and ſkins. In theſe the Dutch trade with Europe, and our American colonies; from the latter of which they receive in return, molaſſes, horſes, live cattle, and various kinds of proviſions. They alſo carry on a conſiderable traffic with the Weſt-India iſlands, to which they tranſport various kinds of timber, adapted for the building of mills. This is purchaſed by the planters at a very advanced price, not leſs than fifty pounds ſterling being given for the largeſt pieces.

The two Dutch colonies of Iſſequibo and Demerara, on account of their proximity, are compriſed in one colony, which bears the name of them both.

Iſſequibo, however, is the moſt ancient, having been ſettled between 60 and 70 years, while the ſettlement of Demerara does not exceed 20 years. On theſe rivers are ſeveral forts, iſlands, and plantations. One of the iſlands in the Demerara is the reſidence of the commandant, and there the courts of judicature are held, and the company's troops ſtationed. They were taken by the Engliſh in 1781, but were ſoon after retaken by the French. They again ſurrendered to the Britiſh arms, April 21, 1796.

There is an extraordinary animal here peculiar to the country, called laubba, an amphibious creature, about the ſize of a ſmall pig. The head and feet are like thoſe of a pug dog, but is without a tail. The monkies of this country are innumerable, and their ſpecies various. Here are bats twice as large as ours, and without tails. Moſt people in Guiana ſleep in hammocks, as being more ſecure from ſerpents and poiſonous inſects; but this does not ſecure them from the bats which approach any part of the body that is uncovered, generally the feet open a vein, and ſuck the blood till they are ſatisfied. There is alſo peculiar to Guiana a large venemous toad, called the pipa. Its young are bred in the back of the male, where the females depoſits the eggs.

There is ſo great a variety of beautiful birds in Guiana, that ſeveral perſons in the Dutch colony employ themſelves and their ſlaves in killing and preſerving birds for the cabinets of Europe.

Moſt of the fiſhes of Guiana alſo are common to it with other countries. The torporific eel, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, ſilver, copper, or by a ſtick of ſome particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a ſhock reſembling that of electricity.

Guiana abounds in ſerpents of various kinds. There is one ſort, not venemous, that meaſures ſometimes above thirty feet in length, and three in circumference. It has a taper tail armed with two claws, like thoſe of a dunghill cock. Small deer have been found in their ſtomachs. There are alſo ſome of thoſe called amphis bæna.

The inſects of Guiana are innumerable, owing to the conſtant warmth and humidity of the climate.

The inhabitants of Guiana are either natives, who are of a reddiſh brown, or negroes and Europeans, or a mixed progeny of theſe in various combinations. The natives are divided into different tribes, more or leſs enlightened, and poliſhed as they are more or leſs remote from the ſettlements of the Europeans. They allow polygamy, and have no diviſion of lands. The men go to war, hunt and fiſh: the women look after domeſtic affairs. Their arms are bows, arrows, clubs, and poiſoned darts blown through a reed. They go almoſt naked, excepting upon particular occaſions; when they ornament their heads with feathers. They are chearful, humane and friendly; but timid, and addicted to drinking.

Their houſes are quadrangular, conſiſting of four ſtakes with croſs poles, and are covered with leaves. They ſet them up, pull them down, and carry the whole with them at pleaſure; as their dwellings are light, and their lives ambulatory. They bury their dead naked, and get drunk at the funeral to bury their ſorrows. When the body has been interred a ſufficient time for the fleſh to be rotten they take up the bones, diſtribute them among the relations and friends of the defunct, and again get drunk to teſtify their reſpect for the memory of the deceaſed. Their wants are eaſily ſupplied, and their vices are but few. Continence before marriage is not conſidered as a virtue; a man cares not whether the woman he marries is a virgin or not; but no injury is ſo ſurely revenged as the infidelity of a wife.

Nothing is cultivated here by the natives but plantains, caſſava and yams; and one month's cultivation is ſufficient for all theſe. The men are all hunters, and they can always find game or fiſh, if they prefer it, without danger or toil. They dreſs it by boiling, either in water or in the juice of caſſava, and ſeaſon it very high with kyan, or red pepper. The only ſet time of eating is the evening, when they return from hunting; in general they eat when they are hungry. They ſcarce know ſalt, but ſometimes preſerve animal food by ſmoak-drying it. Their drink is water, or a fermented liquor, prepared from the plantain, called pievoree: when they have plenty of this they are continually drunk; ſo that their indolence and improvidence, by preventing a conſtant ſupply, become public and private bleſſings.

As ſupplying the wants of nature in ſo fertile and delightful a country takes up but a ſmall portion of their time, they fill up the intervals by various amuſements: they bathe and ſwim in the rivers, in large companies, ſeveral times a day, without paying any regard to diſtinction of ſex, and they ſwim ſo well, that they may be almoſt reckoned among amphibious animals. At other times they viſit each other, and are mutually entertained with the ſimple occurrences of their lives, and a great variety of fables, which are merry, ſignificant and moral. Sometimes they dance, and frequently burſt into immoderate laughter; and ſometimes they recline indolently in their hammocks, where they not only ſleep, but eat, converſe, and play, blow a kind of ruſtic flute, pluck out the hair of their beards, or admire themſelves in looking-glaſſes.

The women ſuffer nothing in child-birth, which is attended neither with danger or pain. The mother and child, immediately after delivery, are plunged into the water, and the next day ſhe returns to her domeſtic employment, as if nothing had happened. The children are fed, and during their infancy no other care is taken of them; none are ſickly or deformed: the boys, as they grow up, attend their fathers in hunting, and the girls aſſiſt their mothers. In old age they become wrinkled; but never either bald or grey. As they have no method of computing time to any number of years, their age cannot be aſcertained; but there is ſufficient reaſon to conclude, that their lives are long.

In all their traffic with each other, or with the Europeans, they eſtimate every thing by their preſent want of it; they will at one time demand a hatchet, for what at another time they will exchange for a fiſh-hook.

Theſe happy people live together upon terms of perfect equality, having no diſtinction but of age, or perſonal merit; neither have they any diviſion of property: each amicably participates the ample bleſſings of a delightful and extenſive country: envy, fraud, and violence are precluded, natural deſires are immediately and innocently indulged, and government rendered wholly unneceſſary.

The States of Holland, to whom the colony of Surinam originally belonged, made it over to the Dutch Weſt-India company; but that company not being in a condition to ſend thither the neceſſary ſupplies, made over a third part of their ſhare to the magiſtrates of Amſterdam, and another third part to Mynheer Van Aarſens, lord of Sommelſdyk. Hence this colony is the joint property of the Weſt-India company, the city of Amſterdam, and the lord of Sommelſdyk, but the ſovereignty is inveſted in the ſtates-general. Accordingly five directors of this colony are choſen by the city of Amſterdam, four by the Weſt-India company, and one by the lord of Sommelſdyk, but the governor muſt be approved by the ſtates-general as well as by the directors. The whole colony is at preſent in a very flouriſhing condition, and carries on a great trade in various commodities.

CHAP.

CHAP. XXX.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIUS, OR EUSTATIA.

THIS iſland is ſituated between 17 and 29 min. north lat. and 63 deg. 10 weſt long. is only a mountain, riſing out of the ſea like a pyramid, and almoſt round. It is about 29 miles in circumference, and is well cultivated. Beſides tobacco, the inhabitants have of late years raiſed and exported great quantities of ſugar. They alſo breed hogs, rabbits, goats, and moſt ſorts of poultry. The air is wholeſome, but it is ſubject to terrible thunder-claps, earthquakes, and hurricanes; and there is a ſcarcity of freſh water.

St. Euſtatius is reckoned the ſtrongeſt of all the Caribbee iſlands, there being but one landing-place, which is commanded by a fort, and may be eaſily defended by a few men. The Dutch took poſſeſſion of it in 1635; and ſince the treaty of Ryſwick, have preſerved it without interruption, till after hoſtilities were commenced by Great-Britain againſt Holland, in 1781, when this iſland ſurrendered at diſcretion to Admiral Rodney, who was ſent againſt it with a conſiderable land and ſea force: but on the 27th of November, the ſame year, it was retaken by the French, commanded by the marquis de Bouillé, whoſe force conſiſted of only three frigates and ſome ſmall craft, and about three hundred men. After the capture of St. Euſtatius by the Engliſh, as abovementioned, the private property of the inhabitants was confiſcated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and entirely inconſiſtent with the humanity and generoſity by which the Britiſh nation uſed to be characteriſed, even by her rival neighbours. The reaſon aſſigned for this extraordinary conduct was, that the inhabitants of this place had aſſiſted the Americans with warlike ſtores during her conteſt with the mother country.

CURASSOU, OR CURACOA.

THIS iſland is ſituated about ten leagues from the coaſt of Terra Firma, in 12 deg. 14 min. north latitude. It is about 30 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. The climate is neither wholeſome or agreeable, nor the ſoil fruitful; yet the iſland is populous, and the induſtry of the inhabitants ſuch, that it produces a great deal of ſugar and tobacco. It is well ſupplied with proviſions, and all other commodities from Europe, and the other Dutch ſettlements, in which it carries on a very lucrative and extenſive contraband trade with the Spaniards in Terra Firma. Let the Spaniſh governors prohibit this trade never ſo ſeverely, the Spaniards ſtand ſo much in need of European commodities, that they will run all hazards to obtain them: for theſe they pay in gold and ſilver coined or in bars, cocoa, vanilla, jeſuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable articles. In time of peace, the trade of this iſland is ſaid to be annually worth 500,000l. to the Dutch, but the profit is ſtill greater in time of war, when it furniſhes the contending parties with arms and ammunition to deſtroy each other.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt-India company alone: at preſent, ſuch ſhips as go upon that trade pay two and a half per cent. for their licences: the company, however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

The chief town and harbour is about three leagues from the ſouth-eaſt end of the iſland. The town, for its ſize, is one of the faireſt and fineſt in America, and contains every thing neceſſary to render it commodious and agreeable, as far as the climate and ſoil will permit.

The Dutch-ſhips from Europe touch at this iſland for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſts for trade; which they force with a ſtrong hand, it being very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of choſen ſeamen, deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſel and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the ſtation of the owner, ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, becauſe every man fights in defence of his own property. Beſides this, there is a conſtant intercourſe between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent.

Their other iſlands are, Bonaire, Aruba, Saba, and St. Martin's.

Bonaire and Aruba are chiefly coſiderable for their ſituation near the coaſt of Terra Firma, which gives the inhabitants an opportunity of carrying on a clandeſtine trade with the Spaniſh ſettlements in Terra Firma: they may alſo be regarded as appendages to Curaſſou, for which they are chiefly employed in raiſing cattle and other proviſions. Saba and St. Martin's are two ſmall iſlands, ſituated about 13 miles north-weſt of Euſtatius, and are too inconſiderable to merit particular deſcription. They were both captured by Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan, about the time of the ſurrender of Euſtatius, but the French retook them afterwards.

On the ſouth ſide of Bonaire is a good ſalt-pond, whither the Dutch ſloops come for ſalt, which is become a conſiderable commodity.

CHAP. XXXI.

DANISH ILANDS IN AMERICA.

THE Danes have very little intereſt in America. They have no ſettlement on the continent, and only two ſmall iſlands lying in the Archipelago, known by the name of the Weſt-India iſlands: theſe are St. Thomas, and St. Croix, or Santa Cruz.

The iſland of ST. THOMAS is ſituated in the 64th deg. of weſt long, and the 18th of north lat. It is the largeſt of that cluſter called the Virgin iſlands, being about 15 miles in circumference. It has an excellent harbour, nearly ſurrounded by two promontories, which defend the ſhips that lie within from almoſt every wind. In the centre of the port is a very ſmall fortreſs very indifferently fortified. The ſoil is tolerably good, and every foot of it cultivated; the chief production being ſugar, of which the annual quantity is about 3000 hogſheads of 1000 weight each. The Brandenburghers have a conſiderable factory here; but the principal perſons now belonging to it are French refugees, who fled thither when the Proteſtants were expelled from the French iſlands. The inhabitants, who are very numerous, are ſupplied with moſt of their proviſions from Porto Rico.

The principal town, called St. Thomas, conſiſts of one long ſtreet, at the end of which is the magazine, a large, magnificent, and convenient building, wherein there is room for ſtores, ſlaves, and goods of all ſorts. This is the reſidence of the governor, who is always a man of rank, and ſoon acquires a large fortune, as do moſt of the inhabitants, owing to the extenſive and various kinds of trade carried on here. The Spaniards not only purchaſe ſlaves, which the Danes bring hither from Africa, but likewiſe all ſorts of European goods, of which there is always a conſiderable

derable ſtock in the magazines, belonging principally to the Dutch, who carry on an extenſive and advantageous commerce in the iſland of St. Thomas. In time of war, the trade of this iſland is amazingly increaſed; for being a neutral port, the privateers of all nations reſort hither to ſell their prizes, and the Dutch have always agents there, with large ſums of money, ready to purchaſe theſe goods.

This iſland derives a peculiar advantage from its commodious harbour, mentioned above: it lies on the ſouth ſide, where 50 ſhips may lie in ſafety. It is defended by a fort, whoſe batteries at the ſame time protect the ſmall town built round the ſhore. This harbour is much frequented by merchant ſhips: when they are chaſed, in time of war, they find here a ſafe protection; and, in time of peace, a vent for their goods, by the clandeſtine trade which the boats of St. Thomas continually carry on with the Spaniſh coaſts.

Two leagues to the ſouth of St. Thomas is another iſland, about the ſame ſize, called St. John's. It is the beſt watered among the Virgins, and its harbour has not only the reputation of being better than that of St. Thomas, but paſſes alſo for the beſt to the leeward of Antigua. The Engliſh give it the name of "Crawl Bay." But notwithſtanding theſe advantages there is ſo little good land in the iſland, that its planting and exportations form only a very trifling object.

St. Croix, or Santa Cruz, ſituated about five leagues to the eaſt of St. Thomas, is between ten and twelve leagues in length, and about four in breadth. The ſoil is rich and fertile, yielding ſeveral kinds of fruits, and excellent timber. This iſland, not many years ſince, was a perfect deſert; but the number of ſettlers now begin to increaſe apace: ſeveral perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, and among them ſome of great wealth, have gone to ſettle there, and received very great encouragement. The air of St. Croix is extremely unhealthful; but this ill diſpoſition will probably continue no longer than till the woods, with which the iſland at preſent is almoſt covered, are cut down, and the land improved by cultivation.

The Danes, when they firſt ſettled in America, were under the government of a Weſt-India company; ſo that their affairs appeared with a very unpromiſing aſpect, and nothing like the proper advantages were made of theſe ſettlements. The late king of Denmark, who was inferior in abilities to none of his anceſtors ſaw that there were no hopes of rendering theſe iſlands flouriſhing while the company continued their prepoſterous meaſures; accordingly he purchaſed the company's ſtock, and laid the trade open. The effects were ſoon perceived; commerce raiſed its head, and the colonies were ſoon changed from a ſtate of torpid indolence into that of vigorous traffic; the plantations daily increaſed, new ſettlers continually arrived; and the iſland of St. Croix, from an almoſt deſolate wilderneſs, became a cultivated garden, and the inhabitants an opulent people.

In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale; and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the Spaniſh main, and return with money in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandiſe.

Having thus given an ample Geographical account and deſcription, not only of the whole continent of America, but likewiſe of the adjoining iſlands, with every New Diſcovery made by the moſt modern, accurate and authentic navigators and travellers, and preſerved every incident and circumſtance we could collect for the entertainment of the Reader, we ſhall conclude our account of this part of the globe with giving a conciſe detail of the particular circumſtances that unfortunately occaſioned the ſeparation of a great part of it from the Mother-country.

†

The circumſtance that gave riſe to the diſſentions which took place between Great Britain and her American colonies (and which was productive of a tragic progreſs and unfortunate iſſue) was that unpopular act of the Britiſh legiſlature called the Stamp Act.

The firſt commotions were in the province of Maſſachuſetts Bay, and more particularly at Boſton, where the commiſſioners for enforcing the revenue acts, and collecting the monies ariſing therefrom, were badly received, and narrowly eſcaped with their lives. All perſons, directly or indirectly, belonging to government, were looked upon with a ſuſpicious eye; the cool and diſpaſſionate were ſilent, and the commonalty declared they would not be taxed by the Britiſh parliament without their own conſent; that was to ſay, without actual repreſentation. Some of the commiſſioners were compelled, upon oath, to renounce at that time and for ever all concern with theſe taxes. The tax-gatherers were tarred and feathered; the ſhips which carried over the ſtamps were threatened with conflagration unleſs they delivered up the exceptionable parts of their cargoes to be committed to the flames; and, in fine, anarchy ſucceeded amity, and mutual enmity uſurped the place of reciprocal concord.

At length, the inhabitants of Boſton, and ſome other parts of New England, came to a determination not to make uſe of any articles of Britiſh manufacture; and about the beginning of February 1768 the Houſe of Repreſentatives gave their ſanction and authority to this reſolution.

The moſt acrimonious diſputes now took place between many of the inhabitants of New England in general; moſt of the people of Boſton in particular on the one part, and governor Bernard with the loyaliſts on the other. Aggravating things were ſaid, ill-natured actions done, and libels were publiſhed by both parties. Thus a war of ſentiments commenced before real hoſtilities; the obſolete terms of Whig and Tory were revived, and the ſouls of each faction were in arms, previous to any manual exertions of the animoſity that ſubſiſted between them.

In the middle of June 1768, the captain of a ſhallop wanting to run ſome wine, and ill uſing the tide-water, the veſſel was ſeized, and, for better ſecurity, put along ſide the Romney man of war. This occaſioned a riot, when the comptroller and collector of the cuſtoms took refuge on board the ſaid man of war.

Government, however, in order to conciliate matters as much as poſſible, repealed the ſtamp act; but ſtill the Americans were diſſatisfied; for they inſiſted that, though the act itſelf was repealed, yet the ſpirit of it remained, while a revenue was demanded from the colonies. Frequent meetings were continued, riots were frequent, and intereſted perſons fomented the diſputes.

In June, 1768, the governor directed the houſe of repreſentatives at Boſton, to reſcind a reſolution concerning a circular letter to ſome of the other governments, but they refuſing, he diſſolved the aſſembly on the 3d of Auguſt following.

At length it was determined to coerce the Americans, and a body of troops arrived there accordingly, from Halifax, September 30, 1768, eſcorted by ſome ſhips of war.

The riotous proceedings of the Boſtonians increaſing, more troops were ordered to Boſton, and a variety of altercations took place, not only between the governor and the people, but between them and General Gage.

In the begining of the year 1769, many perſons in the colony of New York thought proper to adopt the ſentiments of the Boſtonians, and to engage in the political ſquabbles which were daily heightening in New England. Other colonies ſoon after acceded to

to the combination, and, in particular, to the reſolutions for the non-importation of the Britiſh manufactures and Eaſt-India goods: and thus the fire of diſſention increaſed with great rapidity, and the flame of diſcord blazed through the greateſt part of North America.

The Boſtonians now ſummed up a variety of grievances, among which complaints were theſe: "That the civil power was diſregarded, and centinels placed in various parts of the town: That the negroes had been united to take away the lives and properties of their maſters, and to repair to the army for protection: That ſome of the ſoldiers had attacked the magiſtrates of the town: That many ſoldiers had been repeatedly reſcued from the peace-officers: That many perſons had been wounded by the military: And that on the 5th of March 1770, eleven perſons were either killed, or dangerouſly wounded."

Theſe charges were either denied or palliated by the other party, by the plea of the military being compelled to act as they did, and to defend themſelves; and at the ſame time accuſations, equally attrocious, were brought againſt the people of New England. Some perſons were tried for the murders, but none executed.

Sir Francis Barnard having returned to England, the animoſities and diſputes ſtill continued between the people and Lieutenant-governor Hutchinſon, who remained in his room. But as political ſquabbles are not worthy of recording in a performance of this kind, and acrimonious accuſations, proceeding from prejudice, and propagated by partiality, ought to be conſigned to oblivion, and not introduced into a work of ſcience, we ſhall wave trivial altercations, and only regiſter the more important points of theſe unhappy differences by which the mind may be informed, and the memory will not be oppreſſed.

About the middle of December, in the year 1773, ſome ſhips, laden with tea, being at Boſton, (as a duty was to be paid,) the people would not ſuffer them to be landed. The ſhips being refuſed a clearance by the governor, unleſs the cargoes were landed, and properly diſpoſed of, a mob, dreſſed like Mohawk Indians, entered the three ſhips which contained the tea, and were commanded by the Captains Hall, Bruce, and Coffin, and emptied the cargoes, conſiſting of 342 cheſts of tea, into the water. This, and other outrages, occaſioned the Boſton-Port Bill, paſſed April 4, 1774, by which the town of Boſton was proſcribed and blocked up.

The people of New England now began to form themſelves into companies, practiſe the military arts, enter into ſolemn leagues and covenants, &c. Several of the other colonies followed their example, provincial aſſemblies were held, and a general congreſs eſtabliſhed, to which diſputes from the ſeveral provinces were invited.

Excluſive of Bickerings and animoſities between the Royaliſts and Provincials, and the martial parade of the latter, the next martial tranſaction was the ſeizure of Fort William and Mary, near Portſmouth, in New Hampſhire, by the Provincial militia, in which they found 106 barrels of gunpowder, ſeveral cannon, ſhot, ſmall arms, &c.

General Gage being informed that a great quantity of military ſtores were in the poſſeſſion of the Provincial troops, at the town of Concord, ſent a detachment of troops, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, and Major Pitcairn, ſupported by another body, commanded by Lord Percy, in order to ſeize or deſtroy them. This ſervice was effectually performed, after ſome ſkirmiſhes; but on April 19, 1775, the troops were attacked at Lexington, on their return towards Boſton. Several were killed and wounded on both ſides, the Provincials firing from behind ſtone walls, hedges, buſhes, &c.

The Provincials now inveſted the town of Boſton; and the people of New York, hearing of the action at Lexington, and the affair of Concord, roſe in a tumultuous manner, entered the town-houſe, ſeized a great many ſtands of arms, appropriated to their own uſe the cargoes of two ſhips laden with military ſtores for General Gage, and then marched to the aſſiſtance of the Boſtonians.

The provincials not only continued to block up the town of Boſton, but began to raiſe batteries on the heights of the peninſula of Charles Town, in order to cannonade his Majeſty's troops. This brought on the action of Bunker's Hill; for, on the 17th of June, 1775, a conſiderable body of troops, under the command of Major-General Howe, and Brigadier-General Pigot, were ſent to diſlodge the Provincials. This body of forces, with a proportionable quantity of artillery, made good their landing againſt Bunker's-Hill, under the protection of the ſhips of war, armed veſſels, floating batteries, &c. and being ſoon after reinforced by another detachment, a deſperate action commenced, in which the Britiſh forces were victorious, the Provincial lines being forced, and themſelves compelled to retreat, leaving behind them ſeveral pieces of cannon, and other military ſtores. The loſs of the Provincials, in killed and wounded, was very great. Of the Britiſh troops, according to the return of General Gage, 226 were killed, and 828 were wounded, ſome of the latter dying ſoon after; and more than a proportionable number of officers being included in both liſts.

At New York, on the night of the 23d of Auguſt, 1775, the cannon were ſeized upon, by order of the congreſs, though the Aſia man of war, which lay in the harbour, tried to prevent it, by cannonading the town.

At the ſame time General Carleton was indefatigable in putting the province of Canada into a proper ſtate of defence. And the earl of Dunmore, governor of Virginia, having thought proper to take refuge on board a ſhip of war, harraſſed the coaſt, and made frequent deſcents upon the laſt mentioned province, laying waſte the country; carrying off, or ſpiking up, a great number of cannon; deſtroying vaſt quantities of military ſtores belonging to the Provincials, &c. &c. But, on the other ſide, Fort St. John ſurrendered to the Provincial forces, on the 3d of November, 1775, and the garriſon became priſoners.

On the 18th of November, 1775, the Regulars and Provincials had a hot engagement near Savannah, in Georgia, in which the latter were defeated: And on the 31ſt of December, in the ſame year, the Provincial General Montgomery, who had for ſome time laid ſiege to the city of Quebec, attempted to take it by ſtorm. In this attempt, however, he was defeated and ſlain, with ſeveral of his officers, and about 60 private men, and 300 were taken priſoners. On January the 4th, 1776, ſome ſhips of war deſtroyed the town of Norfolk, in Virginia.

General Gage having been recalled, General Howe, who ſucceeded in the command, thought proper to evacuate the town of Boſton, which he effected on the 17th of March, 1776, and made good his landing, and the capture of New York. In June, 1776, a battle was fought in Canada, between the Regulars, under General Carleton, and the Provincials, at a place called Three Rivers, when the latter were defeated, many of them being killed and wounded, and about 200 taken priſoners. In June, 1776, an attempt was made on Charles Town, South Carolina, by Sir Peter Parker, at the head of a fleet of ſhips of war, and General Clinton, with a body of land forces; but it failed of ſucceſs. On the 4th of June following, the congreſs declared the colonies independent.

After the King's troops were in poſſeſſion of New York, many ſkirmiſhes happened between them and the Provincials, but nothing deciſive till October, 1776, when the latter were defeated, in an action, which, from the place where it was fought, was termed the battle of the White Plains.

In the month of November, 1776, Fort Waſhington, and Fort Lee, were taken by the Britiſh forces, together with a great variety of military ſtores, and many priſoners. In December, Rhode iſland was taken by General Clinton. About the ſame time Lord Cornwallis took poſſeſſion of Eaſt Jerſey; and General Lee was taken priſoner by a patrole, conſiſting of 30 Britiſh dragoons, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel (afterwards Lord) Harcourt.

Several ſkirmiſhes happened in the beginning of the year 1777, in the Jerſeys, with various ſucceſs. On the 23d and 24th of March, a great quantity of proviſions, ſtores, &c. with barracks, ſtorehouſes, &c. belonging to the Provincials, were deſtroyed by the King's troops at Peek's Hill, upon the North River. The cruizers belonging to Lord Howe and Commodore Hotham's fleet, continued to take many prizes. In Connecticut, on the 27th of April, 1777, the King's troops deſtroyed a great quantity of ſtores at Danbury.

General Burgoyne, with the northern army, proceeded to Ticonderago, and Fort Indepenence, which he took poſſeſſion of July 6, 1777, and found in them great quantities of ſtores and proviſions, beſides what he deſtroyed of both at Skeneſborough. Soon after he took poſſeſſion of Fort Edward, which the Provincials abandoned, and then proceeded to Saratoga, where they were ſtrongly poſted.

On the 11th of September, 1777, the troops under the command of General Howe, had an engagement with the Provincials on the Heights of Brandywine, in which many were killed and wounded on both ſides, and 400 Provincials were taken priſoners: but though the latter were defeated, and the action at firſt ſeemed of an indeciſive nature, yet it occaſioned Philadelphia to fall into the hands of the Britiſh troops. While General Howe was thus employed, an unſucceſsful attack was made by the Provincials on Staten iſland; for they were repulſed. Much about the ſame time General Clinton ſtormed and took Fort Clinton and Fort Montgomery.

On the 16th of October, 1777, the Provincials, under the command of General Gates, having ſurrounded General Burgoyne's army at Saratoga, the latter thought proper to enter into the articles of capitulation, by which himſelf and his troops, after laying down their arms, were to have a free paſſage to Great Britain.

In the latter end of the year 1777 ſeveral forts were taken by the troops and ſhipping; and many ſkirmiſhes happened on the banks of the Delaware, in order to keep up the communication with the army at Philadelphia. The Provincials likewiſe evacuated their intrenchments at Red Bank.

The campaign of 1778 began by many ravages made by the Britiſh troops in the neighbourhod of Philadelphia, and they poſſeſſed themſelves of great quantities of military ſtores, proviſions, veſſels, &c.

On the 18th of June, General Clinton (Sir William Howe having previouſly departed for England, and left to him the grand command of the Britiſh forces,) purſuant to the inſtructions received from government, evacuated Philadelphia. He was attacked on his march by the Provincials, whoſe principal object appeared to be the gaining poſſeſſion of the Britiſh baggage: but in this, however, they were diſappointed, and every where repulſed.

About this time the earl of Carliſle, Mr. Eden, and Governor Johnſtone, were ſent as commiſſioners from Great Britain, to treat of a pacification with America, but they did not meet with the ſucceſs that every true lover of both countries wiſhed.

On the 10th of December, Commodore Hotham arrived at Barbadoes with about 4000 troops from England, where he was joined by a ſmall ſquadron under the command of Admiral Barrington. They ſailed together to St. Lucia, where they landed the troops; but before they could make themſelves maſters of the iſland, Count D'Eſtaign appeared, and landed 5000 men. He was, however, repulſed with great ſlaughter, and the men obliged to make a precipitate retreat to their ſhips; againſt which Admiral Barrington's ſmall force had fully defended the harbours.

In the beginning of the year 1779, two bodies of forces, one under the command of Colonel Campbell, and the other from St. Auguſtin, in Florida, were ordered for the reduction of Georgia, in which they ſucceeded after a few actions and deſperate reſiſtance from their opponents.

In the month of December, Count D'Eſtaign, having conquered the Grenades and St. Vincent's, laid cloſe ſiege to Charles Town, then in the hands of Sir Henry Clinton, but was repulſed with great ſlaughter, and himſelf ſeverely wounded in the action.

In the month of April, 1780, Sir Henry Clinton quitted Charles Town, and went to New York, leaving the care of the former place to the Lords Cornwallis and Rawdon. The Americans, during his abſence, made ſeveral attempts on the place, but were always repulſed, owing to the vigilance of the Britiſh commander.

During Admiral Byron's ſtay in the Weſt-Indies, he in company with Admiral Barrington, engaged the French off St. Vincent's, with ſome loſs, both parties claiming the victory. About the ſame time Count D'Eſtaign made an unſucceſsful expedition to the Savannah, and afterwards returned to France.

Some time after this Admiral Rodney (who had been with ſuccours to the relief of Gibraltar, then cloſely beſieged by the Spaniards) arrived in the Weſt-Indies, and engaged the French fleet under the command of M. Guichen, but it terminated without any material victory on either ſide.

About this time hoſtilities were commenced between Great Britain and the United States of Holland, owing to a bag of papers being found belonging to Mr. Laurens, formerly preſident of the continental congreſs, who was taken by his Majeſty's frigate the Veſtal, as he was paſſing over to Holland. Mr. Laurens, after his examination, was committed cloſe priſoner to the Tower.

During theſe tranſactions a mutinous ſpirit prevailed among the continental forces in America. Brigadier Arnold had for ſome time held a correſpondence with the Engliſh General, which was principally carried on by means of Major André, adjutant-general to the Britiſh army. This young officer gave Arnold a meeting at a place appointed, the latter of whom adviſed him to diſguiſe himſelf, and, under the feigned name of John Anderſon, to make his way for New York. This advice he readily followed; but at a place called Ferry Town was ſeized by three militia men, and conducted to General Waſhington. He was immediately tried by a court-martial as a ſpy, and being found guilty, and ſentenced to death, was executed accordingly.

The campaign of the year 1781 was opened by a deſperate battle between the Britiſh forces, under the command of Lord Cornwallis, and the Provincials, under the command of General Sumpter. The Britiſh forces proved victorious, all the artillery and ammunition waggons belonging to the enemy being taken, and between eight and nine hundred ſlain, beſides great numbers taken priſoners.

On the 17th of February, Lieutenant-Colonel Tarleton, being detached with a body of forces, engaged

gaged a ſtrong party of the enemy near Broad River, under the command of General Morgan. The battle continued obſtinate on both ſides for ſome time, till at length Tarleton was obliged to retreat, leaving his killed and wounded behind him.

While theſe things were taking place on the continent, an attack was made on the Iſland of St. Euſtatius, by Sir George Brydges, Rodney, and General Vaughan, and the place was ſurrendered by the enemy without the leaſt reſiſtance. The quantity of merchandiſe found on the iſland was ſo great that the warehouſes could not contain it. The Iſlands of St. Martha and Saba likewiſe ſurrendered. This blow was ſeverely felt by the Dutch. The ſhips in the harbour were ſeized, and a fleet of 30 ſail of merchantmen fell into the hands of the Engliſh; but, on their way home, 22 of them were re-taken by the French.

About this time the Spaniards laid ſiege to Penſacola, which they took after an obſtinate reſiſtance. The garriſon obtained honourable terms, and were conveyed to New York.

During theſe tranſactions the war was carried on with great vigour on the continent. The Britiſh troops repeatedly baffled the efforts of the Provincials, and in moſt encounters came off victorious. Lord Cornwallis engaged a conſiderable body of troops, under the command of General Greene, at the town of Guildford, and, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, which laſted about half an hour, obtained a complete victory, great numbers of the Provincials being killed, and the reſt put to flight. General Greene, however, after being thus defeated, marched to Wilmington, where getting ſome ſupplies, and recruiting his ſcattered forces, he ſet out for Camden, which he expected to have found ill defended; but Lord Rawdon, who was left there, did not wait for the attack of the enemy; on the contrary, he with about 800 men, marched out to meet General Greene, whom he encountered and defeated, obliging the enemy to ſave themſelves by a very precipitate flight.

On the 20th of May Earl Cornwallis arrived at Peterſburgh in Virginia, where he joined a body of Britiſh troops that had been under the command of Major-general Philips, but the command of which, in conſequence of the death of that officer, had devolved upon Brigadier-general Arnold. Before this junction he had encountered conſiderable inconveniences from the difficulty of procuring proviſions and forage.

On the 26th of June, about ſix miles from Williamſburgh, Lieutenant-colonel Simcoe, and 350 of the Queen's Rangers, were attacked by a much ſuperior body of the Americans, but whom they repulſed with great gallantry, and with equal ſucceſs, making four officers and twenty private men priſoners. The loſs of the Americans in this action amounted to 120, beſides great numbers taken priſoners.

On the 6th of July an action happened near a place called the Green Springs in Virginia, between a reconnoitring party of the Americans under General Wayne amounting to about 800, and a large part of the Britiſh army under Lord Cornwallis, in which the Americans had 127 killed and wounded, and the loſs of the royal troops was conſiderably greater. It was an action in which no ſmall degree of military ſkill and courage were exhibited by the Americans.

In South Carolina an action happened on the 9th of September near the Eataw Springs, between a large body of Britiſh troops, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Steward, and a much ſuperior body of Americans, amounting to 4000, under the command of General Greene. It was an obſtinate battle, and laſted near two hours; but the Americans were defeated, and two of their ſix pounders fell into the hands of the Engliſh. The loſs, however, of the royal troops was very conſiderable, amounting to more than 400 killed and wounded, and upwards of 200 miſſing.

In the courſe of the ſame month General Arnold was ſent on an expedition againſt New London in Connecticut, where he deſtroyed a great part of the ſhipping and an immenſe quantity of Naval ſtores, European manufactures, and Eaſt and Weſt India commodities. The town itſelf was alſo burnt, which was unavoidable on account of the exploſions of great quantities of gunpowder, which happened to be in the ſtorehouſes that were ſet on fire. A fort, of which it was thought neceſſary to gain poſſeſſion in this expedition, was not taken without conſiderable loſs. This was fort Griſwold, which was defended by the Americans with great gallantry, and the aſſault was made by the Engliſh with equal bravery. The Britiſh troops entered the works with fixed bayonets, and were oppoſed with great vigour by the garriſon with long ſpears. After a moſt obſtinate defence of near forty minutes the aſſailants gained poſſeſſion of the fort, in which 85 Americans were found dead, and 60 wounded, moſt of them mortally. Of the Britiſh troops Major Montgomery was killed by a ſpear in entering the American works: and 192 men were alſo killed and wounded in this expedition.

During theſe tranſactions the moſt effectual meaſures were adopted by General Waſhington for ſurrounding the Britiſh army under Earl Cornwallis. A large body of French troops under the command of Lieutenant-general the Count de Rochambeau, with a very conſiderable train of artillery aſſiſted in the enterprize. The Americans amounted to near 8000 continentials, and 5000 militia, and General Waſhington was inveſted with the chief command of theſe combined forces.

In the mean time various ſkirmiſhes took place in different parts of the American continent, and were attended with various ſucceſs; but in general the Engliſh gained the ſuperiority.

On the 18th of October, 1781, a moſt deſperate battle took place between the conjunctive forces under the Provincial General Waſhington and M. Rochambeau, the French commander, and the Britiſh troops under the command of Lord Cornwallis. The latter was ſituated in a very diſadvantageous ſpot, being hemmed in on one ſide by the French fleet in the Cheſapeak River, and on the other by the continential land forces. The attack was made with great reſolution by the enemy, and, for ſome time, as ſtrongly reſiſted by the brave Cornwallis, who cut to pieces the greater part of three regiments of the French forces; but being at length overpowered with numbers, he was obliged to ſurrender, and enter into the like articles of capitulation as took place with general Burgoyne at Saratoga. Sir Henry Clinton had left New York with a conſiderable body of forces, in order to give aſſiſtance to the brave Cornwallis; but, by a manœuvre of General Waſhington (who, a ſhort time before, appeared to have ſome deſigns againſt New York) Sir Henry was too late, and the whole army of Lord Cornwallis, which amounted to 7000 men, fell into the hands of the Provincials. The earl made a defence ſuitable to the character he had acquired for courage and military ſkill; but he was compelled to ſubmit to ſuperior numbers. A conſiderable number of cannon, and a large quantity of military ſtores fell into the hands of the Americans on this occaſion.

The ſurrender of earl Cornwallis was the laſt military tranſaction of moment on the continent of North America, and led to the concluſion of a civil war, which had been unhappily attended with the loſs of a vaſt profuſion of blood and treaſure on both ſides.

No other event of that war contributed ſo effectually to produce a general conviction in the minds of men of the impracticability of the conqueſt of the American

rican colonies, eſpecially as they had formed ſuch powerful alliances.

When intelligence of the defeat of Earl Cornwallis arrived in England, that conviction appeared to be irreſiſtible; for men of all ranks and parties now declaimed againſt the continuance of a war unproductive of the effects originally deſigned, and abſolutely ruinous to the intereſts of both countries.

A member of the Britiſh Houſe of Commons, in December 1781, made two motions declaratory of the ſenſe of the houſe againſt the further proſecution of the American war.

On the 22d of February, 1782, a motion was made of the ſame tendency by a military officer, and negatived by only one voice. In a ſhort time after the ſame motion being carried, inſtructions were diſpatched in conſequence of the reſolution of the houſe of Sir Guy Carleton (who ſucceeded Sir Henry Clinton in the command of the army and the government of New York) to uſe his utmoſt endeavours for producing an accommodation with the Americans.

Sir Guy Carleton having received theſe advices, diſpatched, in the month of May, 1782, a letter to General Waſhington, informing them of the proceedings of parliament, of the diſpoſition prevalent both in that body and the Britiſh government, and of his own conſequent inſtructions, accompanied with ſuch written or printed documents as were neceſſary to illuſtrate and authenticate what he had ſtated.

As by a reſolution of the Britiſh Houſe of Commons powers had been granted to the crown for negociation and concluding a general or particular peace or truce with the whole, or any part, of the Americans, the ſeveral ſtates reprobated the idea of opening ſeparate negociations with particular governments, or bodies of men, or even of attempting to open a treaty with Congreſs without the concurrence of his allies, and came to a general determination to exert their utmoſt power conjunctively to carry on the war with vigour until peace ſhould be obtained in a manner conſiſtent with their national union.

A reſolution was alſo paſſed by Congreſs, that the United ſtates could not, with propriety, hold any conference, or treaty, with any commiſſioners on the part of Great Britain, unleſs they ſhould, as a preliminary thereunto, either withdraw their fleets or armies, or elſe, in poſitive and expreſs terms, acknowledge the independence of the ſaid States.

In the month of October, Congreſs iſſued a public declaration, in which, after reciting, that France and they were equally bound by the conditions of their alliance, that neither ſhould conclude either peace or truce with Great Britain without the conſent of the other, and obſerving that their miniſters in Europe were veſted with full power and authority in their behalf, and in conſort with their allies, to negociate and conclude a general peace, they proceeded to declare, in the ſtrongeſt terms, their fixed and unalterable determination inviolably to adhere to the treaty of alliance with his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, and to conclude neither a ſeparate peace or truce with Great Britain; and that they would not enter into the diſcuſſion of any overtures for pacification, but in confidence and in conſort with his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty.

While the Americans were thus avowing their inflexible attachment to their allies, and endeavouring, as it were, to ſhut out every overture towards a ſeparate accommodation, the belligerent powers in Europe ſeemed diſpoſed to pacific meaſures.

As the attainment of the independence of America was avowedly the grand object of the French court in the war, its being granted ſeemed at once to remove the very ground of contention. With reſpect to the adjuſtment of matters with the Britiſh court, that did not ſeem to be very difficult, as, though the acquiſitions of France in the Weſt Indies were conſiderable, her loſſes in the Eaſt left the means of a conſiderable equivalent in the hands of the Engliſh.

As to Spain, which ſeems to have entered into the war rather as an auxiliary, and in conſequence of the family compact, than as acting upon national principles, neither the embarraſſed ſtate of her finances, the repeated failure of her deſigns upon Jamaica, her very ſignal defeat at Gibraltar, or other circumſtances of her then condition, ſeemed to afford any ſolid ground upon which ſhe could reaſonably eſtabliſh further claims.

The United States of Holland, fallen and degraded to the loweſt degree, were reduced to the neceſſity of depending entirely upon the favours and protection of France, as well in the concluſion of a peace as ſhe had through the progreſs of the war.

With reſpect to the general circumſtances of the contending parties, the moſt ſucceſsful members of the alliance, great and formidable as it was, ſcarcely ſtood much leſs in need of peace than Great Britain, notwithſtanding all her loſſes, and expoſed as ſhe had ſo long been as a common mark to withſtand ſingly all their attacks in every quarter.

Under theſe general circumſtances of the contending powers, the independence of America being allowed, there did not ſeem to be any inſurmountable obſtacle in the way to the reſtoration of the public tranquility.

This plan was adopted by the new adminiſtration in England by their coming into power; commiſſioners and plenipotentaries were appointed by the reſpective powers, and on the 30th of November 1782, proviſional articles were ſigned by the commiſſioners from his Britannic Majeſty, and the commiſſioners on the part of the United States of America, which were to be inſerted in, and to conſtitute a future treaty of peace to be finally concluded between the parties, when that between Great Britain and France took place.

The hiſtory of this civil war is handed down at large to poſterity by able writers, in order to ſerve as the moſt forcible leſſons of inſtruction to the ſovereigns and ſubjects of every ſtate. In the courſe of ſuch a war the paſſions may be ſuppoſed to be inflamed to a high degree of rancour; but this will ever be the caſe in all ſublunary events; and the cruelties perpetrated on either ſide by heated or unprincipled individuals no intelligent perſon will impute to the national character at large. The virtues that ſhine in human nature, and render life deſirable and happy, are the growth of no particular country; for where the light of knowledge is diffuſed, their endearing influence will be felt with irreſiſtible force; and the poſterity of Great Britain and America, while they read with concern the phrenzy of their fathers, may be nobly vying with each other in virtuous and philoſophical emulation, and cultivating ſuch friendly connections as may render both a great and happy people.

†

A NEW

HISTORICAL AND COMMERCIAL

SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

CHAP. I.

NEW HOLLAND.

General Deſcription of it, and its Diſcovery by Captain COOK. Particular Account of BOTANY-BAY, PORT-JACKSON, NORFOLK-ISLAND, &c. including the lateſt Diſcoveries, by Captains KING, BALL, and HUNTER.

THIS immenſe tract in the ſouthern clime, called New Holland, from its having been chiefly explored by Dutch navigators, was never aſcertained as an iſland or continent, till Captain Cook, with an ardour and perſeverance pecuſiar to himſelf, and which diſtinguiſhed him from predeceſſors of every country, explored it on the eaſtermoſt coaſt in 1770, and diſcovered it to be an iſland of vaſt extent, reaching from 10 to 44 degrees ſouth, and between 110 and 154 degrees eaſt of London.

The reſpective parts on this coaſt being diſcovered by different navigators at different periods of time, they had names given them by thoſe who diſcovered them. Thus the firſt land diſcovered in theſe parts was called Eendraught (or Concord) Land, from the name of the veſſel in which the diſcovery was made in 1616, in 24 deg. 25 min. ſouth. The next ſituated in 15 deg. ſouth, was called Arnheim and Diemen, by Zeachen, who diſcovered it in 1618, though not the ſame part with that afterwards called Diemen's Land, by Taſman, which is the ſouthern extremity of the iſland, in lat. 43 degrees, and was diſcovered in 1642. Jan Van Edels gave his name to a ſouthern part diſcovered by him in 1619. A coaſt that communicates to Leawen's land towards the weſtward, and a part of the weſtern coaſt, near the tropic of Capricorn, was called De Witts, from the Peter Van Nuitz, who diſcovered them in 1627; as was the great gulph of Carpentaria, between 10 and 20 degrees ſouth, from Peter Carpenter, a Dutchman, who diſcovered it in 1628. Dampier, an Engliſhman, ſailed from Timor in 1687, and coaſted the weſtern parts of New Holland. In 1699, as the Dutch ſuppreſſed their diſcoveries, he left England in order to explore this country, and ſailing along the weſtern coaſt, from 28 to 15 degrees, ſaw the land of Eendraught and of De Witts. Returning to Timor, he ſet out from thence to proſecute his deſign, explored the iſles of Papua, ſailed round New Guinea, diſcovered the paſſage that bears his name, afterwards gave the appellation of New Britain to a conſiderable iſland that forms this paſſage, and then returned to Timor by the way of New Guinea. Captain Cook, in conſequence of his diſcovery, gave it the name of

NEW SOUTH-WALES.

This country is in general low and level, and, upon the whole, rather barren than fruitful, yet the riſing ground is chequered with woods and lawns, and the vallies and plains are, in many places, covered with herbage. The face of the country is by far moſt pleaſing to the ſouthward, the trees in that quarter being taller, and the herbage more verdant, than towards the northward; the graſs in general is high but thin, and the trees, where largeſt, are ſeldom leſs than forty feet aſunder. The whole eaſtern coaſt is well watered by ſmall brooks and ſprings. Though there are no great rivers, theſe brooks might probably be increaſed in rainy weather; it being the height of the dry ſeaſon when viſited by Captain Cook.

Of timber trees, there are but two ſorts; the largeſt is the gum-tree, which grows all over the iſland; it produces a gum of a deep red; the wood is heavy, hard, and dark-coloured, reſembling the lignum vitæ, with narrow leaves, like thoſe of the willow. The other is a ſort of pine, ſomething like the live oak of America. Of palm-trees there are three ſorts. There is alſo a kind of cherry-tree and trees with a red apple, as alſo trees with a ſoft bark, which is eaſily peeled off, and is the ſame with that uſed for calking ſhips in the Eaſt-Indies. Though there are but few eſculent plants in theſe parts, they afford a variety of ſuch as are adapted to gratify the curioſity of the naturaliſt.

In this country there were not many animals ſeen: the only tame ones were dogs. Of the wild ſpecies of quadrupeds, was a kind of opoſſum, about the ſize of a large rat, a creature with a membraneous bag near the ſtomach, in which it conceals and carries its young when apprehenſive of danger. There is a remarkable animal, called by the natives kanguroo, which, when full grown, is as large as a ſheep, ſome weighing upwards of eighty pounds. It goes in an erect poſture, and its motion is by ſucceſſive leaps or hops of a great length. The ſkin is covered with a ſhort fur of a dark mouſe or grey colour, except the head and ears, which are ſomewhat like thoſe of a hare, which it alſo reſembles in taſte, but is deemed better flavoured. They have likewiſe an animal reſembling a pole-cat, which the natives call *quoll*; the back is brown ſpotted with white, and the belly is unmixed white. It was alſo affirmed by ſome of Captain Cook's people, that they had ſeen ſome animals of the wolf and weazel kind; but as they were not caught, they cannot be deſcribed.

There are gulls, ſhaggs, ſolan-geeſe, or gannets, of two ſorts, boobies, noddies, curlieus, ducks, and pelicans of an enormous ſize. The principal land birds are brown hawks or eagles, crows, large pigeons, parrots, paroquets, cockatoos or doves, quails, buſtards, herons, cranes, and many others. Here are ſerpents, of which ſome are venomous, others harmleſs, ſcorpions, centipedes, and lizards.

The moſt remarkable inſect found in this country is the ant, of which there are ſeveral ſorts; one is green, and builds its neſt upon trees, by bending down ſeveral leaves, each of which is as broad as a man's hand, and gluing the points of them together, ſo as to form a purſe. Thouſands of theſe buſy inſects were ſeen uniting all their ſtrength to hold the leaves in due poſition, while other buſy multitudes were employed within, in applying the glutten, which is an animal juice, to prevent their returning back. Another kind burrows in the root of a plant which grows on the bark of trees, in the manner of miſletoe,

miſletoe, and is about the ſize of a large turnip. When cut, it appears interſected by innumerable winding paſſages, all filled with theſe inſects; yet the vegetation of the plant does not appear to ſuffer any injury. Another ſort are black; their habitations are the inſide of the branches of trees, which they render hollow by working out the pith, almoſt to the extremity of the twigs, yet the tree flouriſhes at the ſame time, as if it had no ſuch inmates. Theſe three ſpecies of ants are all furniſhed with ſtings, which cauſe a kind of pugnant titillation; but it ſoon ceaſes. There is ſtill another ſort poſſeſſing no power of tormenting; they reſemble the white ants of the Eaſt-Indies, and the conſtruction of their habitations is ſtill more curious than that of the former. They have two ſorts, one ſuſpended on the branches of trees, and the other built on the ground. The materials of the firſt ſeem to be formed of ſmall parts of vegetables kneaded together with a gluttinous matter, with which nature has probably ſupplied them. Upon breaking the outſide of this dwelling, innumerable cells, ſwarming with inhabitants, appear in a great variety of winding directions, all communicating with each other, and with ſeveral apertures that lead to other neſts upon the ſame tree. Their habitations upon the ground are generally at the root of a tree. They are of different ſizes, formed like an irregular ſided cone, and ſometimes more than ſix feet high. The outſide is of well tempered clay, about two inches thick; and within are the cells, which have no opening outward. Theſe ſtructures are proof againſt any wet that can fall, which thoſe on the trees are not, from the nature and thinneſs of their cruſt or wall.

Here are abundance of fiſh, and of various kinds, but unknown in Europe, except the muller and ſome of the ſhell-fiſh. Upon the ſhoals and reefs are great quantities of the fineſt green turtle in the world, and oyſters of various kinds, particularly the rock and pearl oyſter. In the rivers and ſalt creeks are alligators.

This extenſive country appears to be very thinly inhabited; as the natives along the coaſt ſeldom appear in larger companies together than thirty. The inland parts are, moſt probably, quite uninhabited, as no part of the coaſt that was viſited had any appearance of cultivation; and the wretched natives drew their whole ſubſiſtence from the ſea. The whole tribe, with which any intercourſe was eſtabliſhed, conſiſted of twenty-one perſons, twelve men, ſeven women, a boy, and a girl.

The men are of middle ſtature; their complexion is nearly of a chocolate colour, their features tolerable, their eyes pretty good, and their teeth rather even and regular. Their hair, which naturally grows long and black, they crop ſhort; their beards grow buſhy and thick, but they keep them ſhort by ſingeing them. In general, they are clean limbed, and remarkably vigorous, active, and nimble. Their countenances are not without expreſſion; but their voices are remarkably ſoft and effeminate.

Though both ſexes go ſtark naked, as deſcribed by Captain Cook, yet they are not without their ornaments, the principal of which is a bone, which they thruſt through the cartilage that divides the noſtrils from each other, and reaching quite acroſs the face, cauſes the wearer to ſnuffle, ſo as ſcarcely to be underſtood, and obliges him to keep his mouth conſtantly open in order to breathe freely. Beſides this noſe-ornament, they wear necklaces made of ſhells, bracelets of ſmall cords wound two or three times about the upper part of the arm, and a ſtring of human hair plaited, about as thick as a thread of yarn, tied round the waiſt. Some had large gorgets of ſhells hanging on the breaſt, and a few women had feathers on their heads ſtuck on with gum.

The natives paint their bodies both white and red, and draw a circle of white round each eye; they have holes in their ears; but were not ſeen to wear any thing in them. On their bodies were ſeveral large ſcars in irregular lines, apparently made by ſome blunt inſtruments, probably as memorials of grief for the dead.

Neither town nor village appeared in the whole country, nor did either art or induſtry appear in the conſtruction of their houſes, if they can be ſo called. They are built with pliable rods, not thicker than a finger, in the form of an oven, by bending them and ſticking the two ends to the ground. The covering is of palm leaves and pieces of bark, and the entrance by a large hole at one end, oppoſite to which the fire is made. Some of them are juſt high enough to ſit upright in, but not large enough for a man to extend himſelf in any direction; ſo that the tenants of theſe hovels are under the neceſſity of coiling themſelves up with their heels to their heads, in order to make room for three or four of them to ſleep together. The warmer the weather, the ſlighter the ſheds are conſtructed; one ſide is entirely open, and none of them are more than four feet deep. They are put up occaſionally as exigence may require, and left behind them when they remove to another ſpot. When they take up their reſidence only for a night in a place, they put up no ſhed, but repoſe on the buſhes and graſs, which grows here to a great height.

Their utenſils are a veſſel made of bark to hold the water they fetch from ſprings, and a bag about the ſize of a moderate cabbage-net, which the men carry upon their backs with a ſtring which paſſes over their heads. It contains paint, fiſh-hooks, darts, and bracelets, which compoſe the whole property of the richeſt men amongſt them. Their fiſh-hooks, of which many are extremely ſmall, are made with great nicety, and their mode of ſtriking turtle is curious. For this purpoſe they have a wooden peg, about a foot in length, and well bearded. This fits into a ſocket at the end of a ſtaff of light wood, in length about ſeven or eight feet, and about the thickneſs of a man's wriſt. One end of a looſe line, about three or four fathoms long, is tied to the ſtaff, and the other end faſtened to the peg. In order to ſtrike the turtle, the peg is fixed into the ſocket, ſo that when it has entered the body, and is there retained by the barb, the ſtaff flies off, and ſerves for a float to trace their victim in the water.

Fiſh indeed is their chief food, though they ſometimes contrive to kill the kanguroo, and birds of various kinds. They either broil or bake their proviſions by the help of hot ſtones, like the inhabitants of the South-ſea iſlands, for there is no appearance of their eating any animal-food raw. The only vegetable that can be conſidered as an article of food is the yam, though they may probably eat of thoſe very few fruits the country produces.

To produce fire, they take two pieces of ſoft dry wood, one a round ſtick about eight or nine inches long, the other piece is flat. One end of the round piece they ſhape into a bluntiſh point, and make a hole in the flat piece. In this hole they twirl the end of the ſtick, in the manner that we do a chocolate-mill, preſſing it down in the hole as much as poſſible. By this method they get fire in leſs than two minutes, and from the ſmalleſt ſpark increaſe it with aſtoniſhing ſpeed and dexterity. They will wrap up a ſpark in a little dry graſs, which by moving will be fanned into a blaze. Thus a man will run on for miles, and without any fire viſible in his hands, will, at a hundred yards or leſs, ſtoop down and leave fire behind him. The principal means of annoying their European viſitors, was by ſetting fire to the high graſs in the neighbourhood of the place where the tents were fixed, which being very dry, burnt with great rapidity, and did much damage.

Spears or lances of different kinds, ſome with four

prongs,

prongs, pointed with bone and barbed, are their weapons. The points are ſmeared with hard reſin, which gives them a poliſh, and makes them enter deeper into what they ſtrike. To the northward, the lance has but one point, the ſhaft is made of cane very ſtraight and light, and from eight to fourteen feet long. Theſe weapons are thrown with great force and dexterity; if intended to wound at a ſhort diſtance, as from ten to twenty yards, ſimply with the hand, but if at the diſtance of forty or fifty yards, with a throwing ſtick, and that with ſo good an aim, that the natives are as ſure of their mark as the moſt expert ſportſman with a fowling-piece. Theſe lances cannot be drawn out of a wound without tearing away the fleſh, or leaving the ſharp ragged ſplinters of the bone or ſhell which forms the barb behind them.

The canoes of this country make as wretched an appearance as their dwellings. Thoſe on the ſouthern part of the coaſt are made of one piece of bark, tied together at the ends, and kept open in the middle by ſmall bows of wood. In ſhallow water, they puſh them on by a pole; in deeper, by paddles about eighteen inches long, two of which they uſe at a time. To the northward, they are made of the trunk of a tree hollowed out by fire. They are about fourteen feet in length, very narrow, and fitted with an outrigger to prevent their overſetting None of theſe boats will carry more than four people.

The only tools ſeen among them were an adze clumſily made of ſtone, ſome ſmall pieces of the ſame ſubſtance in form of a wedge, a wooden mallet, and ſome ſhells and fragments of coral.

The New-Hollanders have no idea of traffic, for though they received the things that were given them, they appeared wholly inſenſible to all the ſigns that were made them that ſomething was expected in return. Many of the trinkets that were given them were afterwards found negligently thrown away in the woods, like toys, the charms of which ceaſed with their novelty.

The cauſe of the ſmall number of the human ſpecies which are to be met with throughout this country cannot be aſcertained: but from their total ignorance of agriculture, commerce, and the means of procuring the comforts and conveniences of life, they appear ſuch as Europeans would rank among the moſt miſerable of the human ſpecies.

BOTANY-BAY.

Its ſeveral Productions; alſo the Genius and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants.

GOVERNMENT having formed a deſign to remove the great inconvenience which this country ſuffered, from the gaols being ſo exceedingly crowded with criminals, who had by the laws been ſentenced to tranſportation, determined, for this neceſſary purpoſe, to eſtabliſh a ſettlement on the eaſt coaſt of New Holland; and as Botany-Bay was the only place entered by Captain Cook's ſhip, which could be called a harbour, it was fixed on as the moſt convenient place for the intended purpoſe.

This place was called Botany-Bay, from the great quantity of plants collected there; and the ſpot where our new ſettlement is made, lies in latitude 34 ſouth, and in longitude from Greenwich 151 degrees 23 minutes. Captain Cook deſcribes it as capacious, ſafe, and convenient; to be known by the land on the ſea coaſt, which is nearly level and of a moderate height, with ſteep rocky cliffs next the ſea, which have the appearance of a long iſland lying cloſe under the ſhore. About the middle of this land lies the harbour, which, on approaching it from the ſouthward, is diſcovered before the veſſel comes abreaſt of it, but it is not diſcovered ſo ſoon from the northward: the entrance is little more than a quarter of a mile, and lies to the W. N. W.

There are but two kinds of timber-wood here. The trees are as large, or larger than the Engliſh oak, and one of them has ſome reſemblance of it. It is that which yields the reddiſh gum like dragons blood, and the wood is heavy, hard, and dark-coloured like *lignum vitæ*. The other, which grows tall and ſtraight, is ſomething like a pine; and the wood of it, which bears ſome ſimilitude to the live oak of America, is likewiſe hard and heavy. There are few ſhrubs and ſeveral kinds of palm: mangroves abound towards the head of the bay.

The country in general, as far as it was obſerved, is level, low, and woody. In the woods are great numbers of birds of exquiſite beauty, particularly of the parrot kind; there were found alſo crows exactly ſimilar to thoſe in England. There is great plenty of water fowl towards the head of the harbour, where are large flats of ſand and mud, but their ſpecies is chiefly unknown. One of the moſt remarkable was black and white, much larger than a ſwan, and in ſhape ſomewhat reſembling a pelican. The banks of ſand and mud produced great quantities of oyſters, muſcles, cockles, and other ſhell fiſh, which ſeem to be the chief ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants, who go in ſhoal water with their little canoes, and gather them up. Beſides theſe, they catch other fiſh, ſome of which they ſtrike with gigs, and ſome they take with hook and line.

Of their preciſe manner of life little can be known, as no connection was formed with them, for they never afforded an European navigator an opportunity for a parley, nor would they touch any one article that was left in their huts (or any places they frequented) on purpoſe for them to take away.

From the place where the ſhip anchored in April 1770, which was abreſt of a ſmall village conſiſting of ſix or eight houſes, as the men were preparing to hoiſt out the boat, they obſerved an old woman and three children come out of the wood, where they had been to fetch materials for firing. She frequently caſt an eye towards the veſſel, but expreſſed neither in look or geſture the ſmalleſt degree of fear or ſurpriſe. Having kindled a fire, ſome men landed from four canoes that came in from fiſhing, and having hauled up their boats began to prepare their food, wholly unconcerned about the ſtrangers, though within only half a mile of them. They had not yet ſeen one of them but was ſtark naked, the old woman herſelf being deſtitute of the leaſt covering.

A company ſet out from the ſhip (with Tupia, one of the natives of that clime, of the party) with a deſign of landing on the ſpot where they ſaw the people, hoping to meet no interruption, as they ſo little regarded their coming into the bay. But they found themſelves diſappointed, for as ſoon as they approached the rock, two of the natives came down, each armed with a lance about ten feet long, and a ſhort ſtick which appeared to be uſed as a machine to aſſiſt them in throwing it. They ſeemed determined to defend their coaſt, though the party that landed were forty in number.

Tupia, above-mentioned, was a native of Otaheite, viſited by Captain Cook previous to his arrival here. This man was ſo firmly attached to our people, from being almoſt conſtantly with them during their ſtay in his own country, that he often expreſſed a deſire of going with them. To have ſuch a perſon on board was certainly deſirable, for many reaſons. He was a man of the firſt rank in his country, and had great experience in navigation. By learning his language, and teaching him theirs, our people might derive much uſeful information; and as there was reaſon to apprehend there was great ſimilarity (as appeared in the inſtance of New Zealand) between the languages of the natives of theſe ſouthern climes, he might occaſionally ſerve as an interpreter. In fine, as he

was

was evidently a man of genius and ſcience, Captain Cook gladly admitted him and his ſervant on board, on the ſhip's departure from Otaheite. But to return:

The Captain, with his wonted humanity, being deſirous of preventing hoſtilities with ſuch inequality of force, ordered the boat's crew to lie upon their oars, when they parlied by ſigns, and to procure their good will he cauſed nails, beads, and other trifles to be thrown to them, which they took up with apparent ſatisfaction. Signs were then made by the Europeans, that they wanted water, and every means uſed that could be deviſed to prevail with them to believe the innocence of their deſign. The natives waving to them being interpreted as an invitation, they put on the boat, but the men on ſhore reſumed their poſture of defence. One appeared to be a youth about nineteen or twenty, and the other a man of middle age. Captain Cook, now urged by neceſſity, fired a muſket between them, upon the report of which, the younger dropped a bundle of lances, but, upon inſtantaneous recollection, ſnatched them up in great haſte. Two diſcharges of ſmall-ſhot from the muſket on the one party, and a diſcharge of a ſtone and a lance from the other enſued, in conſequence of which the eldeſt of the natives was ſlightly wounded in the legs, but the Europeans received no hurt; when on the ſuggeſtion of Mr. Banks (now Sir Joſeph) that the lances might be poiſoned, it was deemed imprudent to venture into the woods. They then viſited the huts, in one of which were ſome children hid behind a ſhield, and ſome bark. They were left in their retreat without knowing they had been diſcovered, and the viſitors on their departure threw in ſome beads, ribbons, pieces of cloth, and other preſents, in order to conciliate the inhabitants on their return. They took away with them all the lances they found lying about, to the number of fifty. They were in length from ſix to fifteen feet, had four prongs like a fiſh-gig, each pointed with a fiſh bone, and very ſharp. They were ſmeared with a vicious ſubſtance, of a green colour, which favoured the opinion of their being poiſoned; though it proved after to be a miſtake, for it was diſcovered from the ſea weed that adhered to them, that they had been uſed for the purpoſe of ſtriking fiſh.

The canoes on the beach ſeemed to be the worſt that had been ſeen. They were between twelve and fourteen feet long, and made of the bark of a tree of one piece, which had been drawn together and tied up at each end, the middle being kept open by ſticks, which were placed from gunwale to gunwale as thwarts. It was now remarked that this boldneſs of the natives dwindled into a general trepidation; not only from the ſmall-ſhot which had been diſcharged at the two champions who firſt defended the coaſt, but likewiſe the havock made by the ſmall arms amongſt the birds.

The Europeans having re-embarked in their boat, depoſited their lances on board, and proceeded to the north point of the bay, but the inhabitants they had ſeen on their entrance, had by this time totally deſerted it. Upon going on ſhore the following day in queſt of water, a ſmall ſtream was found fully anſwerable to their purpoſe. It was obſerved by ſome of the officers, upon re-viſiting the huts, that the beads, ribbons, &c. which had been left there the preceding night, remained in the very ſame place untouched, nor was there an Indian to be ſeen. Thoſe alſo whom they ſaw upon a future excurſion, fled at their approach, as they did upon every like occaſion.

In proceſs of time, Captain Cook, accompanied by Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, and ſeven others, determined to make an excurſion into the country, and having properly accoutred themſelves for the expedition, ſet out and firſt viſited the huts, near the watering place, where ſome of the natives daily reſorted; and though they found the preſents ſtill remained untouched, they left other articles of more value, and then went up into the country. The ſoil was found to be either ſwamp or light ſand, and the face of the country to be pleaſingly variegated by woods and lawns. The trees are tall, ſtraight, and ſtand at ſuch a diſtance from each other, that the whole country, or that part at leaſt where the ſwamps do not interpoſe, might be cultivated without felling one of them. The ground between the trees is covered with graſs, of which there is great abundance growing in tufts as large as can be graſped in the hand, which ſtand very cloſe to each other. Many ſheds of the natives, and places where they had ſlept on the graſs, without any ſhelter, were ſeen; but only one of the people, who fled the moment he was diſcovered. Preſents were left at all theſe places, with the ſame veiw as before, of producing confidence.

With reſpect to diſcoveries on this firſt excurſion, it is noticed, that they had a tranſient and imperfect view of a quadruped about the ſize of a rabbit. An Engliſh greyhound, which was with them, got ſight of it, and would probably have caught it, had he not been lamed by a ſtump that lay concealed in the graſs. They afterwards ſaw the dung of an animal that fed upon graſs, and which they judged could not be leſs than a deer; and the footſteps of another, which was clawed like a dog, and ſeemed about the ſize of a wolf. They alſo traced a ſmall animal, whoſe feet reſembled that of a pole-cat or weazle. Birds of various kinds were ſeen in their trees, ſome of them of exquiſite beauty, particularly loriquets and cockatoos, which flew in numerous flocks. The trees were not of many ſorts, but it appeared that ſteps had been cut in ſome of them at certain diſtances for the convenience of climbing.

The ſame party made another excurſion along the ſea coaſt to the ſouthward, and the next day gathered many plants, beſides which they ſaw nothing worthy of notice. But Captain Cook, with his wonted perſeverence, went with two ingenious gentlemen to the head of the bay, in order to explore that part of the country, and make further attempts to form ſome connection with the natives. Proceeding up the country to ſome diſtance, they found the face of it, nearly the ſame with that which has been already deſcribed; but the ſoil was much richer, for inſtead of ſand, there was diſcovered a deep black mould, which appeared very fit for the production of grain of any kind. In the woods was found a tree which bore fruit that in colour and ſhape reſembled a cherry, the juice was agreeably tart, though it had but little flavour. Interſperſed were ſome very fine meadows; ſome places were rocky, but thoſe were comparatively few; the ſtone is ſandy and fit for building.

A petty officer, having ſtraggled a long way from his companions, met with a very old man and woman and ſome little children ſitting under a tree by the water ſide, and though neither party ſaw the other till they were cloſe together, the Indians ſhewed ſigns of fear, but did not attempt to run away. The man and woman were both grey headed with age, the hair on the man's head was buſhy, and his beard long and rough, the woman's hair was cropped, and both of them were ſtark naked. Another party afterwards went over to the north ſhore, and made an excurſion a few miles into the country, proceeding afterwards in the direction of the coaſt. This part was found without wood, and ſomewhat reſembling the marſhes in England. The ſurface of the ground was covered with a thin bruſh of plants about as high as the knees: the hills near the coaſt are low, but others riſe behind them, increaſing by a gradual aſcent to a conſiderable diſtance, with marſhes and moraſſes between.

To the northward is Hervey's-Bay, in which was found

†

found a real mangrove, ſuch as grows in the Weſt-Indies, and the firſt of the kind met with in theſe ſeas. In the branches of this mangrove were many neſts of a remarkable kind of ant as green as graſs. There were alſo ſeen upon them great numbers of ſmall green caterpillars, their foreheads were thick ſet with hairs, and they were ranged upon the leaves ſide by ſide like a file of ſoldiers to the number of twenty or thirty together. The hair of their bodies on touching them was found to have the quality of a nettle, and gave a much more acute though leſs durable pain.

A ſpecies of the buſtard was found further to the northward, as large as a turkey, one of which weighed ſeventeen pounds and an half. Thoſe who partook of it allowed it to be the beſt bird they had taſted ſince they left England; and in honour of it they called the inlet Buſtard-Bay. It lies in latitude 24 degrees 4 minutes, and 151 degrees 42 minutes eaſt. Here are oyſters in great plenty; amongſt others, the hammer oyſter, and abundance of ſmall pearl oyſters, from whence Captain Cook took occaſion to remark, "that if in deeper water there was equal plenty of ſuch oyſters at their full growth, a pearl fiſhery might be eſtabliſhed here to very great advantage."

During the ſtay of the Engliſh in the harbour, they cauſed the Britiſh colours to be diſplayed on ſhore every day, and the ſhip's name and the date of the year to be inſcribed on one of the trees near the watering place, to perpetuate the memory of their tranſactions; and on the 6th of May they ſet ſail from New Holland.

Along the coaſt of New South-Wales the ſea in all parts conceals ſhoals that ſuddenly project from the ſhore, and rocks that abruptly riſe like a pyramid from the bottom for an extent of 22 degrees latitude, more than 1300 miles. Off Cape Tribulation our bold and hitherto fortunate adventurers very nearly eſcaped the miſeries of ſhipwreck; for on the 10th of June 1770, at eleven o'clock at night, the ſhip ſuddenly ſtruck againſt a coral rock and became immoveable, except by the heaving of the ſurge, which beat her againſt the crags of the rock upon which ſhe lay, and cauſed ſo violent a concuſſion, that it was with the utmoſt difficulty the ableſt man on board could ſtand upon his legs. At length, after a ſeries of hardſhips, fatigue, and danger, they were happily delivered, and the river which afforded themrelief in this emergency was named *Endeavour River*.

Captain Cook, being reſolved to determine whether this country did or did not join to New Guinea, in effecting his deſign braved ſuch dangers as would have appalled the reſolution of any man whoſe ſpirit for diſcovery had not abſorbed all regard to perſonal ſafety. After much inveſtigation he found the two countries to be divided by a narrow ſea, which he therefore called *Endeavour Streights*.

The moſt northern promontory of the country is York Cape, in 142 degrees eaſt longitude; 10 degrees 37 minutes ſouth latitude. On a ſmall iſland our countryman took poſſeſſion of the whole eaſtern coaſt in right of his Majeſty King George the Third, by the name of New South-Wales, on which account the iſland received the name of Poſſeſſion-Iſland. Here the few inhabitants that were ſeen, both men and women, were alſo ſtark naked. Endeavour Straights are ten leagues long from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, and about five leagues broad. The north-eaſt entrance of this paſſage is formed by New Holland, and the ſouth-eaſt by an aſſemblage of iſlands, which have been called the Prince of Wales's Iſlands, and probably extend near to New Guinea. Monſieur de Bougainville, the celebrated French navigator, who came juſt at the entrance of theſe ſtraights to the moſt ſouth-eaſt parts of New Guinea, called that ſea, "That Gulph of the Louiſiade," the ſtraights ſince navigated by Captain Cook being not known to exiſt.

Before we leave Botany-Bay, we preſume the following ſhort account of the proceedings in trying offenders in the criminal courts there (as related by Captain Hunter, in his Hiſtorical Journal) will be acceptable to our readers: "The judge-advocate iſſues his precept for the three ſenior naval officers, and their military officers, to aſſemble at the time appointed, dreſſed in their uniforms and their ſide-arms. When they are met, the judge advocate adminiſters an oath to the members, ſimilar to that which is uſed at military courts-martial; afterwards, one of the members adminiſters the ſame oath to the judge-advocate who preſides at the court, and the reſt take their ſeats according to their rank. The priſoner is then aſked, whether he is guilty or not, and, as the general anſwer is, Not Guilty, the accuſations againſt him are read, and witneſſes are examined on oath to ſupport or prove the charge; after which the priſoner enters on his defence, and brings evidence to prove his innocence: the court is then cleared, and the members conſider what ſentence to pronounce; if it be death, five out of the ſeven muſt concur in opinion. The governor can reſpite a criminal condemned to die, and the legiſlature has fully impowered him to execute the ſentence of the law, or to temper it with mercy. Actions for debt, to a certain amount, are cognizable by this court, as are all other actions of common law, when they are decided according to the law of England, as nearly as the ſituation will allow.

PORT-JACKSON.

Deſcription of the Country, and its Produce. Some Account of the Natives: their Diſpoſition, Weapons, Ornaments, &c.

AS nothing was found in Botany-Bay to recommend it as a place on which to form an infant ſettlement; the governor, accompanied by Captain Hunter, and two other officers, ſoon diſcovered a large opening, or bay, about three leagues and a half to the northward of Cape Banks; and ſuch was their account of the harbour, and the advantages attending the place, upon their return, that a reſolution was formed of evacuating Botany-Bay, and fixing their reſidence here.

At day-break a general alarm was given, by the appearance of two ſhips, of conſiderable ſize, ſtanding in for the mouth of the bay, it being the prevailing opinion that they were Dutchmen, ſent to aſſert a claim to the country. The two ſtrangers proved to be the Buffalo and Aſtrolabe, which ſailed from Breſt in June 1785, upon diſcoveries, and were commanded by Monſieur de la Peyrouſe; M. de L'Angle, who commanded one of the ſhips when they left France, had been lately, when the ſhips were at the Iſlands of Navigators, murdered, with ſeveral other officers and ſeamen, by the natives, who had, before that unfortunate day, always appeared to be upon the moſt friendly and familiar terms with them. This accident, it ſeems, happened when their launches were on ſhore filling water, on the laſt day they intended remaining on thoſe Iſlands. While they were employed in filling their water-caſks, having the moſt perfect confidence in the friendly diſpoſition of the natives, the ſailors had been attentive to the keeping the boats afloat. Some miſunderſtanding having alſo happened between ſome of the ſeamen and the natives, an inſult had been offered by one or other, which was reſented by the oppoſite party: a quarrel enſued, and the impoſſibility of moving the boats expoſed the officers and crew to the rage of the multitude, who attacked them with clubs and ſhowers of ſtones; and would inevitably have maſſacred the whole, if there had not been a ſmall boat at hand, which picked up thoſe who, depending on

their ſwimming, had quitted the ſhore. Many of the natives were killed upon this occaſion; and the loſs of the ſhips was ſaid to be fourteen perſons killed, including Captain de L'Angle, and ſome other officers; ſeveral were much wounded, and the boats were entirely deſtroyed.

The paſſage from Botany-Bay to Port-Jackſon was both ſpeedy and pleaſant. Having paſſed between the Capes which form its entrance, the fleet arrived at Port-Jackſon, one of the fineſt and moſt extenſive harbours in the univerſe, and at the ſame time the moſt ſecure, being ſafe from all the winds that blow. It is divided into a great number of coves, to which the governor has given different names. That on which the town is to be built is called Sydney-Cove. It is one of the ſmalleſt in the harbour, but the moſt convenient, as ſhips of the greateſt burden can with eaſe go into it, and heave out cloſe to the ſhore. Trincomalée, acknowledged to be one of the beſt harbours in the world, is by no means to be compared to it. In a word, Port-Jackſon would afford ſufficient and ſafe anchorage for all the natives of Europe. During a run up the harbour of about four miles, in a weſterly direction, a luxuriant proſpect preſented itſelf on the ſhores, covered with trees to the water's edge, among which many of the Indians were frequently ſeen, till the fleet arrived at a ſmall ſnug cove to the ſouthward, on the banks of which the plan of operations were deſtined to commence. On their arrival, the natives appeared tolerably numerous, from whence they had reaſon to conclude the country more populous than Captain Cook thought it, as they were aſſembled on the beach, to the ſouth ſhore, to the number of not leſs than forty perſons, ſhouting, and making many uncouth ſigns and geſtures. As the boat, in which were the governor, ſome officers, and attendants, rowed up the harbour cloſe to the land, for ſome diſtance, the Indians kept pace with her on the beach. When ſigns were made of a want of water, the natives directly comprehended the meaning, and pointed to a ſpot where it could be procured; on which the boat was immediately puſhed in, and a landing took place. The Indians, though timorous, ſhewed no ſigns of reſentment at our people's going on ſhore; and when an interview commenced, ſeemed highly entertained with their new acquaintance, from whom they accepted of a looking glaſs, ſome beads, and other toys.

In the late expedition, the adventurers had ſeveral more interviews with the natives, which ended in ſo friendly a manner, that hopes were entertained of bringing about a connection with them. The firſt object of our people was to win their affection, and the next to convince them of our ſuperiority. To this purpoſe an officer one day prevailed on one of them to place a target, made of bark, againſt a tree, which he fired at with a piſtol, at the diſtance of ſome paces. The Indians, though terrified at the report, did not run away; but their aſtoniſhment exceeded their alarm, on looking at the ſhield which the ball had perforated. As this produced a little ſhyneſs, the officer, to diſſipate their fears, and remove their jealouſy, whiſtled the air of *Marlbrouk*, with which they appeared highly charmed, and imitated him with equal pleaſure and readineſs.

Upon this occaſion an officer remarked, that he was afterwards told by Monſieur de Peyrouſe, the French commandant before mentioned, that the natives of California, and throughout all the iſlands of the Pacific Ocean, and, in ſhort, wherever he had been, ſeemed equally touched and delighted with this little plaintive air.

Some of the officers one day met a native, an old man, in the woods. He had a beard of conſiderable length, which his new acquaintance gave him to underſtand, by ſignals, they would rid him of, if he pleaſed; ſtroaking their chins, and ſhewing him the ſmoothneſs of them at the ſame time. At length the old Indian conſented; and one of the officers, taking a penknife from his pocket, and making uſe of the beſt ſubſtitute for lather he could find, performed the operation with great ſucceſs, and, as it proved, much to the liking of the old man, who, in a few days after, repoſed a confidence in our people, of which they had hitherto known no example, by paddling along-ſide one of the ſhips in his canoe, and pointing to his beard. Various arts were ineffectually tried to induce him to enter the ſhip; but as he continued to decline the invitation, a barber was ſent down into the boat along-ſide the canoe, from whence leaning over the gunwale, he complied with the wiſh of the old beau, to his infinite ſatisfaction In addition to the conſequences expected from this dawning of cordiality, it afforded proof, that the beard is conſidered by theſe people more as an incumbrance than a mark of dignity.

After tranſacting the neceſſary previous buſineſs, the commiſſions were upon an appointed day read, and poſſeſſion was taken of the ſettlement in form. The marine battalion being drawn up, and the convicts aſſembled on the occaſion, his Majeſty's commiſſion was read, appointing his Excellency Arthur Philip, Eſq. Governor and Captain General in and over the territory of New South-Wales, and its dependencies; together with the acts of parliament for eſtabliſhing trials by law within the ſame, and the patents, under the great ſeal of Great-Britain, for holding civil and criminal courts of judicature, by which all caſes of life and death, as well as matters of property were to be decided.

The extent of this authority is defined, in the governor's commiſſion, to reach from the latitude of 43 deg. 49 min. ſouth, to the latitude of 10 deg. 37 min. ſouth, being the northern and ſouthern extremities of New Holland. It commences again at the 135th degree of longitude eaſt, and proceeding in an eaſterly direction, comprehends all iſlands within the limits of the above ſpecified latitudes in the Pacific Ocean. As the diſcoveries of Engliſh navigators alone are compriſed in this territory, it is preſumed, this partition will obviate all cauſe of future ligitation between us and the Dutch. It appears from the commiſſion, conſidered in the whole, that government have been no leſs attentive in arming Mr. Phillip with plenitude of power, than extent of dominion.

In order to enforce the rigour of the law, it was found neceſſary to reſtrain the violation of public ſecurity. A ſet of deſperate and hardened miſcreants leagued themſelves for the purpoſes of depredation; and, as is generally the caſe, had inſinuation enough to entice others, leſs verſed in iniquity, to become inſtrumental in carrying it on.

About the middle of March, the French departed from this place, on the proſecution of their voyage; and that during their ſtay in that part, the officers of the two nations had frequent opportunities of teſtifying their mutual regard, by viſits, and every token of friendſhip and zeal. The gentleman to whom we are indebted for this account, mentions Monſieur de Peyrouſe with the higheſt reſpect, as an officer of eminent qualifications, and a man of exemplary humanity, of which he gave proof, in a ſtriking, as well as laudable, inſtance of conduct, when ordered to deſtroy our ſettlement at Honduras in the laſt war. He always mentioned the name and talents of Captain Cook in the moſt feeling manner, and declared with the utmoſt frankneſs and candour, that "our illuſtrious circumnavigator had left nothing to thoſe who might follow in his track to deſcribe or fill up." Being aſked what reception he had met with when he touched at the Sandwich-Iſlands, his anſwer is highly worthy of notice: "During the whole of our voyage in the South-Seas, ſaid he, the people of the Sandwich-Iſlands were the only Indians who never

gave

gave us cauſe of Complaint. They furniſhed us liberally with proviſions, and adminiſtered cheerfully to all our wants." It is remarked, upon this occaſion, with equal candour, that Owhyhee was not one of the iſlands viſited by that navigator.

Captain Hunter obſerves, "That with a ſmall company he was one day on ſhore in another part of the harbour, making friendſhip with a party of the natives, when in a ſhort time their numbers increaſed to eighty or ninety men, all armed with a lance and throwing-ſtick, and many with the addition of a ſhield made of the bark of a tree: ſome were in ſhape an oblong ſquare, and others of theſe ſhields were oval; theſe were the firſt ſhields we had ſeen in the country; it has been ſince found that they are made in general of wood. The natives were much ſurpriſed at one of our gentlemen, who, pulling a piſtol out of his pocket, that was loaded with ball, and ſtanding at ſome diſtance, fired the ball through the thickeſt part of the ſhield; which they examined with aſtoniſhment, and ſeemed to wonder that an inſtrument ſo ſmall ſhould be capable of wounding ſo deep.

"The natives were noiſy, but did not appear diſpoſed to quarrel; we gave them ſuch little preſents as we had with us, with which they ſeemed well pleaſed; although we had much reaſon afterwards to believe that ſuch trifles only pleaſed them as baubles do children, for a moment; for at other times we had frequently found our preſents lying diſperſed on the beach, though caught at by theſe people with apparent avidity at the time they were offered.

"While we were employed with this party, we obſerved at a diſtance a number of women, who were peeping from their concealments, but durſt not gratify their natural curioſity, by appearing openly and converſing with us, as the men appeared here to be very abſolute. I ſignified to the men, that we had obſerved the women, and that I wiſhed to make them ſome preſents, if they might be permitted to come forward and receive them. The men ſeemed unwilling to ſuffer them to advance; for we had frequently obſerved, that they took particular care upon every occaſion to keep the women at a diſtance, and I believe wholly from an idea of danger. They deſired to have the preſents for the women, and they would carry and deliver them; but to this propoſal I poſitively refuſed to agree, and made them underſtand, that unleſs they were allowed to come forward, they ſhould not have any.

"Finding I was determined, an old man, who ſeemed to have the principal authority, directed the women to advance, which they did immediately, with much good humour; and, during the whole time that we were decorating them with beads, rags of white linen, and ſome other trifles, they laughed immoderately, although trembling at the ſame time through an idea of danger. Moſt of thoſe we ſaw at this time were young women, whom I judged were from eighteen to twenty-five years of age: they were all perfectly naked, as when firſt born; are in general well made, not quite ſo thin as the men, but rather ſmaller limbed."

The account further obſerves, that the men, being armed, ſcarified, and painted, drew themſelves up in a line on the beach, and each man had a green bough in his hand, as a ſign of friendſhip; their diſpoſition was as regular as any well diſciplined troops could have been; and this party, it was apprehended, they deſigned entirely for the defence of the women, if any inſult had been offered them. At this interview, two very ſtout men were placed upon a rock, near to where the boats lay, as centinels, for they never moved from the ſpot till the boats left the beach: ſo that it is probable they were ordered there to watch the motions of their viſitors.

As the governor was exploring Broken-Bay, which is contiguous to Port-Jackſon, he ſaw a great number of the natives. One of the females had formed an attachment to his great coat; and to obtain it ſhe uſed a variety of means. Firſt, ſhe danced and played a number of antic tricks; but finding this mode ineffectual, ſhe had recourſe to tears, which ſhe ſhed plentifully. This expedient not anſwering, ſhe ceaſed from weeping, and appeared as cheerful as any of the party around her. We have introduced this incident, to ſhew that they are not a people devoid of art and fineſſe, in order to obtain their ends; for though their women appeared with ſuch few decorations, yet it was evident they had no averſion to finery.

The ſurgeon obſerved, at a repaſt, wherein he grouped with the natives, one of the women who ſat next to him, obſerving that he had a white handkerchief in his hand, exhibited a number of laſcivious airs, in order to obtain it. He therefore tore it into ribbons, being deſirous of multiplying one preſent into many, with which he decorated her head and neck. On her admiring the buttons of his coat, as he had nothing elſe left, he cut them away, and tied them round her waiſt. Thus ornamented, and charmed with her acquirements, ſhe turned away with a look of inexpreſſible archneſs and joy, which ſeemed to ſhew that, like the women in the South-Seas in general, they are fond of new ornaments. He alſo obſerved, that there is no hoſpitality nor harmony among them; as appeared from their eating ſo greedily without regarding the accommodation of any about them; devouring the fiſh voraciouſly, which had been thrown on the fire and ſcarcely warm.

Theſe people are very ravenous in their appetites, as appears from the following inſtance. One of the officers ſhot a bird, which fell at an old man's feet. The exploſion at firſt greatly alarmed him; but perceiving no ill was intended, he ſoon got over his fears. The bird was then given to him, which, having barely plucked, and not more than half broiled, he devoured, entrails, bones and all.

A convict, who had been gathering what they call ſweet tea, about a mile from the camp, met a party of the natives, conſiſting of fourteen, by whom he was beaten and wounded with the ſtick uſed in throwing their ſpears. They then made him ſtrip, and would have taken from him his clothes, and probably his life, had it not been for the report of ſome muſkets, which they no ſooner heard than they ran away.

The following circumſtances will convince us of the deſtructive nature of their weapons, and their ſkill and adroitneſs in the uſe of them. A convict, being in a ſtate of convaleſcence, had obtained permiſſion from the governor to go a little way up the country, to gather herbs, for the purpoſe of making tea. This man, after night ſet in, was brought to the hoſpital, with one of the ſpears uſed by the natives ſticking in his loins. It had been darted at him as he was ſtooping, and while his back was turned to the aſſailant. The weapon was barbed, and ſtuck ſo very faſt, that it would admit of no motion. The ſurgeon, after dilating the wound to a conſiderable length and depth, with ſome difficulty extracted the ſpear, which had penetrated the fleſh nearly three inches. After the operation, the convict gave information, that he had received his wound from three of the natives, who came behind him at a time when he expected no perſon to be near him, except another convict, whom he had met a little before, employed on the ſame buſineſs as himſelf. He added, that after they had wounded him, they beat him in a cruel manner; and ſtripping the clothes from his back, carried them off, making ſigns to him (as he interpreted them) to return to the camp. He further related, that after they had left him, he ſaw his fellow convict in the poſſeſſion of another party of the natives,

natives, who were dragging him along, with his head bleeding, and ſeemingly in great diſtreſs; while he himſelf was ſo exhauſted with the loſs of blood, that inſtead of being able to aſſiſt his companion, he was happy to eſcape with his life.

They afterwards continued to avail themſelves of every opportunity of exerciſing their cruelty on our people. An officer of the marines, who had been up the harbour to procure ſome ruſhes for thatch, brought to the hoſpital the bodies of two men employed as ruſh-cutters, whom he found murdered by the natives in a ſhocking manner. One of them was transfixed through the breaſt with one of their ſpears, which was extracted with great difficulty and force. He had two other ſpears ſticking in him to a depth which muſt have proved mortal. His ſkull was divided and comminuted ſo much, that his brains eaſily found a paſſage through. His eyes were out. The other was a youth, and had only ſome trifling marks of violence about him. This lad could not have been many hours dead; for when the officer found him among ſome mangrove trees, and at a conſiderable diſtance from where the other man lay, he was not ſtiff, nor very cold; nor was he perfectly ſo when brought to the hoſpital. The natives, whenever an opportunity offers, never fail to ſteal or deſtroy any of the live ſtock they can poſſibly get poſſeſſion of. Nor are they leſs cowardly than cruel; for they always behave with an apparent civility when they fall in with men that are armed; but when they meet perſons unarmed, they ſeldom fail to take every advantage of them; in conſequence of which, many of the convicts have fallen ſacrifices to theſe ſavages: but the ſoldiers they never aſſail, being always terrified at the ſight of a red coat.

Theſe people are very happy at grimace and mimicry; as an inſtance of which, it is remarked by the ſurgeon of the ſettlement, that, going upon an excurſion, they obſerved a party of the natives fiſhing, and ſat down near the bank, to watch their motions. To paſs away time, one of the gentlemen ſung ſeveral ſongs; and when he had done, the females in the canoes either ſung one of their own ſongs, or imitated him, in which they ſucceeded beyond conception. Any thing ſpoken by our people they moſt accurately recited, and this in a manner in which the Europeans fell greatly ſhort in their attempts to repeat the language after them, which ſhews the ſtrength of their organical powers. Nor are they without ingenuity, as appeared from various figures obſerved by a party of our people on their excurſion to the weſtward. Theſe figures were cut on the ſmooth ſurface of ſome large ſtones, and conſiſted chiefly of repreſentations of themſelves in different attitudes, of their canoes, of ſeveral ſorts of fiſh, and animals: and conſidering the rudeneſs of the inſtruments with which the figures muſt have been executed, they ſeemed to exhibit tolerable likeneſſes.

The natives are generally of the common ſtature; but their limbs are remarkably ſmall. Their ſkin is of the colour of wood ſoot, or what would be called a dark chocolate colour. Their hair is black, but not woolly; it is ſhort, but not cropt; in ſome lank, in others curled. Some parts of their bodies are painted red; and the upper lip and breaſts of ſome of them are painted with ſtreaks of white. Their features are far from diſagreeable; and their teeth even and white. Their voices are ſoft and tuneable. It is remarked, that the deficiency of one of the fore teeth of the upper jaw, mentioned by Dampier, was ſeen in almoſt the whole of the men; but their organs of ſight, ſo far from being defective, as that author mentions thoſe of the inhabitants of the weſtern ſide of the continent to be, are remarkably quick and piercing. They have bracelets upon the upper part of their arms, made of plaited hair. They are

† fond of ornament, though abſolutely without apparel: and one of them, to whom was given an old ſhirt, inſtead of throwing it over any part of the body, tied it as a fillet round his head.

Both men and women go ſtark naked, and ſeem to have no more ſenſe of indecency in diſcovering their whole body, than the inhabitants of England have in diſcovering their hands and face. Their principal ornament is the bone which they thruſt through the cartilage that divides the noſtrils from each other. What perverſion of taſte could induce them to think this a decoration, or what could prompt them, before they had worn it, or ſeen it worn, to ſuffer the pain and inconvenience that muſt of neceſſity attend it, is perhaps beyond the power of human ſagacity to determine. As this bone is as thick as a man's finger, and between five and ſix inches long, it reaches quite acroſs the face, and ſo effectually ſtops up both the noſtrils, that they are forced to keep their mouths wide open for breath, and ſnuffle ſo when they attempt to ſpeak, that they are ſcarcely intelligible even to each other. The ſeamen, with ſome humour, called it the ſpritſail-yard; and, indeed, it had ſo ludicrous an appearance, that, till our people were uſed to it, they found it difficult to refrain from laughter. Beſides the noſe-jewel, they have necklaces made of ſhells, very neatly cut and ſtrung together; bracelets of ſmall cord, wound two or three times about the upper part of their arm; and a ſtring of plaited human hair, about as thick as a thread of yarn, tied round the waiſt. Some of them have alſo gorgets of ſhells hanging round the neck, ſo as to reach acroſs the breaſt.

Though theſe people wear no clothes, their bodies have a covering beſides the dirt; for they paint them both white and red. The red is commonly laid on in broad patches upon the ſhoulders and breaſt; and the white in ſtripes, ſome narrow and ſome broad: the narrow are drawn over the limbs, and the broad over the body, not without ſome degree of taſte. The white is alſo laid on in ſmall patches upon the face, and drawn in a circle round each eye. The red ſeemed to be ochre, but what the white was could not be diſcovered: it was cloſe grained, ſaponaceous to the touch, and heavy. Beſides the paint with which they beſmear their bodies, they alſo uſe greaſe, or ſome ſtinking oily ſubſtance, for the ſame purpoſe. Some of them ornament their hair with the teeth of fiſh, faſtened on by gum and the ſkin of the kanguroo.

No marks of diſeaſe or ſores were found upon their bodies, but large ſcars, in irregular lines, which appeared to be the remains of wounds they had inflicted upon themſelves with ſome blunt inſtrument, and which our people underſtood, by ſigns, to have been memorials of grief for their dead relations or friends.

They ſeemed to ſet ſo great a value upon ſuch ornaments as they had, that they would never part with the leaſt article for any thing that could be offered; which was the more extraordinary, as the European beads and ribbons were ornaments of the ſame kind, but of better form, and more ſhowy materials.

Though, as before obſerved, both ſexes, and thoſe of all ages, are invariably found naked, it muſt not be inferred from this, that cuſtom ſo inures them to the change of the elements, as to make them bear, with indifference, the extremes of heat and cold; for they give viſible and repeated proofs, that the latter affects them ſeverely, when they are ſeen ſhivering and huddling themſelves up in heaps in their huts, or the caverns of the rocks, until a fire can be kindled.

Theſe people have no fixed habitations, for nothing can be ſeen like a town or village in the whole country. Their houſes, if ſo they may be called, are conſtructed without art or induſtry. They are built with pliable

pliable rods, not thicker than a finger, in the form of an oven, by bending them, and ſticking the two ends to the ground. The covering is of plain leaves, and pices of bark; and the entrance by a large hole at one end, oppoſite to which the fire is made. Some of them are juſt high enough to ſit upright in, but not large enough for a man to extend himſelf in any direction; ſo that the tenants of theſe hovels are under the neceſſity of coiling themſelves with their heels to their heads, in order to make room for three or four of them to ſleep together. The warmer the weather, the ſlighter the ſheds are conſtructed. One ſide is entirely open, and none of them are more than four feet deep. They are put up occaſionally, as exigence may require, by thoſe people, who may be conſidered as a wandering herd, in queſt of any place that would furniſh them with a temporary ſubſiſtence, and therefore leave them behind them when they remove to another ſpot. When they take up their reſidence only for a night in a place, they put up no ſhed, but repoſe on the graſs, which grows to a great height in this country.

A kind of oblong veſſel was the only furniture belonging to theſe houſes, that fell under obſervation; it was made of bark, by the ſimple contrivance of tying up the two ends with a withy, which, not being cut off, ſerves for a handle. Their chief utenſil is a ſmall bag, about the ſize of a moderate cabbage-net, which is made by laying threads loop within loop, ſomewhat in the manner uſed by ladies to make purſes. This bag the man carries looſe upon his back with a ſmall ſtring, which paſſes over his head. It generally contains a lump or two of paint or reſin, ſome fiſh-hooks and lines, a few points of darts, and their uſual ornaments, which include all the worldly treaſure of the richeſt man among them.

They are utterly ſtrangers to that uſeful branch of knowledge, the cultivation of the ground, and wholly depend for food on the few fruits they gather; the roots they dig up in the ſwamps; and the fiſh they pick up along ſhore, or contrive to ſtrike from their canoes with ſpears. Fiſhing, indeed, ſeems to engroſs nearly the whole of their time, probably from its forming the chief part of their ſubſiſtence, which, obſervation has proved, cannot be procured without the moſt painful labour, and unwearied aſſiduity. They ſometimes indeed contrive to kill the kanguroo, and ſome birds; but theſe are ſo ſhy, that our people find it difficult to get within reach of them with a fowling-piece. The only vegetable that can be conſidered as an article of food is the yam.

Many of their fiſh-hooks are extremely ſmall, but made with great nicety; and their mode of ſtriking turtle is curious. For this purpoſe they have a peg of wood, about a foot in length, and well bearded. This fits into a ſocket, at the end of a ſtaff of light wood, in length about ſeven or eight feet, and about the thickneſs of a man's wriſt. One end of a looſe line, about three or four fathoms long, is tied to the ſtaff, and the other end faſtened to the peg. In order to ſtrike the turtle, the peg is fixed into the ſocket, ſo that, when it has entered the body, and is there retained by the barb, the ſtaff flies off, and ſerves for a float to trace their object in the water.

In general they do not eat animal-food raw; but having no veſſel in which water can be boiled, they either broil it upon the coals, or bake it in a hole by the help of hot ſtones.

No ſigns of any religion has been obſerved among them, yet they are not entirely ignorant of a future ſtate, as they ſay the bones of the dead are in the grave, and the body (probably they mean the ſoul) is in the clouds: Wolarre-warré once aſked the judge advocate, if the white men went to the clouds alſo?

They put their dead for ſome time in a fire; after which they are laid at length in a grave, dug very clean out, the bottom being firſt very carefully covered with long graſs, or fern; the body is then put in, and covered over with long graſs, and the grave is then filled with earth, the mould riſing above it as in England.

Wolarre-warré affirms, that there are apparitions in the country, which he calls *mané*. He deſcribes them as coming up with a ſtrange noiſe, and catching hold of any one by the throat. He made uſe of many words on this occaſion, and pointed up to the ſky. He alſo related, that theſe apparitions ſinge the beards and the hair: this he deſcribes as a very painful operation, rubbing his face after every operation of the brand.

The ſun, moon, and ſtars, they call *weré*, bad. A native girl among our people, once went into very violent convulſions on ſeeing a falling ſtar, and ſaid, that every body would be deſtroyed, though ſome who were about her obſerved, that ſhe particularly alluded to the *Murray nowee*, the Sirius.

To give ſome idea of their language: the emu (marvang), the patagorang, and the menagine, a ſmall animal, are all named *go-along*, which term is ſuppoſed to mean an animal, as Wolarre-warré uſes it in contradiſtinction to a bird or a fiſh. On being aſked if the emu was a bird (binyan) he ſhook his head, and ſaid, *go-along*. He calls Governor Phillip, *beanga*, father, and names himſelf *dooroow*, ſon. The judge and commiſſary he calls *babunna*, brother. Wolarre-warré ſings a great deal, and with much variety. The following are ſome words which were caught: "E eye at wange-wandeliah chiango wandego mangenny wakey angoul barre boa lah barrema." In counting the numerals, he cannot reckon beyond four; which he does in this manner: One, wogul or ya-ole; two, bulla and yablowxe; three, boorooi, or brewé; four, cal-una-long. On laying down a fifth object, he named it with the reſt, marry diola. He calls the four principal winds by the following names: The north, boo-roo-way; the ſouth, bain-marree; the weſt, bow-wan; the eaſt, gonie-mah. He throws the ſpear ninety yards with great force and exactneſs.

The following is the deſcription of a family in New South-Wales: The natives ſing an hymn, or ſong of joy, from day-break until ſun-riſe. They procure fire with infinite labour, by fixing the pointed end of a round piece of ſtick into a hole, made in a flat piece of wood, and twirling it round ſwiftly betwixt both hands, ſliding them at the ſame time upwards and downwards, until the operator is fatigued, when he is relieved by ſome of his companions, who are all ſeated in a circle for that purpoſe, and each takes his turn in the operation, until fire is procured. This being a tedious proceſs, it is no wonder that they are never ſeen without a piece of lighted wood in their hand.

When equipped for any exploit, the natives are armed with a ſhield, made of the bark of a tree, with which they very dextrouſly ward off any thing thrown at them. They have alſo a bludgeon, or club, about twenty inches long, with a large and pointed end; and ſometimes a ſtone hatchet. Theſe make up the catalogue of their military implements. But the principal means of annoying their European viſitors was by ſetting fire to the high graſs, which, being very dry, burnt with great rapidity, and did much damage.

The kanguroo is one of the moſt valuable animals produced in this iſland, it grows to a very conſiderable ſize; ſome of them weigh not leſs than 150 pounds. A male of 130 pounds weight has been killed, whoſe dimenſions were as follow: Extreme length, ſeven feet three inches; length of the tail, three feet four inches and a half; length of the hinder legs, three feet two inches; length of the fore paws, one foot ſeven inches and a half; circumference of the tail at the root, one foot five inches.

Notwithſtanding this, the kanguroo, on being brought forth, is not larger than a rat. In running, this animal confines himſelf entirely to his hinder legs, which are poſſeſſed with an extraordinary muſcular power. Their ſpeed is very great, though not in general quite equal to that of a greyhound: but when the greyhounds are ſo fortunate as to ſeize them, they are incapable of retaining their hold, from the amazing ſtruggles of the animal. The bound of the kanguroo, when not hard preſſed, has been meaſured, and found to exceed twenty feet. At what time of the year they copulate, and in what manner, is not known. The teſticles of the male are placed contrary to the uſual order of nature.

When young, the kanguroo eats tender and well flavoured, taſting like veal; but the old ones are more tough and ſtringy than bull-beef. They are not carnivorous, but ſubſiſt altogether on particular flowers and graſs. Their bleat is mournful, and very different from that of any other animal: it is, however, ſeldom heard but in the young ones. The female opoſſum has a pouch, or pocket, in which ſhe carries her young. Some have been ſhot with a young one, not larger than a walnut, ſticking to a teat in this pocket. Others with young ones no bigger than a rat; one of which was moſt perfectly formed, with every mark and diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of the kanguroo. Of its naturl hiſtory at preſent little is known: from which the author of the lateſt narratives of the tranſactions, diſcoveries, and remarks on this part of the globe, very pertinently infers, that, as ſo very little knowledge is as yet obtained of its habits, haunts, and cuſtoms, to attempt particular and accurate deſcriptions of it, might beget error, which time, or a fuller knowledge of its properties, would directly contradict. It is further added, that, with reſpect to mere conjectures (and ſuch too often are impoſed on the public for inconteſtible facts) it cannot be improper to ſuppreſs them.

The native dog of this country is much fiercer than the kanguroo. The chace, if in an open field (which is the place moſt frequented by that animal) is ſeldom more than eight or ten minutes; and if there are more dogs than one, ſeldom ſo long. As ſoon as the hound ſeizes him, he turns, and catching hold with the nails of his fore-paws, ſprings upon and ſtrikes at the dog with the claws of his hind-feet, which are wonderfully ſtrong, and tears him to ſuch a degree, that it has frequently happened, that we have been under the neceſſity of carrying the dog home, from the ſeverity of his wounds. Few of theſe animals have ever effected their eſcape after being ſeized by the dog, for they have generally caught them by the throat, and there held them until they were aſſiſted, although many of them have very near loſt their lives in the ſtruggle. Some of the male kanguroos are of a very large ſize, and, when ſitting on their haunches, were five feet eight inches high. Such an animal is too ſtrong for a ſingle dog, and, though he might be much wounded, would, except the dog had aſſiſtance at hand, certainly kill him. Theſe dogs may be more fierce, but they do not appear to be ſo ſtrong as our large greyhound. There was one ſeen in purſuit of a kanguroo by a perſon who was employed in ſhooting, who, miſtaking the two animals, as they paſſed him to be of the kind he was looking for, he fired at the hindmoſt and brought him down; but when he came up, it proved to be a native dog. Of thoſe dogs we have had many which were taken when young, but never could cure them of their natural ferocity. Although well fed, they would at all times, but particularly in the dark, fly at young pigs, chickens, or any ſmall animal which they might be able to conquer, and immediately kill, and generally eat them. The writer of this account tell us, he had one which was a little puppy when caught, but notwithſtanding he took much pains to correct and cure of its ſavageneſs, perceived it took every opportunity it met with, to ſnap off the head of a fowl, or worry a pig, and would do it in defiance of correction. They are a very good-natured animal when domeſticated, but it is thought impoſſible to cure that ſavageneſs which all of them ſeem to poſſeſs.

The animals here partake, in a great meaſure, of the nature of the kanguroo. There is the kanguroo opoſſum, the kanguroo rat, &c. the formation of the four legs and feet of which bear no proportion to the length of the hind legs. There is a quadruped, which the natives call *quoll*. It reſembles a pole-cat. The back is brown, ſpotted with white; and the belly white, unmixed. To beaſts of prey our people were utter ſtrangers; nor have they yet any cauſe to believe that they exiſt in the country. And happy it is for them that they do not, as their preſence would deprive them of the only freſh meals the ſettlement affords, the fleſh of the kanguroo. The only domeſtic animal they have is the dog, which, in their language, is called *dingo*, and much reſembles the fox dog of England. Theſe animals are equally ſhy of ſtrangers, and attached to the natives.

There are many different kinds of bats, particularly one, which is larger than a partridge. Our people were not fortunate enough to take one, either alive or dead.

As moſt of the large trees are hollow, by being rotten in the heart, the opoſſum, kanguroo rat, ſquirrel, and various other animals which inhabit the woods, when they are purſued, commonly run into the hollow of a tree: in order therefore to make ſure of them (which the natives ſeldom fail in) when they find them in the tree, one man climbs even the talleſt tree with much eaſe, by means of notches at convenient diſtances, that are made with a ſtone hatchet: when he is arrived at the top, or where there may be an outlet for the animal, he fits there with a club or ſtick in his hand, while another perſon below applies a fire to the lower opening, and fills the hollow of the tree with ſmoke: this obliges the animal to attempt to make its eſcape, either upwards or downwards; but which ever way it goes, it is almoſt certain of death, for they very ſeldom eſcape. They alſo, when in conſiderable numbers, ſet the country on fire for ſeveral miles extent, which, it is generally underſtood, is for the purpoſe of diſturbing ſuch animals as may be within reach of the conflagration, whereby they have an opportunity of killing many.

Birds of various kinds are very numerous here, amongſt which are many of exquiſite beauty, particularly loriquets and cockatoos. The water fowl are, gulls, ſhags; ſolan geeſe, or gannets, of two ſorts; boobies, noddies, curlieus, ducks, pelicans of an enormous ſize, and many others. One of the moſt remarkable was black and white, much larger than a ſwan, and in ſhape ſomewhat reſembling a pelican. The land birds are, crows, parrots, pigeons, doves, quails, buſtards, herons, cranes, hawks, and eagles. But the bird which principally claims attention is the caſſowary, a ſpecies of oſtrich, approaching nearer to the emu of South America than any other known. One of them was ſhot, at a conſiderable diſtance, with a ſingle ball, by a convict employed for that purpoſe by the governor. Its weight when complete, was ſeventy pounds; and its length, from the end of the toe to the tip of the beak, ſeven feet two inches; though there was reaſon to believe it had not attained its full growth.

On diſſection, many anatomical ſingularities were obſerved: the gall-bladder was remarkably large, the liver not bigger than that of a barn-door fowl; and, after the ſtricteſt ſearch, no gizzard could be found. The legs, which were of a vaſt length, were covered with thick, ſtrong ſcales, plainly indicating the animal to be formed for living amidſt deſerts; and the foot differed from an oſtrich's by forming a triangle,

inſtead

inſtead of being cloven. Goldſmith, whoſe account of the emu is the only one we can refer to, ſays, "that it is covered, from the back and rump, with long feathers, which fall backward, and cover the anus: theſe feathers are grey on the back, and white on the belly." The wings are ſo ſmall as hardly to deſerve the name, and are unfirniſhed with thoſe beautiful ornaments which adorn the wings of the oſtrich. All the feathers are extremely coarſe; but the conſtruction of them deſerves notice: they grow in pairs from a ſingle ſhaft, a ſingularity which the author we have quoted has omitted to remark. It may be preſumed, that theſe birds are not very ſcarce, as ſeveral have been ſeen, ſome of them immenſely large; but they are ſo wild as to make ſhooting them a matter of great difficulty. Though incapable of flying, they run with ſuch ſwiftneſs, that our fleeteſt greyhounds are left far behind in every attempt to catch them. The fleſh was eaten, and taſted like beef.

Here are in general excellent fiſh; but ſeveral of them partake of the properties of the ſhark, like the animals in ſome degree reſembling the kanguroo. The land, the graſs, the trees, the animals, the birds and the fiſh, in their different ſpecies, approach by ſtrong ſhades of ſimilitude to each other. A certain likeneſs runs through the whole. They are in general palatable, and ſome of them are very delicious. Upon the ſhoals and reefs are incredible numbers of the fineſt green turtle in the world, and oyſters of various kinds, particularly the rock-oyſter, and the pearl-oyſter. The cockles are of ſuch an enormous ſize, that one of them is more than one perſon can eat. There are alſo large muſcles, and ſtingrays, which weigh no leſs than 336 pounds after the entrails are taken out. In the rivers and ſalt creeks are alligators. A ſhark of an enormous ſize was found here, which meaſured, at the ſhoulders, ſix feet and a half in circumference. His liver yielded twenty-four gallons of oil; and in his ſtomach was found the head of a fiſh of the like ſpecies. The Indians, probably from having felt the effects of their voracious fury, teſtify the utmoſt horror on ſeeing theſe terrible fiſh.

Among the inſects here, is a very peculiar kind of ant, as green as a leaf. They live upon trees, where they build their neſts. Theſe neſts are of a very curious ſtructure: they are formed by bending down ſeveral of the leaves, each of which is as broad as a man's hand: they glue the points of them together, ſo as to form a purſe. The viſcus uſed for this purpoſe is an animal juice, which nature has enabled them to evacuate. Their method of firſt bending down the leaves, our naturaliſts had not an opportunity to obſerve; but they ſaw thouſands uniting all their ſtrength to hold them in this poſition, while other buſy multitudes were employed within, in applying the glutten that was to prevent their returning back. To ſatisfy themſelves that the leaves were bent and held down by the efforts of theſe diminutive artificers, our people diſturbed them in their work; and, as ſoon as they were driven from their ſtation, the leaves, on which they were employed, ſprang up with a force much greater than they could have thought them able to conquer by any combination of their ſtrength. But though our people gratified their curioſity at the expence of theſe inſects, the injury did not go unrevenged, for thouſands immediately threw themſelves upon them, and gave them intolerable pain with their ſtings, eſpecially thoſe which took poſſeſſion of the neck and hair, from whence they were not eaſily driven.

There are upon the leaves of the mangrove, great numbers of ſmall green caterpillars; their foreheads are thick ſet with hairs, and they range upon the leaves, ſide by ſide, like a file of ſoldiers, to the number of twenty or thirty together; the hair of their bodies, on touching them, have the quality of a nettle, and give a more acute, though leſs durable pain.

With reſpect to the climate, it is undoubtedly very deſirable to live in. In ſummer the heats are uſually moderated by the ſea breeze, which ſets in early; and in winter the degree of cold is ſo ſlight, as to occaſion but little inconvenience. It is remarked, as a circumſtance peculiar to this country, that every part of it, even the moſt inacceſſible and rocky, appears as if, at certain times of the year, it was all on fire. Indeed, in many parts, large trees are ſeen, the trunks and branches of which are evidently rent and demoliſhed by lightning. The ground was ſo very dry and parched, that poles or pegs could not be driven into it without conſiderable difficulty and labour.

As the governor was invariably intent on exploring the country, he for that end formed a party, with unwearied induſtry, and great toil, traverſing an extenſive tract of ground, which appeared, from ſuch obſervations as could be made, capable of producing every thing which a happy ſoil and genial climate can bring forth. The face of the country was ſuch as to promiſe ſucceſs, whenever it ſhould be cultivated, for the ſoil was found to be much richer than it was deſcribed by Captain Cook; as, inſtead of ſand, they found a deep black mould, which ſeemed very fit for the production of grain of any kind. But ſuch were the labour and difficulty attending the clearing of the ground, that, incredible as it may appear, it is a known fact, that ten or twelve men have been employed for five whole days in grubbing up a tree; and when this has been effected, the timber has only been fit for fire-wood; ſo that, in conſequence of the great labour in clearing the ground, and the weak ſtate of the people, to which may be added the ſcarcity of tools, moſt of thoſe brought from England being loſt in the woods among the graſs, through the careleſſneſs of the convicts, the proſpect of future ſucceſs is not the moſt promiſing, till they can ſo far clear the ground, as to produce a ſufficient ſupport for the new ſettlement: but, nevertheleſs, the richneſs of the ſoil will amply repay them, when this difficulty is happily ſurmounted.

The timber was found to be very unfit for building; the only purpoſe for which it will anſwer is firewood, and for that it is excellent: but in other reſpects, it is the worſt wood that any country or climate can produce; although ſome of the trees, when ſtanding, appear fit for any uſe whatever, maſts for ſhipping not excepted. Strange as it may be imagined, moſt of the wood in this country, though dried ever ſo well, will not float. Repeated trials have only ſerved to prove, that, immediately on immerſion, it ſinks to the bottom like a ſtone. The trees were not of many ſpecies. Among others, there was a large one, which yielded a gum not unlike that called dragon's blood. In the woods was found a tree, which bore a fruit that, in colour and ſhape, reſembled a cherry: the juice had an agreeable tartneſs, though but little flavour.

Between the trees the ground is covered with graſs, of which there is great abundance, growing in tufts as large as can well be graſped in the hand, which ſtand very cloſe to each other. In thoſe places where trees are ſcarce, a variety of flowering ſhrubs abound, moſt of them entirely new to an European, and ſurpaſſing in beauty fragrance, and number, all ever ſeen in an uncultivated ſtate. Among theſe a tall ſhrub, bearing an elegant white flower, which ſmells like Engliſh May, is particularly delightful, and perfumes the air around to a great diſtance.

A kind of vine grows here, which runs to a great extent along the ground: the ſtalk is not ſo thick as the ſmalleſt honey-ſuckle, nor is the leaf ſo large as the common bay-leaf, though ſomewhat ſimilar to it; and

and the taſte is ſweet, exactly like the liquorice root of the ſhops. Of this the convicts and ſoldiers make an infuſion, which is tolerably pleaſant, and ſerves as no bad ſuccedaneum for tea. The ſurgeon found it to be a good pectoral, and not at all unpleaſant.

This country abounds with free-ſtone of an excellent quality, which was conſidered as an happy circumſtance, as it tended ſo materially to forward the intended plan of forming the town. The greateſt impediment to building was a want of lime-ſtone, of which no ſigns had hitherto appeared. Clay, for making bricks, abounding, a conſiderable quantity of them were burned, and ready for that neceſſary purpoſe.

With reſpect to the preſent ſtate of the colony, we muſt obſerve, that when the plan of the ſettlement was firſt projected, it was apprehended that the ſtores ſent from England, together with the produce of the country, would be ſufficient for the ſupport of the people, till they ſhould receive a further ſupply, but the eatable vegetable productions being ſo ſcarce, the animal productions not abounding in that degree as was imagined, and the fiſheries proving unſucceſsful, they were, in conſequence, reduced to an allowance of two ounces of meat a day; and freſh proviſions became ſcarcer than in a blockaded town. The little live ſtock which, at ſo much expence, and with ſo many difficulties, had been brought on ſhore, prudence forbad the uſe of; and fiſh, which, for a ſhort time, had been tolerably plenty, was become very ſcarce: ſo that had it not been for a ſtray kanguroo, which fortune now-and-then threw in the way, the people would, in general, have been ſtrangers to the taſte of freſh food.

In conſequence of this ſcarcity of wholeſome proviſions, the ſcurvy began its uſual ravages, and extended its baneful influence through all deſcriptions of perſons, particularly as the eatable vegetable productions of the country neither abound, nor are efficacious in the removal of this diſeaſe. Many other calamitous circumſtances combined to aggravate their diſtreſs; and, amongſt others, the whole ſtock of black cattle, conſiſting of five cows and a bull, had ſtrayed into the woods, and, notwithſtanding the moſt diligent ſearch, could not be found. But at length they were happily relieved by the arrival of the fleet from England with ample ſupplies; and from the laſt accounts tranſmitted ſince that time, it appears, that the produce of the country being more abundant in conſequence of a better knowledge being obtained of its reſources, and the fiſheries proving more ſucceſsful, they are now in a more comfortable ſituation; and their future proſpects are very promiſing, as is evident from ſome late accounts which were conveyed by Governor Philip to Lord Sydney, who cauſed them to be laid before the Houſe of Commons.

Captain Hunter, before he left Port-Jackſon, gives an entertaining deſcription of a dance, with which the natives diverted the governor and his people, before he left the place.

"The natives, he obſerves, were become very familiar and intimate with every perſon in the ſettlement. Many of them now took up their reſt every night in ſome of the gentlemen's houſes; their very unprovoked attack on the governor and his party, being now paſſed over, and almoſt forgot.

"We have frequently obſerved, ſince this familiar intercourse took place, that they often had a dance amongſt themſelves at night, on the lower part of Sydney-Cove, where a ſmall houſe had been built by the governor's order for their accommodation. It had been ſignified to ſome of the principal amongſt them, that we ſhould be glad to have an opportunity of ſeeing them dance, which they readily agreed to; and the following night was appointed, when the governor and a conſiderable number attended, every one being provided with arms of ſome kind; a caution, which, notwithſtanding friendly appearances, was generally allowed to be neceſſary; for experience had convinced us, that theſe people have a great deal of treachery in their diſpoſition.

"Preparatory to this exhibition, much attention was paid to the decorating themſelves: they were all Adams and Eves, without even a ſingle fig-leaf, and alſo without their dignity. The young women were employed with all their art in painting the young men, who were chiefly ornamented with ſtreaks of white, done with pipe-clay, and in different forms, according to the taſte of the man himſelf, or to that of the lady who adorned him: no fop preparing for an aſſembly was ever more deſirous of making his perſon irreſiſtibly beautiful. This paint, ſo much in uſe among them, could not be applied without a little moiſture; and the lady, in drawing theſe marks on the face, which were ſo eſſential a part of the decoration, I obſerved frequently to ſpit in the face of her friend, whom ſhe was employed in adorning, in order to make the white clay mark the ſtronger.

"When they were all prepared, we walked down to the place appointed after dark (for they prefer taking their amuſement by fire-light) we found ſeveral fires lighted, and a conſiderable number of people aſſembled. We walked round, to ſee that there were no armed lurkers among the buſhes.

"The dancers being ready, we were placed in a ſemicircle by Ba-na-lang and Co-al-by, who ſeemed to have the chief authority and direction. The dance was begun by a few young boys, and was increaſed by men and women, chiefly by the former, until their number amounted from twenty to twenty-ſix. Their dance was truly wild and ſavage, yet in many parts there appeared order and regularity. One man would frequently ſingle himſelf out from the dance, and, running round the whole of the performers, ſing out in a loud voice, uſing ſome expreſſions in one particular tone of voice which we could not underſtand; he would then join the dance, in which it was obſerved, that certain parties alternately led forward to the front, and there exhibited, with their utmoſt ſkill and agility, all the various motions, which, with them, ſeemed to conſtitute the principal beauties of dancing. One of the moſt ſtriking was, that of placing their feet very wide apart, and, by an extraordinary exertion of the muſcles of the thighs and legs, moving the knees in a trembling and very ſurpriſing manner, ſuch as none of us could imitate, which ſeemed to ſhew, that it required much practice to arrive at any degree of perfection in this ſingular motion.

"There appeared a great deal of variety in their different dances; in one of which they paired themſelves, and frequently danced back to back; they then changed ſuddenly, and faced each other. Sometimes all the performers ſat down on the ground, with their feet under them; and at a particular word or order, they raiſed themſelves up. This motion they performed without any aſſiſtance from the hands. Now they ran back in direct rows, then advanced in the ſame order; again they would form a circle, with ſome diſtinguiſhed perſon in the centre, and ſometimes the whole of the performers would appear with a green bough in their hands, which they held up in a conſpicuous manner. In all the different figures which they performed, they generally finiſhed by certain numbers of their principal dancers advancing to the front, and going through that favourite part of the dance, the quivering motion of the knees. Whenever this was done, the whole company faced to the front, and went through the ſame motions; but it was noticed, that ſome were more frequently in the front than others, and thoſe we ſuppoſed were ſuch as had great confidence in their own ſkill in the execution of this very difficult part of the performance; and no doubt were vain enough

to outſhine in their ability the reſt of the company. On the whole, this exhibition was well worth ſeeing; and this was the firſt opportunity that had offered for us to ſee any thing of the kind ſince we had been in the country.

"Their muſic conſiſted of two ſticks of very hard wood, one of which the muſician held upon his breaſt in the manner of a violin, and ſtruck it with the other, in good order and regular time. The performer, who was a ſtout, ſtrong-voiced man, ſung the whole time, and frequently applied thoſe graces in muſic, the piano and forte. He was aſſiſted by ſeveral young boys and girls, who ſat at his feet, and, by the manner of croſſing the thighs, made a hollow between them and their belly, upon which they beat time with the flat of their hand, ſo as to make a kind of ſound, which will be better underſtood from the manner of its being produced, than from any verbal deſcription. Theſe children alſo ſung with the chief muſical performer, who ſtood up the whole time, and ſeemed to have the moſt laborious part of the performance. They very frequently, at the concluſion of the dance, would apply to us for our opinions, or rather for marks of our approbation of their performance, which we never failed to give, by often repeating the word *boojery*, which ſignifies good; or *boojery caribberie*, a good dance. Theſe ſigns of pleaſure in us, ſeemed to give them great ſatisfaction, and generally produced more than ordinary exertions from the whole company of performers in the next dance."

Late Accounts reſpecting the Colony at PORT JACKSON, as far as Sept. 4, 1799.

"It appears, that the great number of ſpermaceti whales which had been ſeen on the coaſt of New South-Wales, induced the maſters of thoſe veſſels which were fitted out for that fiſhery (and intended, after landing the convicts, to proceed to the north-weſt coaſt of America) to try for a cargo here.

"The Matilda, and the Mary-Ann tranſports, returned from their fiſhing-cruize on the 10th of November 1791. Theſe veſſels had run to the ſouthward in ſearch of ſeals, and met with very bad weather, but ſaw no fiſh. The Matilda had put into Jervis Bay, which, according to the maſter's account, is a very fine harbour, capable of receiving the largeſt ſhips, and the anchorage very good. Theſe two veſſels, after refitting, ſailed again to try for fiſh on this coaſt.

"Our colony began to reap barley on the 22d of November, and the wheat was getting ripe.

"The Supply armed tender, after having been under repair from the time ſhe returned from Norfolk-Iſland, was found, on a ſurvey, to be in ſo bad a ſtate, that the beſt repair which could be given her in this country, would only render her ſerviceable for ſix months longer; Governor Phillip, therefore, ordered her to England, and ſhe ſailed on the 26th of November.

"From the debilitated ſtate in which many of the convicts were landed from the laſt ſhips, the number of ſick were greatly increaſed: the ſurgeon's returns on the 27th, being upwards of 400 ſick at Parramatta; and the ſame day medicines were diſtributed to 192 at Sydney. To the number of ſick at Parramatta, upwards of 100 may be added, who were ſo weak, that they could not be put to any kind of labour, not even to that of pulling graſs for thatching the huts. Forty-two convicts died in the month of November, and in theſe people nature ſeemed to be fairly worn out; many of them were ſo thoroughly exhauſted, that they expired without a groan, and apparently without any kind of pain.

"Showers of rain had been more frequent lately than for many months paſt, but not in the abundance which the ground required; and from the extreme dryneſs of the weather, and from the ground not being ſufficiently worked before the maize was put into it, a great number of acres was likely to be deſtroyed. This was one of the many inconveniencies the ſettlement laboured under, from the want of people to employ in agriculture, who would feel themſelves intereſted in the labour of thoſe that were under their direction, and who had ſome knowledge as farmers.

"The following parcels of land were in cultivation at Parramatta in November 1791.

Acres.	Roods.	Perches.	
351	2	5	in Maize.
44	1	8	Wheat.
6	1	30	Barley.
1	0	0	Oats.
2	0	3	Potatoes.
4	2	0	Not cultivated, but cleared.
4	2	15	Moſtly planted with vines.
6	0	0	The governor's garden, partly ſown with maize and wheat.
80	0	0	Garden-ground belonging to individuals.
17	0	0	Land in cultivation by the New South Wales corps.
150	0	0	Cleared, and to be ſowed with turnips.
91	3	2	Ground in cultivation by ſettlers.
28	0	0	Ground in cultivation by officers of the civil and military.
134	0	0	Encloſed, and the timber thinned for feeding cattle.

Making in the whole upwards of 918 acres.

"The above grounds were meaſured by David Burton, the public gardener, who obſerves, that the ſoil in moſt places is remarkably good, and only wants cultivation to be fit for any uſe, for the ground that has been the longeſt in cultivation bears the beſt crops.

"Of the convicts who were received by the laſt ſhips, there were great numbers of the worſt of characters, particularly amongſt thoſe who came from Ireland, and whoſe great ignorance led them into ſchemes more deſtructive to themſelves, than they were likely to be to the ſettlement. Some of theſe people had formed an idea, that they could go along the coaſt, and ſubſiſt on oyſters and other ſhell-fiſh, till they reached ſome of the Chineſe ſettlements: others had heard, that there were a copper-coloured people only 150 miles to the northward, where they would be free. Full of theſe notions, three parties ſet off; but after ſtraggling about for many days, ſeveral of them were taken, and others returned to the ſettlement. Governor Phillip was leſs inclined to inflict any puniſhment on theſe people, than he was to puniſh thoſe who had deceived them by the information of "not being far from ſome of the Chineſe ſettlements, and near people who would receive them, and where they would have every thing they wanted, and live very happy." Theſe reaſons moſt of them aſſigned for going into the woods, and where ſome of them ſtill remained, dreading a ſevere puniſhment if they returned. A general pardon was therefore promiſed to all thoſe who came back within a certain time, as ſeveral were ſuppoſed to be lurking in the woods near the ſettlement: however, ſome of theſe wretches were ſo prepoſſeſſed with an idea of being able to live in the woods, and on the ſea coaſt, until they could reach a ſettlement, or find a people who would maintain them without labour, that ſeveral who were brought in when almoſt famiſhed, and carried to the hoſpital, went away again as ſoon as they were judged able to return to their labour: and although what would be called a day's work in England, is very ſeldom done by any convict in the ſettlement, yet ſome of them declared, that they would ſooner periſh in the woods, than be obliged to work; and forty were now abſent. In order to give thoſe

who might be ſtill lurking near the ſettlement, an opportunity of returning, all the convicts were aſſembled, and a pardon was promiſed to all who returned within five days: at the ſame time they were aſſured, that very ſevere puniſhment would be inflicted on any who were taken after the expiration of that time, or who ſhould in future attempt to leave the ſettlement. Several appeared ſenſible of the lenity ſhewn them when their irons were taken off; but ſome of them appeared capable of the moſt daring attempts, and even talked of ſeizing on the ſoldiers arms; they were however informed, that no mercy would be ſhewn to any who were even ſeen near thoſe that might make an attempt of the kind.

"All the whalers who came into the harbour to refit, ſailed again by the 11th of December; and the Albemarle and the Active tranſports ſailed on the 2d for Bombay, where they were to load with cotton for England.

"A new ſtore was now covered in at Sydney, which was the beſt that had been built in the colony, and was intended for the convicts clothing and the implements of huſbandry: it has a ſecond floor, and is eighty feet in length, by twenty-four in breadth. A building of twenty-ſix feet by twenty-four, was likewiſe covered in at Parramatta, and was intended for a place of worſhip, until a church could be built.

"The idea of finding a Chineſe ſettlement at no great diſtance to the northward, ſtill prevailed amongſt the Iriſh convicts; and on the 4th of December two of them ſtole the ſurgeon's boat, but they only got a few miles to the northward of the harbour, when they were obliged to run her on ſhore. Some officers who were out a ſhooting, ſaw this boat on the beach, and ſtove a plank in her, that ſhe might not be carried away; they alſo ſaw two men, who ran into the woods: however, a convict, who had been ſix weeks in the woods, and was ſcarcely able to walk, gave himſelf up to the officers, and, with their aſſiſtance, was able to return to Sydney.

"Many of thoſe convicts who left the ſettlement, as has already been related, came back; ſome were ſtill miſſing, and ſeveral were ſaid to be killed by the natives. The miſerable ſituation of thoſe who returned to the ſettlement would, it was believed, moſt effectually prevent any more excurſions of the like nature.

"On the 5th of December, the Queen tranſport returned from Norfolk Iſland, with the lieutenant-governor of the territory, who was relieved by lieutenant governor King; a detachment of marines, who had been doing duty on the iſland, a party of the New South Wales corps, who were relieved by captain Paterſon, and ſome convicts, whoſe times for which they had been ſentenced were expired. By the 7th, the Gorgon was nearly ready for ſea, and the detachment of marines, who came from England in the firſt ſhips, was ordered to hold themſelves ready to embark, except one captain, three lieutenants, eight non-commiſſioned officers, and fifty privates, who were to ſtay at Port Jackſon, until the remainder of the New South Wales corps ſhould arrive. Thoſe marines who were deſirous of becoming ſettlers, remained likewiſe, to the number of thirty-one.

"Of thoſe convicts who were received from the laſt ſhips, 114 males, and two females, died before the 15th of December. The number of ſick had conſiderably decreaſed lately, the ſurgeon's liſt being now reduced from 602 to 403.

"The Matilda and the Mary-Ann tranſports came into harbour on the 16th; theſe ſhips had been out but nine days. The Matilda had been into Jervis Bay, but had not ſeen any ſpermaceti whales. The Mary-Ann fell in with one ſhoal; it was in the evening, when all the boats were abſent from the ſhip. The maſter was in hopes they ſhould have the fiſh about them the next morning, but he had the mortification to find, that a current had driven the ſhips fifty miles to the ſouthward."

The following is an extract of a letter from a perſon who went out as a ſettler, addreſſed to his father in Edinburgh, dated Parramatta, near Sydney, Port Jackſon, Sept. 4, 1799:

"We arrived here, after a tedious voyage of 14 months, on the 3d of May. Soon after we parted with the convoy, in the latitude of Madeira. We arrived at Rio Janeiro on the 11th of Auguſt, and anchored in Table Bay, Cape of Good Hope, on the 17th of October. Here we diſcharged our ſtores, and took in 100 head of black cattle, beſides horſes, goats, pigs, and all manner of fowl, which gave our ſhip ſomething of the appearance of Noah's ark.

"After ſtopping 16 weeks, we took a long adieu of our countrymen, and continued our voyage to this out of the way place. Immediately on our arrival I was ſtrongly recommended to a gentleman of great fortune and equal worth, by whom I am employed as an overſeer. Charles is gone apprentice to a carpenter and joiner, which is the beſt trade here, a common journeyman making 10s. or 12s. a day. My buſineſs conſiſts in ſuperintending the captain's ſtock, which is diſtributed through three different eſtates. He is poſſeſſed of a good many horſes and black cattle, ſeveral thouſand ſheep, hogs, goats, &c. I have no ſettled wages, but half the profits made by upwards of 200 hogs, which may bring me 300l. a year. I have alſo a good houſe, and fire, a garden, and what land I chuſe to cultivate for my other ſtock, and aſſiſtance to trade when any veſſel comes in.

"We live at a place called Parramatta, near 20 miles from the capital of Sydney; it is a very pleaſant ſituation, and paſſage boats go and come every day. There are ſeveral fine ſettlements in the country, ſuch as Hawkeſbury, a delightful and fertile ſpot, 40 miles off; George's River, Proſpect, &c. &c. Sydney is the ſeat of government, and makes a handſome appearance. There is an elegant church and county gaol, built of free ſtone. The officers' and ſoldiers' barrack, ſtore-houſes, &c. are built of brick; the houſes of the inhabitants of wood, and are in number near 500.

"Several of the convicts, whoſe times have expired, purſue different branches of buſineſs, and ſuch as are ſober and induſtrious ſoon amaſs pretty fortunes, but the generality of them are a hardened and depraved ſet. The free ſettlers are not ſo numerous as I expected, nor ſo induſtrious as I could wiſh. I can ſay very little for their morals. Vice in them as well as in the convicts, ſeems to be deeply rooted. The military make a very reſpectable appearance. The officers are very worthy men, and moſt of them have acquired decent fortunes. European goods, as well as the neceſſaries of life, are extravagantly high, but vary in a little time in an extraordinary manner.—While I am now writing a ſhip is come in, which will reduce the prices one half. Rum and brandy are now for inſtance 5l. per gallon, tea 50s. per lb. ſugar 2s. ſoap 5s. tobacco 10s. freſh pork 1s. ſalt ditto 1s. 6d. mutton 2s. a laying hen 5s. and every thing elſe in proportion. We have ſeveral South Seamen put in here at times for refreſhment, as well as Americans. Store and convict ſhips are the only ones that come regular from England, and theſe generally return by China or India. The Buffalo, by which I ſend this, is the firſt ſhip that has gone direct to the Cape ſince I arrived."

NORFOLK-ISLAND,

As deſcribed by Lieutenant Governor King, in a Paper delivered by him, and dated Jan. 10, 1790.

THIS iſland is ſituated in the latitude of 29 degrees, 0 min. ſouth; and in the longitude of 168 degrees, 0 min. eaſt. Its form is nearly oblong,

long, and it contains from twelve to fourteen thouſand acres.

The face of the country is hilly, and ſome of the vallies are tolerably large for the ſize of the iſland; many of the hills are very ſteep, and ſome few ſo very perpendicular, that they cannot be cultivated; but where ſuch ſituations are, they will do very well for fuel: on the tops of the hills are ſome very extenſive flats.

Mount-Pitt is the only remarkable high hill in the iſland, and is about one hundred and fifty fathoms high. The cliffs which ſurround the iſland are about forty fathoms high, and perpendicular: the baſis of the iſland is a hard firm clay. The whole iſland is covered with a thick wood, choked up with a thick underwood; but it is well ſupplied with many ſtreams of very fine water, many of which are ſufficient to turn any number of mills. Theſe ſprings are full of very large eels.

From the coaſt to the ſummit of Mount-Pitt, is a continuation of the richeſt and deepeſt ſoil in the world, which varies from a rich black mould, to a fat red earth. We have dug down forty feet, and found the ſame ſoil.

The air is very wholeſome, and the climate may be called a very healthy one; there has been no ſickneſs ſince I firſt landed on the iſland.

Five kinds of trees grow on the iſland, which are good timber, viz. The pine, live oak, a yellow wood, a hard black wood, and a kind of beech. The pine trees are of a large ſize, many of which are from one hundred and eighty to two hundred and twenty feet in height, and from ſix to nine feet in diameter. Thoſe trees which are from one hundred to one hundred and eighty feet in height, are, in general, ſound: from the root to the lower branches, there are from eighty to ninety feet of ſound timber: the reſt is too hard and knotty for uſe. It ſometimes happens, that, after cutting off twenty feet from the butt, it becomes rotten or ſhaky; for which reaſon no dependance can be put in it for large maſts or yards. The timber of the pine is very uſeful in buildings, and is plentiful along the coaſts. Its diſperſed ſituation in the interior part of the iſland, is well calculated for erecting ſuch buildings as may be neceſſary. From what I have ſeen of this wood, I think it is very durable; two boats have been built of it, and have anſwered the purpoſe fully. The live oak, yellow wood, black wood, and beech, are all of a cloſe grain, and are a durable wood.

The flax plant of New Zealand grows ſpontaneouſly in many parts of the iſland, but moſtly abounds on the ſea-coaſt, where there is a great quantity of it. The leaves of the flax, when fully grown, are ſix feet long, and ſix inches wide. Each plant contains ſeven of thoſe leaves. A ſtrong woody ſtalk ariſes from the centre, which bears the flowers. It ſeeds annually; and the old leaves are forced out by the young ones every year. Every method has been tried to work it; but I much fear, that, until a native of New Zealand can be carried to Norfolk Iſland, the method of dreſſing that valuable commodity will not be known; and could that be obtained, I have no doubt but Norfolk Iſland would very ſoon cloath the inhabitants of New South Wales.

This iſland abounds with pigeons, parrots, hawks, and other ſmaller birds, which are now in a wild ſtate. The ground is much infeſted with different kinds of the grub worms, which are very deſtructive to the growth of vegetables. They are moſtly troubleſome about the ſpring. It is to be hoped, that when more ground is cleared away, this evil will ceaſe.

There are great quantities of very fine fiſh on the coaſts of this iſland, which are principally the ſnapper, and weigh from four to eight pounds each. A few fiſh are at times caught from the ſhore: this however happens but ſeldom; ſo that a ſupply of fiſh muſt depend on the weather, and the ſurf permitting boats to go out. In moderate weather, boats might land in Collins's Bay, on Phillip's Iſland, where a great quantity of fiſh might be cured, from March to September, after which time the fly prevents it. No opportunities were ever loſt of ſending the boat out, which enabled us to make a ſaving of two pounds of meat each man a week.

Sydney Bay lies in latitude 29 degrees 95 minutes ſouth, longitude 168 degrees 2 minutes eaſt, and variation 11 degrees eaſt. The tide flows faſt, and changes at three quarters paſt ſeven, and riſes from five to ſeven feet. The flood runs to the S. W. by S. and the ebb to the N. E. by N. On the ſouth ſide of the iſland, is where the ſettlement is made. Landing at this place entirely depends on the wind and the weather. I have ſeen as good landing as in the Thames for a fortnight or three weeks together; and I have often ſeen it impracticable to land for ten or twelve days ſucceſſively; but it is much oftener good landing than bad. Anſon's Bay is a ſmall bay, with a ſandy beach, where landing is in general good, with an off-ſhore wind, and moderate weather. Ball Bay is on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland; the beach is of a large looſe ſtone. When landing is bad in Sydney Bay, it is very good here; as it alſo is in Caſcade Bay, on the north ſide of the iſland.

In general the tides are equal each way; the ebbs and the flows regular along the ſhore fix each tide. The eaſtern tide is ſtronger than the weſtern tide. Sometimes the eaſtern tide runs ſeveral hours beyond its uſual courſe, and ſometimes the weſtern tide thus irregularly; which irregularities, though they ſeldom happen, make it neceſſary to bring to, and try the tide, before you come within the outer part of the Nepean Iſland; and beware of an indraught, which ſometimes ſets into the bight, on the weſt ſide of the bay, on both ſides, while you are baffled by the ſouth-eaſt and ſoutherly winds, as you come in with Sydney Bay. All within Nepean Iſland is foul ground, and very irregular ſoundings, and no ſafe paſſage between it and Port Hunter; but if a ſhip ſhould be preſſed by neceſſity, it is recommended to keep within half a cable's length of Nepean Iſland, after having paſſed the bed of rocks to the weſtward of the little bay.

At Norfolk Iſland, the ſpring is very viſible in Auguſt; but the trees in many parts of the iſland are in a conſtant ſucceſſion of flowering and ſeeding all the year round. Every kind of garden vegetable thrives well, and comes to great perfection. The ſummer is very hot: governor King obſerves, that he had no thermometer to determine the degree of heat; but it is exceſſive. From the 23d of September, to the 22d of February, 1790, not one drop of rain fell, excepting on two days in December; but it ſhould be remarked, that there was no drought in the former year. All the grain and the European plants ſeeded in December. From February to Auguſt, may be called the rainy ſeaſon; not that we may ſuppoſe there is any regular time of rains during theſe months, as the weather is ſometimes very fine for a fortnight together; but when the rain does fall, it pours in torrents. The governor adds, that he does not recollect more than three claps of thunder, or lightning, during the time he remained on the iſland. The winter, which may be ſaid to commence in April and in July, is very pleaſant. There is never any froſt; but when the ſouth-weſt winds blow, which are very frequent and violent in theſe months, the air is raw and cold. It is very remarkable, that during ſome days in December and January, the weather has been much colder than in the winter months. The ſouth-eaſt and eaſt winds are very parching and dry, as no dew falls when thoſe winds prevail.

During the winter months, the wind is moſtly from

from ſouth to weſt, blowing with great violence for a week together; afterwards it veers round to the ſouthward and ſouth-eaſt, which brings fine weather for a few days; then it veers to eaſt, north-eaſt, and north-weſt, blowing in heavy gales, and generally accompanied with violent torrents of rain; after which it ſhifts to ſouth-weſt; but not a ſingle inſtance was obſerved of the wind coming to the north-eaſt round by weſt. The ſouth-eaſt wind blows during the ſummer with very little variation, and ſometimes very ſtrong.

The coaſts of the iſland are in general ſteep, and, excepting Sydney, Anſon, Ball, and Caſcade Bays, are inacceſſible, being ſurrounded by ſteep clifts, which riſe perpendicularly from the ſea. A number of large rocks lie ſcattered about cloſe to the ſhore, on which a continued ſurf breaks with great force.

The following are Lieutenant-Governor King's lateſt diſpatches reſpecting Norfolk-Iſland: they are dated Dec. 29, 1791, and received Nov. 30, 1792.

"The wheat harveſt at Norfolk-Iſland was finiſhed by the 10th of December, 1791, when about one thouſand buſhels of wheat were got in, and well thatched in ſtacks. The Indian corn had ſuffered by a ſeries of dry hot weather, ever ſince the preceding July.

"Lieutenant governor King, finding great inconvenience from the ſize and conſtruction of the frame of a ſtore-houſe, which was eighty feet long by twenty-four feet wide, as well as from its ſituation, it being near the ſhore, determined to build one, forty feet by twenty-four, on the terrace at Mount-George. He had alſo found it neceſſary to build a gaol oppoſite the barrack-yard, and another at Queenſborough.

"A good road has been made to the landing rock in Caſcade Bay, ſo that now any thing may be landed with the greateſt ſafety.

"Eighteen copper bolts, ſix copper ſheets, two ſixteen-inch cables, two hundred weight of lead, one fiſh-tackle fall, twenty pounds of chalk, three rudder-chains, two top-chains, and iron work of various ſorts, had been ſaved from the wreck of the Sirius. The greateſt part of theſe articles, lieutenant governor King propoſed ſending to Port Jackſon.

"Ten ſettlers, who lately belonged to the Sirius, were doing exceedingly well; but there was reaſon to fear, that great part of the marine ſettlers, when the novelty of their ſituation was gone off, would have neither ability nor inclination to improve the portions of ground allotted them. They had already been extremely troubleſome, and the lieutenant governor had been under the neceſſity of impoſing heavy fines on two; the firſt, for beating the watch, and uſing inflammatory language; and the ſecond, for cruelly beating a convict woman.

"The convict ſettlers were all doing very well, and were quiet, attentive, and orderly: they were increaſed to the number of forty. The whole number of ſettlers on the iſland were eighty; and it will be difficult to fix more, until the ground is further cleared.

"A quantity of coral and other teſtaceous ſubſtances, with different kinds of ſtones, were burnt forty-eight hours, and produced a very fine white lime, much ſuperior to any lime made of chalk, and it proved a very tough cement.

"Eighteen convicts, under the direction of an overſeer, who is a ſettler, were employed in making bricks. A bricklayer was much wanted, as one who was ſent in the Queen, died in his paſſage.

"Lieutenant governor King, finding it neceſſary to diſcharge Mr. Doridge, the ſuperintendant of convicts at Queenſborough, has appointed Mr. Darcy Wentworth to ſucceed him. Mr. Wentworth had behaved with the greateſt attention and propriety as aſſiſtant-ſurgeon, which duty he ſtill continued to diſcharge. Mr. W. N. Chapman was appointed ſtore-keeper at Phillipſburgh.

"A corporal and ſix privates were ſtationed in a houſe with a good garden to it, on an eminence commanding Queenſborough; and a ſerjeant and ten men were fixed in a ſimilar ſituation at Phillipſburgh; and they were kept as ſeparate from the convicts as poſſible.

"The lieutenant governor had been under the neceſſity of appointing a town-adjutant and inſpector of out-poſts, and he named lieutenant Abbott for theſe duties. He alſo eſtabliſhed rules and regulations for the obſervance of every perſon on the iſland, and for keeping a night patrole; a deputy provoſt-marſhal was alſo appointed.

"The wreck of the Sirius went to pieces on the 1ſt of January, 1792, and every thing poſſible was ſaved out of her. The ſame day, every perſon on the iſland went to a reduced allowance of proviſions; but the fiſh daily caught, was ſufficient to ſerve all the inhabitants three times over.

"Some of the ſettlers were permitted to employ the convicts as their ſervants, on condition of maintaining them without the aid of the public ſtores; and ſome of the convicts were allowed to work for themſelves, on the ſame condition.

"It will be abſolutely neceſſary to eſtabliſh a court of juſtice, as corporal puniſhments have but little effect, although robberies were confined to a particular claſs of convicts, and were by no means general.

"By the 15th of January, 260 buſhels of Indian corn were gathered in; a number of acres were then in different ſtates of growth, which were likely to yield about 300 buſhels more. The wheat threſhed well, and yielded plentifully. The granary was finiſhed, and every endeavour uſed to keep the wevil out of it."

For the above concluſive accounts, as likewiſe for ſeveral intereſting particulars relating to our other ſettlements in this quarter, we acknowledge ourſelves indebted to that valuable work, lately publiſhed, entitled, "An Hiſtorical Journal of the Tranſactions at Port Jackſon and Norfolk Iſland; with the Diſcoveries which have been made in New South Wales, and in the Southern Ocean, ſince the publication of Phillip's Voyage, &c. by John Hunter, Eſq. Poſt Captain in his Majeſty's Navy."

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

It has been remarked, by an obſerver on the ſpot, of eminent diſcernment and penetration, that if the colony is intended only as a receptacle for convicts, this place ſtands unequalled, from the ſituation, extent, and nature of the country: but that, if taken in a commercial view, its importance will not appear ſtriking, as the New Zealand hemp, of which ſanguine expectations were formed, is not a native of the ſoil: and an adjacent iſland, where an aſſurance was entertained of finding it, is without it; conſequently, the ſcheme of being able to aſſiſt the Eaſt Indies with naval ſtores, in caſe of a war, muſt be rendered abortive, both from the deficiency and quality of the timber growing in this country. It is alſo given as an opinion, formed on due obſervation, that through ſufficient numbers, and induſtry in cultivation, the country would, in the courſe of a few years, produce grain enough for the ſupport of its new poſſeſſors, but to effect this, the preſent limits muſt be greatly extended.

To men of ſmall property, contracted deſires, and a diſpoſition for retirement, the continent of New South Wales may have its inducements. One of this deſcription, with letters of recommendation, and a ſufficient capital to furniſh an aſſortment of tools for agricultural and domeſtic purpoſes, poſſeſſed alſo of a few houſehold utenſils, a cow, a few ſheep, and breeding ſows, with proper protection and encouragement,

ragement, might obtain a comfortable ſubſiſtence, and a moderate independence in a courſe of time. But they who are induced to emigrate hither, are recommended, before they quit England, to provide all their wearing apparel for themſelves, family, and ſervants; their furniture, tools of every kind, and implements of huſbandry among which a plough need not be included, (the hoe being uſed) as they will touch at no place where theſe articles can be purchaſed to advantage.

If the ſheep and hogs are Engliſh, it will be the better. With reſpect to wines, ſpirits, tobacco, ſugar, coffee, tea, rice, and many other articles, they may venture to rely on Teneriffe or Madeira, the Brazils, and Cape of Good Hope. It will not be their intereſt to draw bills on their voyage out, as the exchange of money will be found invariably againſt them, and a large diſcount is alſo deducted. Drafts on the places they are to touch at, or caſh (dollars if poſſible) will beſt anſwer their purpoſe. Men of deſperate fortunes, and the lower claſſes, can propoſe to themſelves no kind of advantage, unleſs they can procure a paſſage as indented ſervants, ſimilar to the cuſtom of emigrating to America; for it is abſurd to imagine that government will be diſpoſed to maintain them here until they can be ſettled, and without ſuch ſupport they muſt eventually periſh for want of ſubſiſtence.

CHAP. II.

VAN DIEMAN'S LAND.

Deſcription of Van Dieman's Land, the Southern Extremity of New Holland, with Remarks on the Perſons, Manners, Cuſtoms, Language, and Character of the Natives, and the ſeveral Productions of the Country.

IN the year 1766, captain Cook having embarked in his third voyage, again viſited the coaſt of New Holland, which he approached from the ſouthward. On the 24th of January, 1777, he fell in with Van Dieman's Land, and on the 26th anchored in Adventure Bay, in latitude 43 degrees 21 minutes ſouth, being about five degrees more to the ſouthward than that part of the land which he firſt ſaw in his courſe from New Zealand in the year 1770. Before we proceed to relate the particular tranſactions of our modern navigators, we deem it proper to ſet forth the firſt account of the country now under conſideration upon its diſcovery.

Captain Abel Janſen Taſman having been ſent from Batavia for the expreſs purpoſe of making a perfect ſurvey of this country, in Auguſt 1642, found himſelf, on the 6th of November following, in latitude 49 degrees 4 min. ſouth, longitude 114 deg. 56 min. eaſt. Streſs of weather then determining him to ſtand towards the north eaſt, on the 24th of the ſame month, being in the latitude of 42 deg. 25 min. ſouth, longitude 163 deg. 50 min. he diſcovered land lying eaſt ſouth-eaſt, which he called Van Dieman's Land.

On the 1ſt of December he anchored in a bay, which he called the Bay of Frederic Henry; and heard, or at leaſt fancied he heard, the ſound of people upon the ſhore, but ſaw no perſon. The moſt remarkable and worthy of obſervation, were two trees, of two fathoms, or two fathoms and a half in girth, and 60 or 65 feet high, from the root to the branch. They had cut with a flint a kind of ſteps in the bark, in order to climb up to the birds neſts.—The ſteps were at the diſtance of five feet from each other, from whence it was concluded, either that thoſe people were of a prodigious ſize, or that they have ſome way of climbing trees unknown to Europeans. In one of the trees the ſlips were ſo freſh, that it was judged they could not have been cut above four days. A noiſe heard reſembled that of ſome ſort of a trumpet; it ſeemed to be at no great diſtance, but no living creature was ſeen notwithſtanding. The marks of wild beaſts were perceived in the ſand; they reſembled thoſe of a tyger, or ſome ſuch creature.—Some gum, and likewiſe ſome lack, were gathered from the trees. Smoke was obſerved in ſeveral places; nothing more was done, however, than ſetting up a poſt, on which every one preſent cut his name and his mark, and upon which a flag was hoiſted by Taſman, the commander.

The natives, who firſt preſented themſelves to the view of the Engliſh here at the wooding-place, were eight men and a boy. They approached with great confidence, none of them having any weapons but one, who had a ſhort ſtick pointed at one end. Our countrymen deſcribe them as of a middling ſtature, and ſomewhat ſlender, their hair black and woolly, and their ſkin alſo black. They were entirely naked, with large punctures or ridges, ſome in curved and others in ſtraight lines, on different parts of their bodies. They were not diſtinguiſhed by lips remarkably thick, nor their noſes ſo flat as the natives of Guinea; on the contrary, their features were far from being diſagreeable. They had pretty good eyes, and their teeth were tolerably even and regular, though very dirty. Moſt of them had their hair and beards ſmeared with a red ointment, and ſome had their faces alſo painted with the ſame compoſition. They received the preſents that were made them without the leaſt appearance of ſatisfaction. When ſome bread was given them, and they were made to underſtand, that it was to be eaten, they either returned or threw it away without ever taſting it. They all refuſed ſome elephant fiſh; but accepted ſome birds that were preſented, and in ſuch a manner as indicated they were fond of ſuch food.

A dead calm prevented the ſhip from ſailing; the commander ſent parties on ſhore to cut wood and graſs, and accompanied the wooding party himſelf. As ſeveral of the natives had been obſerved ſauntering on the ſhore, and thereby indicated they had no apprehenſion of injury, but, on the contrary, were deſirous of maintaining an intercourſe, he wiſhed to be preſent on the occaſion. The party had not been long landed, before about twenty of them, men and boys, joined them, without expreſſing the leaſt fear or diſtruſt. One of this company was diſtinguiſhed not only by his deformity, but the drollery of his geſtures, and the ſeeming humour of his ſpeeches, which, however, could not be underſtood by thoſe for whoſe entertainment they were ſuppoſed to be exhibited. Their language appeared to be different from that ſpoken by the inhabitants of the more northern parts of this country explored in a former voyage, which is not extraordinary, ſince theſe our navigators ſaw now, and thoſe they then viſited, differed in many other reſpects. Some of the preſent groupe wore round their necks three or four folds of ſmall cord, made of the fur of ſome animal; others had narrow ſlips of the kanguroo ſkin round their ancles. They were each of them preſented with a ſtring of beads and a medal, and ſeemed to receive them with ſome ſatisfaction. They did not appear to ſet any value on iron, or even to know the uſe of fiſh-hooks, though it is more than probable they were acquainted with ſome method of catching fiſh. Several deſerted habitations were obſerved near the head of the bay. There were little ſheds or hovels, built of ſticks, and covered with the bark of trees. There appeared evident ſigns of their abode in the trunks of large trees, which had been hollowed by fire, moſt probably for this very purpoſe. In or near all theſe habitations, and wherever there was an heap of ſhells, there remained the marks of fire,

an indubitable proof that they do not eat their food raw.

After the commander left the ſhore, ſeveral women and children made their appearance, and were introduced by the men to Lieutenant King. Theſe females wore a kanguroo ſkin, in the ſame ſhape as it came from the animal, over their ſhoulders, the only uſe of which ſeemed to be to ſupport their children on their backs, for it left thoſe parts uncovered which modeſty directs to conceal. In all other reſpects they were as naked as the men, and as black, and their bodies marked with ſcars in the ſame manner. They differed, however, in having their heads ſhaved, leaving a very narrow circle of hair all round, ſomewhat reſembling the tonſure of the Romiſh eccleſiaſtics. Many of the children had pleaſing features; but of the perſons of the women, eſpecially thoſe advanced in years, a leſs favourable report was made. Some of the gentlemen paid their addreſſes to them, and made liberal offers; but they were rejected with great diſdain; whether from a ſenſe of virtue, or fear of diſpleaſing their men, cannot be determined. That this gallantry was not very agreeable to the latter is evident; for an elderly man, as ſoon as he obſerved it, ordered all the women and children to retire, which they obeyed, though ſome ſhewed a degree of reluctance. It is here to be obſerved, that the people now ſeen differed, particularly in the texture of their hair, from the natives of the more northern parts of this country.

Van Dieman's Land had been twice viſited before. In the beginning of our account, it is ſet forth to have been ſo named by Taſman, who diſcovered it in November 1642. From that time it had eſcaped all further notice by European navigators, till captain Furneaux touched at it in March 1773. Captain Cook obſerves, that if the whole of the country now deſcribed does not deſerve the name of a continent, it is, by far, the largeſt iſland in the univerſe.

For the moſt part the land is of a good height, agreeably diverſified with hills and vallies, and exhibits, upon the whole, a verdant appearance. It abounds with wood, and, from what was met with in Adventure Bay, ſeems not ill ſupplied with water; for plenty was found in three or four places in this bay. The beſt, or what is moſt convenient for ſhips that touch here, is a rivulet, which is one of ſeveral that fall into a pond that lies behind a beach at the head of the bay. It there mixes with the ſea water; ſo that it muſt be taken up above this pond, which may be done without any great trouble. In ſeveral places fire-wood is to be procured with great eaſe.

As Mr. Anderſon, ſurgeon of the Reſolution, a perſon of general knowledge, ſpent the ſmall time the ſhips remained in Adventure Bay, in examining the iſland; the following are his remarks on the inhabitants and their language, and his account of the natural productions of the country.

At the bottom of Adventure Bay, there is a beautiful ſandy beach, about two miles long, formed, to all appearance, by the particles waſhed by the ſea from a very fine white ſand-ſtone. This beach is well adapted for hauling a ſeine: behind it is a plain, with a blackiſh lake, out of which were caught, by angling, ſome bream and trout. The other parts of the country are moſtly hilly, and are an entire foreſt of tall trees, rendered almoſt impaſſable by ſhrubs, breaks of fern, and fallen trees.

The ſoil on the flat land, and on the lower part of the hills, is ſandy, or conſiſts of a yelloviſh mould, and, in ſome parts, of a reddiſh clay; but further up the hills it is of a grey tough caſt. The country, upon the whole, bears many marks of being very dry, and the heat appears to be great.

No mineral bodies, or ſtones of any other ſort than the white ſand ſtone, already mentioned, were obſerved, nor were there any vegetables found that afforded ſubſiſtence for man.

The foreſt trees are all of one kind, and, in general, quite ſtraight; they bear cluſters of ſmall white flowers. The principal plants are a ſpecies of gladiolus, ruſh, bell-flower, ſamphire, wood-ſorrel, milk-wort, and Job's tears, with a few others peculiar to the place.

The only animal of the quadruped kind ſeen diſtinctly, was a ſpecies of opoſſum, about twice the ſize of a large rat. The kanguroo, another animal, found further northward in New Holland, muſt certainly inhabit here, as ſome of the natives had pieces of their ſkins. And there are ſeveral ſorts of birds; but, as in other neighbouring parts, all ſo ſcarce and ſhy, that it is plain they are haraſſed by the natives, who chiefly ſubſiſt upon them. In the woods, the principal ſorts are large brown hawks or eagles; crows nearly the ſame as ours in England; yellowith paroquets, and another ſmall one, which has part of the head and neck of a moſt beautiful azure colour, and was thence named *motacilla cyanea*. On the ſhore were ſeveral gulls, black oyſter-catchers or ſea-pies, and plovers of a ſtone colour, with a black hood. About the pond or lake behind the beach, a few wild ducks were ſeen, and ſome ſhags were obſerved to perch upon the high leafleſs trees near the ſhore.

Some pretty large blackiſh ſnakes were ſeen in the woods, and a lizard was killed that was fifteen inches long and ſix round, beautifully clouded with black and yellow.

Great variety of fiſh are found in the ſea, as the elephant-fiſh, rays, nurſes, leather-jackets, white bream, ſoles, flounders, gurnards, beſides a ſort not recollected to have been ſeen before, and which partakes of the nature both of a round and of a flat fiſh. Upon the rocks are plenty of muſcles and other ſmall ſhell-fiſh; and ſome Meduſa's heads were found upon the beach.

There is a variety of inſects here, though they are not numerous. The moſt troubleſome are the muſquitoes, and a large black ant, whoſe bite is very painful.

In this country the natives had little of that ferocious aſpect common to ſavages; but, on the contrary, ſeemed mild and cheerful, without reſerve, or jealouſy of ſtrangers. They are almoſt devoid of perſonal activity and genius, and, in thoſe particulars, nearly upon a par with the inanimate inhabitants of Terra del Fuego, who are ſo deficient in point of invention, as not to be capable of making clothing for defending themſelves from the extreme rigour of their climate, though furniſhed with the materials. They diſplay indeed ſome ingenuity in their method of cutting their arms and bodies in lines of different directions, raiſed above the ſurface of their ſkins. However, their want of curioſity, indifference for preſents made them, and general inattention, plainly teſtified they were not poſſeſſed of any acuteneſs of underſtanding. Their colour is a dull black, ſometimes heightened by ſmutting their bodies, as was ſuppoſed from their leaving a mark behind on touching any clean ſubſtance. Their hair is perfectly woolly, and clotted with greaſe like that of the Hottentots. Their noſes, though flat, are broad and full, and the lower part of the face projects conſiderably. Their eyes are of a moderate ſize, and though not remarkably quick and piercing, give the countenance a frank, cheerful, and pleaſing caſt. Their teeth are not very white, nor well ſet, their mouths are rather wide; they wear their beards long and clotted with paint. In other reſpects they are well proportioned, though the belly projects rather too much. Their moſt favourite attitude is to ſtand with one ſide forward, and one hand graſping acroſs the back the oppoſite arm, which, on this occaſion, hangs down by the projecting ſide.

In

In the bay, near the ſhore, were obſerved ſome wretched conſtructions of ſticks, covered with bark, which ſcarcely deſerve the name of huts. They ſeemed, indeed, to have been merely temporary, as many of their largeſt trees appeared to have been converted into more comfortable and commodious habitations. The trunks of theſe were hollowed out by fire to the height of ſix or ſeven feet. That they ſometimes dwell in them was evident from the hearths in the middle, made of clay, round which four or five perſons might ſit. Theſe places of ſhelter are rendered durable by their leaving one ſide of the tree ſound ſo that it continues growing as luxuriantly as thoſe which remain untouched.

Voyagers have generally concluded, that the people here are of the ſame ſtock with thoſe of New Zealand, and other ſouthern iſlands, though they differ in point of language.

CHAP. III.

NEW ZEALAND.

Diſcovery and Deſcription of the Country; its Situation, Extent, Soil, Climate, Mountains, &c.

THIS iſland was firſt diſcovered by Taſman, a Dutchman, in the year 1642, who meeting with a very hoſtile reception from the natives, as ſoon as he came to anchor, he thought it prudent to weigh without ſo much as attempting to land; but gave the appellation of Murderer's Bay to the road in which he dropped anchor, and the general name of New Zealand to the whole country, at that period ſuppoſed to be part of a ſouthern continent.

Captain Cook often viſited New Zealand, firſt in 1769, in the cloſe of which and the beginning of the enſuing year, he coaſted the country during a ſpace of ſix months, and found it to conſiſt of two large iſlands divided by a paſſage (now called Cook's Straights) about four or five leagues broad, and lying nearly north and ſouth of each other, between the latitudes of 34 degrees 22 minutes and 47 degrees 25 minutes ſouth, and between the longitude of 166 and 180 degrees eaſt. The ſame navigator viſited it again in 1773, and for the third time in 1774. Theſe two iſlands are nearly of the ſame extent, and taken together as large as Great Britain, having many ſmall iſlands about them. The northernmoſt is called by the natives Eahei-Nomarve, and the ſouthernmoſt Tovy or Tovai-Poenammoo. The latter is moſtly hilly, and, to appearance, barren and thinly inhabited; but the former, though very mountainous, is tolerably fertile, and can boaſt of a rivulet running through every valley. Though theſe vallies do not abound with wood, yet, from the apparent nature of the ſoil, it was the opinion of ſome ingenious perſons, that every kind of European grain would flouriſh here, and that through the exertion of induſtry in cultivation, not only the neceſſaries but luxuries of life might be obtained in rich variety. The climate, upon the whole, is ſaid to be more temperate than that of England, from the vegetables that were found growing there in the winter ſeaſon.

During ſix months circuit, in which captain Cook fully explored the coaſts of both iſlands, he gave names to ſeveral bays, rivers, and other parts of thoſe coaſts, from remarkable characters and various occurring circumſtances. He called the firſt place where he anchored Poverty Bay, becauſe no neceſſaries were found there but wood. The next port he made was named Mercury Bay, becauſe an obſervation was there made of the Tranſit of Mercury over the Sun; it is ſituated in latitude 36 degrees 57 minutes. The river that empties itſelf at the head of Mercury Bay was called The River Thames, from its apparent reſemblance to our river of that name; and its banks are pointed out as the moſt advantageous ſpot in theſe iſlands for planting a colony. The bay of iſlands, lying more to the northward, derives its appellation from the great number of iſlands contiguous, and from its ſeveral harbours, which are equally ſafe and commodious.

North-Cape, or Cape-North, ſo called from its ſituation, is the northern extremity of land on the iſland Eahei-Nomarve. The coaſt along the weſtern ſhore was called, The Deſert Coaſt, and a peak remarkably high, of moſt majeſtic appearance, and from the ſpace which the ſnow occupies upon it, ſuppoſed to be not much inferior to the Peak of Teneriffe, named Mount Egmont; and the ſhore under it, forming a large cape, received the appellation of Cape Egmont.

The ſouthern iſland was as accurately ſurveyed as the northern. Here likewiſe, from the cauſes abovementioned, names were given to ſeveral parts, as Banks's-Iſland, Cape-Saunders, The Traps, Duſky-Bay, Admiralty-Bay, &c. &c.

In Queen Charlotte's Sound (in which is ſituated Murderers'-Bay, ſo called by Taſman) was diſcovered a fine ſtream of excellent water, and wood in abundance. The inhabitants, who ſcarcely exceeded four hundred in number, were diſperſed along the ſhore; they are poorer than the inhabitants of other parts of the country, their ground is uncultivated, their chief food is fiſh and fern roots, and their canoes are without ornament. The climate here is much milder than that of Duſky-Bay, and as no froſt was ſeen at the beginning of June, almoſt the depth of winter, it is probable that it ſeldom freezes here. There were ſome curioſities found on the hills and beaches, and, from many different appearances, the former exiſtence of a volcano in New Zealand was more than conjectured. Queen Charlotte's Sound is particularly eligible as a port and place of refreſhment, from the number of antiſcorbutic plants which grow upon every beach, many of which contribute both to health and aliment.

From the hills in general towards the ſea, are one continued foreſt of lofty trees, which flouriſh with uncommon vigour; and it was remarked that no country abounded upon the whole ſo much with trees and plants, that were entirely unknown to the naturaliſts of Europe, as New Zealand. The ſize, growth, and durability of the timber render it fit for any kind of building. The large trees on the hills are chiefly of two ſorts, one of them is of the ſize of our largeſt firs, and grows nearly in the ſame manner. A decoction of its leaves fermented with ſugar or treacle, ſupplies the place of ſpruce in making beer, and our countrymen acknowledged it to be little inferior to American ſpruce beer; the other ſort of tree is like a maple, and often grows very large, but is only fit for fuel, the wood being too heavy for maſts and yards, though it was the general opinion, that if ſome means could be deviſed to lighten them, they would produce maſts ſuperior to thoſe of any country in Europe. In Duſky Bay a beautiful tree was found in flower, of the myrtle kind, of which an infuſion was drank inſtead of tea. Its leaves are aromatic, aſtringent, and have a very pleaſant flavour at the firſt infuſion, which is changed to a ſtrong bitter on pouring water on the leaves a ſecond time.

Trees of various ſorts grow on the flats behind the beaches: two or three bear a kind of plum of the ſize of prunes; the one which is yellow is called karraca, and the other, which is black, maitao, though neither of them afforded a pleaſant taſte. The woods in many parts were ſo over-run with ſupple-jacks, that it was ſcarcely poſſible to force a way through them; ſeveral of theſe were fifty or ſixty feet long.

This country produces wild celery and a kind of creſſes, which grow in abundance on all parts of the ſea coaſts; theſe are ſometimes uſed as ſalad or dreſſed as greens; in all thoſe ways they are excellent, and,

together

together with the fiſh, form a deſirable refreſhment. Here is the proper mulberry-tree, but extremely rare; alſo a berry which ſerves the natives inſtead of flax and hemp, and exceeds all that are made uſe of for ſuch purpoſes in other countries. There are two ſorts of this plant, in one kind the flowers are yellow, and in the other, a deep red. Of the leaves of theſe plants, with very little preparation, the natives make all their common apparel; of theſe alſo they make all their lines and cordage for every purpoſe. Theſe are much ſtronger than any thing we can make with hemp. This plant grows in all places near the ſea, and ſometimes a conſiderable way up the hills, in bunches or tufts; being perennial it may be cut down to the root every year, and requires little care and attendance in the cultivation. It is remarked that our botaniſts were greatly tantalized here by the appearance of numerous trees and ſhrubs, which had loſt their flowers and fruits, and only ſerved to give them an idea of the great profuſion of vegetables in this country.

There are not many inſects in this country. There is a ſort of little crane fly, particularly troubleſome in the ſouthern parts during bad weather. The ſand fly, the only noxious one, is very numerous here, and is almoſt as diſagreeable as the muſquito. Their bite cauſes a ſwelling and intolerable itching. There are ſome butterflies, two ſorts of dragon-flies, ſome ſmall graſshoppers, ſeveral ſorts of ſpiders, ſome black ants, and ſcorpion flies, with whoſe chirping the woods reſound. There are ſnakes and lizards of an enormous ſize.

In the woods are a great number and variety of birds, ſome are very beautiful, and moſt of them peculiar to the place. The only bird here which reſembles any in Europe is the gannet; here are ducks and ſhaggs, but very different from any among us: their hawks, owls, and quails differ but little. There is a ſmall green bird, almoſt the only muſical one to be found here. His melody is ſo ſweet, and his notes ſo varied, that the liſtener would imagine himſelf ſurrounded by a variety of birds, when he exerts his vocal powers. From this circumſtance he was called the mocking bird. Here are water hens of a large ſpecies; rails are ſcarce in all parts of New Zealand, except at Duſky Bay, where they were ſeen in great numbers; alſo cormorants, oyſter-catchers or ſeapies, albatroſſes, ducks, penguins, and other ſorts of the aquatic kind. Five ſpecies of ducks were found in Duſky Bay, differing from each other in ſize and plumage. Among the ſmall birds are the wattle-bird, the poy-bird, and the fantail. Of the fantail there are different ſorts; but the body of the moſt remarkable one is ſcarcely larger than a good filbert, yet it ſpreads a tail of moſt beautiful plumage, ſurpriſing in extent conſidering its ſize. Our late travellers remark, that though it would be difficult and fatiguing to follow the birds of ſport on account of the quantity of underwood and the climbing plants, yet by continuing in one place, a fowler may ſhoot as many in a day as would ſerve ſeven or eight perſons. The reaſon aſſigned for this obſervation is, that theſe birds were ſo little acquainted with mankind, that they familiarly perched on the neareſt branches, and hopped even on the ends of the fowling pieces, looking at every one that came near them with the greateſt curioſity.

In this extenſive country, the only quadrupeds which are known are dogs and rats. The dogs are of the rough, long-haired ſort, with pricked ears, and much reſembling the ſhepherd's cur; they are of different colours, and though kept by the natives as a domeſtic animal, pampered and indulged with fiſh as food in common with their maſters, their bodies are afterwards eaten by them, and their ſkins applied to various uſes of dreſs and ornament. The cuſtom of eating dog's fleſh is partly general among the inhabitants of theſe ſouthern climes, and was at length adopted by our European navigators as a relief from the loathſome taſte of ſalt proviſions. The leg of a dog, killed on board one of the ſhips, was roaſted and ſerved up at the captain's table, which the company, through diſuſe, could not diſtinguiſh from mutton.

Many ſorts of fiſh were caught here by the Seine, and among the reſt a ſpecies unknown in Europe, but very delicious. Every creek ſwarms with them. Mackerel of various kinds were caught in immenſe ſhoals; but the higheſt luxury which the ſea affords here, is the lobſter, or ſea cray-fiſh, which differs from thoſe in Europe in ſeveral particulars. They have a great number of prickles on their backs, and are red when firſt taken out of the water. There are elephant-fiſh, mullets, ſoles, flounders, bream, conger-eels, and a fiſh of five or ſix pounds weight, called by the natives a mogge. With the hook and line was caught a blackiſh fiſh called cole fiſh by the ſeamen, but differing greatly from that of the ſame name in Europe. There is alſo a ſort of ſmall ſalmon, ſkate, gurnards, and nurſes; theſe in general are well-flavoured, but the ſmall ſalmon, cole-fiſh, and mogge are ſuperior to the others. There are vaſt quantities of muſcles among the rocks, many cockles in the ſand of the ſmall beaches, and in ſome places oyſters, which, though ſmall, have an agreeable taſte, together with other ſhell fiſh of various kinds. There is not here any mineral deſerving notice, except a green jaſper ſtone of which the tools and ornaments of the inhabitants are made. This is held in high eſtimation among them, and they entertain ſome ſuperſtitious notions about the mode of its generation, but the particulars our countrymen could not comprehend.

In New Zealand the number of inhabitants bears no proportion to the extent of country. The ſouthern part is very thinly inhabited, conſiſting chiefly of wanderers; but the northern is better peopled, though the weſtern ſide of the iſland is quite a deſert, and the interior parts are ſo mountainous that ſcarce any place is inhabited but the ſea coaſts.

The ſtature of the iſlanders in general is equal to the Europeans, but they are not ſo well formed, eſpecially about the limbs, which are diſtorted by ſitting ſo much on their hams, and being deprived, by the mountainous nature of the country, from uſing that kind of exerciſe which would render the body ſtraight and well proportioned. Some, however, are well made, vigorous and active, and have a good ſhare of adroitneſs and manual dexterity.

Their complexion is moſtly brown, though not deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been expoſed to the heat of the ſun. They are rather darker in the ſouthern iſland. Their faces are commonly round, their lips rather full, and their noſes (though not flat) large towards the point. Their eyes are large, their teeth broad and irregular, their hair in general black, ſtrong and ſtraight, commonly cut ſhort on the hinder part, and the reſt tied on the crown of the head. The countenance of the young is generally free and open, but in many of the men it has a ſerious or ſullen caſt. The men are larger than the women, who are not remarkable for any peculiar graces either of form or feature; but their voices are very ſoft and harmonious, by which they are chiefly diſtinguiſhed, the dreſs of both ſexes being nearly the ſame. Like the women of moſt other countries, they have a chearfulneſs ſuperior to the men, and a greater flow of animal ſpirits.

They have a garment made of ſilky flax, about five feet in length and four in breadth. This appears to be their principal manufacture, which is performed by knotting. Two corners of this garment paſs over the ſhoulders, and they faſten it on the breaſt with that which covers the body; it is again faſtened about the belly with a girdle made of mat. It is ſometimes covered with dog ſkin or large feathers. Many

of

of them wear coats over this garment, extending from the ſhoulders to the heels. The moſt common covering, however, is a quantity of the ſedgy plant, badly manufactured, faſtened to a ſtring and thrown over the ſhoulders, whence it falls down on all ſides to the middle of the thighs. They adorn their heads with feathers, combs of bone or wood, pearl ſhells, and the inner ſkin of leaves. Both ſexes have their ears ſlit, in which are hung beads, pieces of jaſper, or bits of cloth. Some have the ſeptum of the noſe bored in the lower part, but no ornament was ſeen in it. Their tattowing is done very curiouſly, in ſpiral and other figures, and in many places indented with their ſkin, ſo as to look like carving; but, at a diſtance, it appears as if it had been only ſmeared with black paint. This tattowing and ſtaining the face is peculiar to the principal men among them; thoſe of inferior rank, as well as women, content themſelves with beſmearing their faces with red paint or ochre. The women wear necklaces of ſhark's teeth, or bunches of long beads, and ſome of them have ſmall triangular aprons, adorned with feathers or pieces of pearl-ſhells faſtened about the waiſt with a double or treble ſet of cords. Their winter dreſs is a ſhaggy cloak, called boghee boghee, which hangs round their necks like a thatch of ſtraw. Their cloth is white and as gloſſy as ſilk, worked by hands, and wrought as even as if it had been wrought in a loom, and is chiefly worn by the men, though it is made by women, who alſo carry burdens and do all the drudgery.

They erect their huts with great facility. They have been ſeen to erect above twenty of them on a ſpot of ground which was covered with plants and ſhrubs not an hour before. The ſavages had no ſooner leaped from the canoes, than they tore up the ſhrubs and plants from the ground they had fixed on, and put up ſome part of the framing of a hut. Theſe huts are ſufficiently calculated for affording ſhelter from the rain and wind, and are built contiguous to each other. The beſt ſeen was built in the manner of one of our country barns, and was about ſix feet in height, fifteen in breadth, and thirty-three in length. The inſide was ſtrong and regular, well faſtened by means of withes, &c. and painted red and black. At one end it had a hole ſerving as a door to creep out at, near which was a ſquare hole, which ſerved both for window and chimney.

Their hippahs, or fortified villages, conſiſt of ſtrong holds, erected on rocks, and ſecured on the land ſide by a bank, a ditch, and an high paling within the ditch. Some have out-works curiouſly conſtructed. Theſe places ſeem only to be the occaſional abodes of the natives, in caſe of danger from their enemies; for as ſoon as their ſtate of tranquillity returns, they quit theſe heights for the level country.

They feed moſtly on fiſh, which they catch with different kinds of nets, or wooden fiſh-hooks, pointed with bone, but made in ſo extraordinary a manner, that it appears aſtoniſhing how they can anſwer ſuch a purpoſe. They ſhewed themſelves more expert fiſhermen than any of their European viſitants, nor were any of the methods practiſed by our people equal to theirs. They dreſs their fiſh by roaſting, or rather baking them, being entirely ignorant of the art of boiling. It is thus they alſo dreſs the root of the large fern-tree, in a hole prepared for that purpoſe: when dreſſed, they ſplit it, and find a glutinous ſubſtance within, not unlike ſago powder. The ſmaller fern-root ſeems to be their ſubſtitute for bread; being dried and carried about with them, together with great quantities of dried fiſh, when they go far from their habitations.

Water is their only drink, and they conſtantly refuſed to touch either wine or brandy, when on board the European veſſels, and drank pure water, or ſweetened with ſugar, though they partook very freely of the proviſions that were put on the table. They are as filthy in their feeding as in their perſons, which often emit a very offenſive effluvia, from the quantity of greaſe about them, and from their never waſhing their garments.

For an uncivilized people, their ingenuity claims notice; as, without the aſſiſtance of metal tools, they make every thing by which they procure their ſubſiſtence, clothing, and warlike weapons, with neatneſs, ſtrength, and convenience. Their chief mechanical tools are the adze and axe, made of hard black ſtone, chiſels of human bone, or fragments of jaſper. They eſteem their axes the moſt valuable of their poſſeſſions, nor will part with one of them upon any conſideration. They have baſkets of various kinds and ſizes, made of wicker-work. The making of nets ſeem to be the ſtaple manufacture of thoſe parts of the country which were viſited. Theſe nets are of a circular form, extended by two hoops, and about ſeven or eight feet in diameter; the top is open, and they faſten ſea-ears to the bottom as a bait. They let down this net, ſo as to lie upon the ground; and when they imagine fiſh enough are collected over it, they draw up by a gentle motion, ſo that the fiſh riſe with it, ſcarcely ſenſible that they are lifted, till they come near the ſurface of the water, and then a ſudden jerk brings them with the net into the boat.

They have a ſingular taſte for carving, which muſt be admitted as their maſter-piece. This appears on the moſt trifling things: the ornaments on the heads of ſome of their canoes, not only diſplay much deſign, but execution, though their tools in general are very awkward. A ſhell, a piece of flint or jaſper, is their ſubſtitute for a knife, and a ſhark's tooth, fixed on the end of a piece of wood, is their auger.

Their chief weapons are ſpears or lances, darts, battle-axes, and the patoo-patoo. The ſpear is fourteen or fifteen feet long, pointed at both ends, and ſometimes headed with bone. It is graſped by the middle, ſo that the part behind balancing that before, makes a puſh more difficult to be parried, than that of a weapon which is held by the end. The patoo-patoo is formed like a pointed battledore, with a ſhort handle, and ſharp edges, and deſigned for cloſe fighting: through the handle there is a ſtring to twiſt round the hand when the weapon is uſed. The patoo-patoo is worn in the girdle, as a conſiderable military ornament.

The chiefs carry about them a ſtaff of diſtinction, generally the rib of a whale, ornamented round the top with carving, dog-ſkin, and feathers, like our halberts. Sometimes this ſtaff is merely a ſtick, about ſix feet long, adorned in the ſame manner, and inlaid with a ſhell reſembling mother-of-pearl.

Their canoes are of different ſizes, and much reſemble the New-England whale-boat. Some of the largeſt ſort ſeem to be built for war, being near ſeventy feet long, five feet broad, and three feet and a half deep. They have a ſharp bottom, conſiſting of three trunks of trees hollowed, of which that in the middle is the longeſt. The ſide-planks are ſixty-two feet long, in one piece, and carved in basrelief; the head is ſtill more richly adorned with carving. The gunwale boards are likewiſe frequently ornamented with tufts of white feathers placed upon a black ground. Their boats are worked by paddles, about ſix feet long, neatly made, the blade being oval, pointed at the bottom, and gradually loſing its oval form in the handle. They make their ſtrokes with thoſe paddles with incredible quickneſs, and keep time ſo exactly, that all the rowers ſeem actuated by one common impulſe. Sails of matting fixed upright, between two poles, are ſometimes uſed; but they can make no way with theſe, unleſs it be right before the wind. The ſmaller canoes were no other than trunks of trees, intended wholly for fiſhing, without either convenience or ornament.

The New Zealanders are by no means expert in navigation.

The natives of this country live under continual apprehenſions of being deſtroyed by each other; moſt of their tribes having, as they think, ſuſtained injuries from ſome other tribe, which they are over-eager to revenge. They generally ſteal upon the adverſe party in the night; and if they chance to find them unguarded, which however ſeldom happens, they put every one to death without diſtinction, not ſparing even women or children. When they have completed the inhuman maſſacre, they gorge themſelves on the ſpot, or carry off as many bodies as they can, and feaſt on them at home with the moſt horrid acts of brutality. If they are diſcovered before they have time to execute their ſanguinary purpoſe, they uſually ſteal off again, and ſometimes they are purſued and attacked by the adverſe party in their turn. They never give quarter, ſo that the vanquiſhed muſt truſt to flight alone for ſafety. From this ſtate of perpetual hoſtility, and this deſtructive mode of carrying it on, a New Zealander acquires ſuch habitual vigilance and circumſpection, that he is ſeldom off his guard; indeed, they have the moſt powerful motives to be vigilant.

The inhabitants of the ſouthern iſle, in particular, lead a wandering kind of life, and ſeem to be under no regular kind of government, yet the head of each tribe is reſpected, and, on ſome occaſions, commands obedience. Thoſe of the northern iſle acknowledge a ſovereign, to whom great reſpect is paid, and by whom juſtice is probably adminiſtered. The European viſitants were given to underſtand, that they poſſeſſed their authority by inheritance.

It appears that the men here till the ground, make nets, catch birds, and fiſh with nets and lines, and the women dig up fern-roots, collect lobſters, and other ſhell-fiſh, in the ſhallow waters near the beach, dreſs the food, and weave cloth. Reſpect is paid to old men among them, who may be ſuppoſed to owe their conſequence to the long experience they have gained; but their chiefs are ſtrong, active young men, in the prime and flower of their life.

Their exceſſive cruelty towards ſome of our countrymen, in the year 1773, will appear by the following relation:

The two ſhips commanded by the captains Cook and Furneaux having parted company, and not happening to join again, ſome time after the departure of captain Cook, captain Furneaux arrived in the month of December in Queen Charlotte's Sound.—While he lay there, a cutter, with two petty officers and eight ſeamen, being ſent up a creek to procure wood and water, not returning the next day, a boat was ſent with an officer in queſt of them. They were ſoon alarmed by the ſight of ſome parts of the cutter, and ſome ſhoes, one of which was known to belong to a midſhipman who was one of the party: preſently a piece of meat was found, which at firſt was ſuppoſed to be ſome of the ſalted meat belonging to the cutter's crew; but on cloſer examination, was found to be freſh. Several baſkets lay on the beach tied up, which they eagerly cut open, and found to contain roaſted fleſh and fern-roots, which ſerved them for bread. On further ſearch many ſhoes were found, and a hand, which was immediately known to belong to a forecaſtle-man, it being marked with the initial letters of his name with an inſtrument, by a native of Otaheite. Many other articles were found, till having ſearched in vain in every part of the beach for the cutter, a ſhocking ſpectacle ſuddenly opened to their view. Here were ſcattered the heads, hearts, and lungs of ſeveral of the unhappy men, who had been maſſacred by the natives, and dogs were ſeen devouring their entrails. The ſailors ſtood aghaſt, ſtruck with horror at the ſight, and with imprecations vowed revenge, which was ſoon executed, by firing at and killing many of the ſavages, and deſtroying all the canoes that lay on the beach.

Yet notwithſtanding their ferocity in the above, and divers other inſtances in their diſpoſition, our countrymen had an opportunity of remarking, not only their perſonal ſubordination, but ſome proofs of their hoſpitality. Going on ſhore in ſearch of the natural productions of the country, two very ingenious gentlemen accidentally fell in with an agreeable Indian family. The principal were a widow, and a darling ſon about ten years old. The widow was mourning for her huſband, according to their cuſtom, with tears of blood, and the child, by the death of the father, was become proprietor of a diſtrict of land. The widow and her ſon were ſitting upon mats, and the reſt of the family, to the number of ſixteen or ſeventeen of both ſexes, ſat round them in the open air; for they did not appear to have any home, or other ſhelter from the weather, the inclemencies of which cuſtom had enabled them to endure without any laſting inconvenience. It was remarked, that their whole behaviour was obliging, affable, and unſuſpicious. They preſented their viſitants with a fiſh, and a brand of fire to dreſs it, and importuned them to ſtay till morning, which they would have done, had they not expected the veſſel to ſail.

When our Britiſh navigators firſt explored theſe parts, the firſt inhabitants they ſaw were a man and two women. The man ſtood with a battle-axe and club in his hand, on the rocky point of an iſland, and called to the commander and others who were paſſing near him in a boat. The women were behind him, each with a long ſpear in her hand. His ſalutation was anſwered in the language of Otaheite, "Tayo barre mai;" Friend, come hither. He did not, however, ſtir from his poſt; but held a long ſpeech, frequently ſwinging round his club, on which he leaned at other times. The commander landed on the rock alone. The poor native gave evident tokens of fear, but ſtood however firm on the ſame ſpot. The commander went up to him and embraced him, according to the cuſtom of the country, by joining noſes. This token of amity diſpelled all apprehenſions on the part of the natives. The man received the preſents that were made him, and the two women joined company. One of them had a prodigious excreſcence on the upper lip, and was in every reſpect remarkably ugly. But on a renewal of the viſit the next day, the natives received all the articles that were offered them with great indifference, except hatchets and ſpike nails; in return for which, they parted with ſeveral of their ornaments and weapons, but did not ſeem inclined to part with their ſpears. A good underſtanding being now eſtabliſhed, the next time our countrymen viſited them, they found them dreſſed out in the higheſt taſte of the country. Their hair was combed, tied to the crown of the head, and anointed with oil or greaſe; white feathers were ſtuck at the top; ſome had fillets of white feathers all round the head, and others wore pieces of an albatroſs ſkin, with the fine down in their ears. A cloak of red baize was preſented to the chief, in return for which, he gave the commander a patoo-patoo, which he drew from his ſide.

A man and young woman being prevailed on to come on board, the former, before he left the ſhore, broke off a ſmall green branch from a buſh, walked on with it in his hand, and having ſtruck the ſhip's ſide with it ſeveral times, began to recite a kind of ſpeech or prayer, which ſeemed to have regular cadences, and to be arranged in metre as a poem. It laſted two or three minutes, and when over, he threw the branch into the main chain, and went on board. His manner of delivering ſolemn orations, and making peace, is practiſed by all nations in the South-Seas, as appears from the teſtimonies of various

ous voyagers. All they ſaw excited the curioſity both of the girl and the man: they were particularly pleaſed to find the uſe of chairs, and that they might be removed from place to place; but it was not poſſible to fix their attention to any one thing for a ſingle moment.

Of all the various preſents that were made the man, hatchets and ſpike nails ſtill continued to be moſt valuable in his eyes; theſe he would never ſuffer to go out of his hands after he had once laid hold of them, whereas he would lay many other articles careleſsly down, and often at laſt leave them behind him. They could not be prevailed upon to eat any thing; but paſſed ſome compliments on our countrymen, according to their own forms and cuſtoms.

In a ſhort time an acquaintance was cultivated with a few more of the natives, who ſeemed to be the only inhabitants in this part of the country. Theſe coveted the poſſeſſion of every thing they ſaw, or could lay their hands on, except muſkets, which they would not touch, having learnt to dread them as inſtruments of death, from the deſtruction they had ſeen them make among the wild-fowl.

The diſpoſition of theſe people is however very open, for if they had not diſcovered themſelves, and thereby made the firſt advances, they might with great eaſe have kept themſelves concealed; but a certain openneſs and honeſty appeared ſtrongly to mark their character; for had they been inclined to treachery, they would have endeavoured to have cut off ſmall parties that were frequently diſperſed in different parts of the woods, in which they might have been but too ſucceſsful.

The following little anecdotes may tend further to a diſplay of the diſpoſition of theſe iſlanders.

A New Zealander came on board an European veſſel when ſhe lay in Queen Charlotte's Sound, accompanied by his ſon and daughter. Being introduced into the cabin, the ſon was preſented by the captain with divers trinkets, and dreſſed out in one of his own white ſhirts. Unable to withſtand the impulſe of puerile vanity, he ran upon deck in order to ſhew his finery to his countrymen. An old he-goat, conceiving a kind of capricious diſlike to the ludicrous figure of poor Khoaa (for that was the boy's name) aſſailed him, and raiſing himſelf on his hind legs, with one butt of his head, laid him proſtrate on the deck. The father, amazed to ſee the ineſtimable preſent begrimed with filth, beſtowed many blows on the unfortunate ſufferer, in token of his reſentment. The ſhirt, however, by waſhing, was ſoon brought to its former ſtate of purity; and what was more, the boy was waſhed all over; moſt probably for the firſt time in his life: but the provident father, dreading another miſchance to the precious veſtment, carefully rolled it up, and taking off his own dreſs, made a bundle of it, in which he placed all the preſents that he and his ſon had received.

A diſpoſition to ſteal and ſecrete every thing they could lay their hands on, was diſcoverable in all that came on board the veſſel in Queen Charlotte's Sound; and thoſe that were detected, were treated with merited diſgrace and ignominy. They appeared to feel the whole weight of ſhame which their behaviour brought on them; nay, one of them uttered threats, and made violent geſtures in his canoe. Upon another occaſion of the like nature, a young New Zealander diſcovered his reſentment by ſtriking a ſailor, merely for recovering his property that had been ſtolen; but the tar, according to the law of retaliation, imprinted the marks of his fiſt on the face of the aggreſſor.

A boy, about fourteen years of age, was prevailed on to drink a glaſs of Madeira wine, which cauſed him to make wry faces; but a glaſs of ſweet Cape wine being filled out to him, he reliſhed it ſo well as to lick his lips, and deſired to have another, which he likewiſe drank off. This ſoon began to elevate his ſpirits, as appeared from the volubility of his tongue and his antic geſtures, as well as his expreſſion of indignation at being refuſed divers articles, for which he had conceived a predilection. In a word, his behaviour was ſuch, as exhibited a very juſt ſample of the impatient temper of thoſe people.

Several of the natives here had very expreſſive countenances; particularly ſome old men with grey and white beards, and ſome young men with great quantities of buſhy hair, which hung wildly over their faces, and increaſed the ferocity of their looks. As proofs of the force of ſuperior genius, their enquiries after Tupia, and the concern they ſhewed for his death, were ſingularly emphatical. It was ſhrewdly obſerved by one of our countrymen preſent, that this man, with the capacity with which he was endowed, and which had been cultivated no further than the ſimplicity of his native manners extended, was probably better qualified for civilizing the New Zealanders, than any of the more enlightened Europeans.

Their various methods of attack and defence, as exhibited before the Europeans, were as follow: One of their young men mounted a fighting ſtage, which they call porava, and another went into a ditch. Both he who was to defend the place, and he who was to aſſault it, ſung the evar-ſong, and danced with frightful geſticulations. Theſe were practiſed as means of working themſelves up into that mechanical fury, which among all uncivilized nations is the neceſſary prelude to a battle. Their engagements, whether in boats or on ſhore, are generally hand to hand, and the ſlaughter muſt conſequently be great, as a ſecond blow with any of their weapons is unneceſſary, if the firſt takes place. Their truſt, however, ſeems to be principally placed in the patoo-patoo, already deſcribed. They gloried in their cruelties, and ſhewed their viſitors the manner in which they diſpatched their priſoners, which was to knock them down with their patoo-patoos, and then to rip them up. They made no ſcruple of declaring their practice of eating their enemies. The bones of a man were ſeen with the fleſh off; and every circumſtance concurred to render it evident that theſe people were cannibals, for there was found in one of their proviſion baſkets, the remaining fleſh, which appeared to have been dreſſed by fire, and in the griſtles at the end were the marks of teeth which had knawed them. To aſcertain the fact, Tupia was directed to aſk what bones they were: the Indians without heſitation replied, the bones of a man: when aſked what was become of the fleſh, they replied, they had eaten it. One being afterwards aſked why they did not eat the body of a woman that was ſeen floating upon the water? The woman, they ſaid, died of a diſeaſe; and added, that ſhe was their relation, and they eat only the bodies of their enemies.

The people of New Zealand are more paſſionate than the other South Sea iſlanders in general, yet they are more modeſt; and if the women are not invincible, the terms and manner of their compliance are as decent as thoſe in marriage among the Europeans. When an overture is made to any young woman, the party is given to underſtand, that the conſent of friends is neceſſary; that a ſuitable preſent muſt be made; that the conſenting female muſt be treated with good manners; that no unbecoming liberties muſt be taken, and that day-light muſt not be witneſs to what paſſes between them.

The lower garment worn by the women, is bound faſt round them, except when they go into the water to catch lobſters, and then they take care not to be ſeen by the men. But, in courſe of time, the morals of the natives, both male and female, appeared not to be at all mended by their intercourſe with Europeans. It was obſerved by our countrymen, on their ſecond viſit, that inſtead of behaviug with the ſame reſerve,

reſerve that had marked their conduct before, both ſexes had abandoned their native principles, and the men promoted a ſhameful traffic of their daughters and ſiſters. It did not appear, however, that the married women were ſuffered to have any intercourſe of this kind. The ideas of female chaſtity, which prevail here, are quite different from ours; for here a girl may grant her favours to a plurality of lovers, without any ſtain on her character; but conjugal fidelity is rigorouſly expected if ſhe marries. Polygamy is allowed; and it is not uncommon for a man to have two or three wives. The females are marriageable at a very early age; and it ſhould ſeem that one who is unmarried is but in a forlorn ſtate: ſhe can with difficulty get a ſubſiſtence, at leaſt ſhe is in a great meaſure without a protector, though in conſtant want of a powerful one.

In ſome places to the northward, there were conſiderable traces of cultivation, and the ground appeared as well broken and tilled as amongſt us. The plantations were of different extent from one or two acres to ten, and in the whole of Poverty Bay there appeared from 150 to 200 acres in cultivation, though an hundred people were not ſeen all the time the Europeans continued there.

As Tupia was perfectly underſtood in his own language by the natives of this country, and there ſeemed to be a ſimilarity of dialect in all the iſlands viſited by our European navigators, it was deemed a ſtrong argument for the inhabitants being all deſcended from one common ſtock. Exceptions are however found to the univerſality of the language, among the inhabitants of New Caledonia and the New Hebrides.

The war-ſong of New Zealand is extraordinary. In it the women join the men with horrid diſtortions of countenance and hideous cries, which they utter in extreme good time. Their muſical inſtruments conſiſt of a trumpet, or tube of wood, about four feet long, and pretty ſtraight. It makes a ſtrange and uncooth noiſe, and it was obſerved they always ſounded the ſame note. Another trumpet was made of a large whelk, mounted with wood, curiouſly carved, and pierced at the point where the mouth was applied. An hideous bellowing was all the ſound that could be produced from this inſtrument. The natives were frequently heard ſinging on ſhore, as well as in their canoes, and ſometimes they ſang on board the European veſſels.

Some of the New Zealanders, inhabitants of Queen Charlotte's Sound, exhibited an *heiva*, or dance, on the quarter-deck. They placed themſelves in a row, and parted with their ſhaggy upper garments; one of them ſang ſome words in a rude manner, and all the reſt accompanied the geſtures he made, alternately extending their arms, and ſtamping with their feet in a violent and moſt frantic manner. The laſt words, which might be ſuppoſed to be the chorus, they all repeated together, and ſome ſort of metre was diſtinguiſhable, but whether it was calculated to make rhyme, could not be diſcovered.

The eaſe with which their wounds heal, is adduced as a ſtrong proof of the health which theſe people enjoy. One of them had a ſhot with a muſket ball through the fleſhy part of the arm, which, without any application, ſoon appeared well adjuſted, and in a fair way of being perfectly healed. The venereal diſeaſe is now, indeed, too common among them. This dreadful diſorder is ſaid to have been introduced among the natives by the crew of a veſſel unknown, that put into an harbour on the north-weſt coaſt of Teerawitte, a few years before our countrymen arrived in the Sound in the Endeavour.—The only method they practice as a remedy, is to give the patient the uſe of a kind of hot bath, produced by the ſteam of certain green plants placed over hot ſtones.

The New Zealanders acknowledge a Supreme Being; they believe in many inferior divinities; yet there was not a ſingle ceremony obſerved in any part of New Zealand, that could be ſuppoſed to have a religious tendency, nor did they appear to have any prieſts. Here were no places of public worſhip, like the *Morais* in other parts; but in a plantation of ſweet potatoes was ſeen a ſmall area of a ſquare figure, ſurrounded with ſtones, in the middle of which a ſharp ſtake, (which they uſe as a ſpade) was ſet up. The natives being queſtioned about it, ſaid, it was an offering to the gods, by which the owner hoped to render them propitious, and to reap a plentiful harveſt.

The manner of burying their dead could not be aſcertained. From the minuteſt enquiry, it ſeemed, that in the northern parts they buried them in the ground, and in the ſouthern, that they threw them into the ſea; the only proceſs which they uſe being to tie a ſtone to the body to cauſe it to ſink. They affect, however, to conceal every thing relating to the dead with a kind of myſterious ſecrecy. Whatever may be their forms and modes of funeral, they lament the loſs of their friends in a manner the moſt tender and affectionate.

Both men and women, upon the death of a relation or friend, bewail them with the moſt miſerable cries, at the ſame time cutting large gaſhes in their foreheads, cheeks, arms, or breaſts, with ſhells, or pieces of flint, till the blood flows copiouſly, and mixes with their tears. They alſo carve the reſemblance of a human figure, and hang it about their necks as a memorial of thoſe who were dear to them. They likewiſe perform the ceremony of lamenting and cutting for joy, at the return of a friend who has been ſome time abſent.

Captain Cook, on his laſt viſit to this country, in 1777, anchored in his old ſtation in Queen Charlotte's Sound, ſoon after which ſeveral canoes filled with natives came along-ſide the veſſels; but very few of them would venture on board, which appeared the more extraordinary as the commander was well known to them all. There was one man in particular amongſt them whom he had treated with remarkable kindneſs during his whole ſtay; yet now, neither profeſſions of friendſhip, nor preſents, could prevail upon him to come into the ſhip. This ſhyneſs was to be accounted for only upon this ſuppoſition, that they were apprehenſive of a reviſit to revenge the deaths of our countrymen on a former voyage. The commander, therefore, deemed it expedient to uſe every endeavour to aſſure them of the continuance of his friendſhip, and that he ſhould not diſturb them on that account. It ſhould ſeem that this had the deſired effect; for they ſoon laid aſide all manner of reſtraint and diſtruſt. As a proof of this, great numbers of families came from different parts of the coaſt, and took up their reſidence cloſe to the Europeans, from which they derived very conſiderable advantages, and, in particular, an ample ſupply of fiſh and vegetables.

It was remarked, upon an excurſion up the iſland, that though upon the former voyage ſeveral ſpots were planted with Engliſh garden ſeeds, not the leaſt veſtige of theſe ever remained; and it was there ſuppoſed, that they had been all rooted out to make room for buildings when theſe ſpots were re-inhabited; for at all the other gardens then planted by captain Furneaux, although now wholly over-run with the weeds of the country, were found cabbages, onions, leeks, purſlain, radiſhes, muſtard, together with a few potatoes.

When the commander, accompanied by ſeveral officers, Omai (who was then on his return to his own country) and two of the natives, proceeded about three leagues up the ſound, in order to cut graſs, &c. They viſited, on their return, Graſs Cove, the memorable ſcene of the maſſacre of their countrymen. Here the commander met with a friendly chief, called

Pedro,

Pedro, who had attended him on a former occaſion, and therefore avaling himſelf of the opportunity of enquiring into the circumſtances attending their melancholy fate, uſed Omai as interpreter: the natives anſwered all the queſtions that were put to them on the ſubject without reſerve, and like men who are under no dread of a puniſhment for a crime of which they are not guilty: for it was already known, that none of theſe had been concerned in the unhappy tranſaction.

Though the narration was in ſome degree intricate, it appeared upon the whole, that the quarrel firſt took its riſe from ſome thefts, in the commiſſion of which the natives were detected. The Europeans chaſtiſed them with blows for the offence, in reſentment of which the quarrel opened, and two New Zealanders were ſhot dead by the only two muſkets that were fired; for before our people had time to diſcharge a third, or to load again thoſe that had been fired, the natives ruſhed in upon them, overpowered them with their number, and put them all to death. Thoſe who eſcaped, beſides relating the ſtory of the maſſacre, made the party acquainted with the very ſpot that was the ſcene of it. They pointed to the place of the ſun to mark to them at what hour of the day it happened, according to which it muſt have been late in the afternoon. They alſo ſhewed the place where their boat lay, and it appeared to be about two hundred yards diſtant from that where the crew were ſeated at dinner at the time of the commiſſion of the theft of ſome bread and fiſh. They all agreed, that there was no premeditated plan of bloodſhed, and that if the theft had not been unfortunately too haſtily reſented, no miſchief would have happened.—Amongſt occaſional viſitors was a chief, named Kahoora, who ſtood charged as the head of the party that committed the maſſacre: but his greateſt enemies, at the ſame time that they ſolicited his deſtruction, exculpated him from any intention to quarrel, much leſs to kill, till the fray had actually commenced.

It appeared alſo, that the unhappy victims were under no apprehenſion of their fate, otherwiſe they would not have ventured to ſit down to a repaſt at ſo conſiderable a diſtance from their boat, amongſt people who were the next moment to be their murderers. What became of the boat could not be learnt. Some ſaid ſhe was pulled to pieces and burnt, others ſaid ſhe was carried they knew not whither by a party of ſtrangers.

The party continued here till the evening; when having loaded the reſt of the boats with graſs, celery, ſcurvy-graſs, &c. they embarked to return to the ſhips. The day following, Pedro and all his family came and took up his abode near their European viſitors. The proper name of this chief is Metahouah, the other being given him by ſome of the people during the laſt voyage, which till now was unknown to the commander. He was, however, equally well known amongſt his countrymen by both names.

At one time our people were viſited by a tribe or family, conſiſting of about thirty perſons, men, women, and children. The name of their chief was Tomaton-Geauooramec, a man of about forty-five years of age, with a cheerful, open countenance. It was remarked, indeed, that the reſt of his tribe were the handſomeſt of the New Zealand race ever met with.

By this time, great numbers of them daily frequented the ſhips and the encampment on the ſhore; but the latter became by far the moſt favourite place of reſort, while our people there were melting ſome ſeal-blubber. It appeared from obſervation, that no Greenlander was ever fonder of train-oil than the New Zealanders; for they reliſhed the very ſkimmings of the kettle and dregs of the caſks; and a little of the moſt ſtinking oil, was a delicious repaſt.

The ſhips weighing anchor, and ſtanding out of the cove, were ſeen from ſtreſs of weather under a neceſſity of coming to again, a little without the iſland of Moheara, to wait for a more favourable opportunity of putting into the ſtreight. Here three or four canoes, filled with natives, came off to the crews, and a briſk trade was carried on for the curioſities of this place. In one canoe was Kahoora, already mentioned as the leader of the party who cut off the crew of the Adventure's boat. He was pointed out to the commander by Omai, who ſolicited him to ſhoot him. Not ſatisfied with this, he addreſſed himſelf to Kahoora, threatening to be his executioner, if he ever preſumed to face our people again. The New Zealander, however, paid ſo little regard to his threats, that the very next morning he returned with his whole family, men, women, and children, to the number of twenty and upwards.

Omai then renewed his ſolicitations to the commander to kill him; and though he uſed ſeveral ſpecious arguments, they had no weight. He deſired him, however, to aſk the chief, why he had killed captain Furneaux's people? At this queſtion, Kahoora folded his arms, hung down his head, and there was every reaſon, from his appearance, to think, he expected inſtant death: but no ſooner was he aſſured of his ſafety, than he became cheerful. He did not, however, ſeem willing to anſwer the queſtions put to him, till repeatedly promiſed he ſhould not be hurt. He then ventured to give information, that one of his countrymen having brought a ſtone hatchet to barter, the man to whom it was offered, took it, and would neither return, or give any thing for it; on which the owner ſnatched up the bread as an equivalent, and then the quarrel began.

The reſt of the ſtory differed very little from what had been before related by his countrymen.

Moſt of the natives well knew that the Britiſh commander was acquainted with the hiſtory of the maſſacre, and expected it to be avenged in the death of Kahoora. Many of them indeed ſeemed not only to wiſh it, but expreſſed a ſurprize at what they deemed ſo undeſerved a forbearance. The commander profeſſes this admiration of the man's courage, in putting himſelf in his power, and of the proofs he gave of placing his whole ſafety in the declarations he had uniformly made to thoſe who ſolicited his death, "that he (the captain) had been a friend to them all, and would continue ſo, unleſs they gave him cauſe to act otherwiſe; that as to their inhuman treatment of his countrymen, he ſhould think no more of it, the tranſaction having happened long ago, and when he was not preſent; but that if ever they made a ſecond attempt of this kind, they might reſt aſſured of feeling the weight of his reſentment."

Some time before the arrival of our ſhips at New Zealand, Omai had expreſſed a deſire of taking one of the natives with him to his own country, and ſoon had an opportunity of being gratified in the ſame; for a youth about ſeventeen or eighteen years of age, named Taweihooa, offered to accompany him, and took up his reſidence on board. The commander paid little attention to this at firſt, imagining that he would go off when the ſhip was about to depart.—At length, finding that he was fixed in his reſolution, and having learnt that he was the only ſon of a deceaſed chief, and that his mother, ſtill living, was a woman much reſpected there, he was apprehenſive that Omai had deceived him and his friend, by giving them hopes and aſſurances of his being ſent back. He therefore cauſed it to be made known to them all, that if the young man went away with the ſhips, he would never return. But this declaration ſeemed to make no ſort of impreſſion. The afternoon before the ſhip left the Cove, his mother came on board to receive her laſt preſent from Omai. The ſame evening, ſhe and Taweihooa parted, with all the marks of tender affection that might be expected between a parent and a child, who were never to meet again.

But ſhe ſaid ſhe would cry no more, and indeed ſhe kept her word; for when ſhe returned the next morning to take her laſt farewel of him, all the time ſhe was on board, ſhe remained cheerful, and went away apparently unconcerned.

Another youth was to have gone with Taweihooa as his ſervant, and with this view, as was ſuppoſed, he remained on board till the ſhip was about to ſail, when his friends took him on ſhore. His place, however, was ſupplied next morning by another boy, of about nine or ten years of age, named Kokoa. He was preſented to the commander by his own father, who, it was believed, would have parted with his dog with far leſs indifference. He ſtripped the boy of the very little clothing he had, and left him as naked as he was born. It was totally in vain to endeavour to perſuade theſe people of the impoſſibility of theſe youths ever returning home. Not one, not even their neareſt relations, ſeemed to trouble themſelves about their future fate; and as this was the caſe, the commander was well ſatisfied that the boys would be no loſers by exchange of place; and he the more readily gave conſent to their going on that account.

CHAP. IV.

NEW CALEDONIA, AND ISLANDS CONTIGUOUS.

Their Situation, Vegetables, Animals, Dreſs, Dwellings, Diſpoſition, Muſical Inſtruments, and various Cuſtoms of the Natives.

CAPTAIN COOK diſcovered this iſland in 1774, and called it New Caledonia, after he had in vain endeavoured to diſcover the Indian name. Indeed, it is probable, that it was not known by one general name, as it has been repreſented as the largeſt iſland that has been diſcovered in the ſouthern Pacific Ocean, New Zealand and New Holland excepted, extending from 19 deg. 37 min. to 22 deg. 30 min. ſouth latitude, and from 163 deg. 37 min. to 167 deg. 14 min. eaſt long. In length it is computed to be 87 leagues, in the direction of north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt, but its breadth no where exceeds 10. It is ſituated about 12 deg. diſtant from New Holland.

This country is diverſified by hills and vallies of various extent. From the hills iſſue many fine ſtreams, which render the vallies both fertile and pleaſant, and but for which the whole ſpot might be called a dreary waſte, nature having been leſs bountiful to New Caledonia than to the other tropical iſlands in the South Seas. The mountains, and other high parts, are, for the general, incapable of cultivation, conſiſting chiefly of barren rocks. The iſland bears, upon the whole, a reſemblance to thoſe parts of New South Wales that are under the ſame parallel of latitude; ſeveral of its natural productions being the ſame, and the woods without underwood, as in that country.

The whole coaſt appeared ſurrounded by reefs or ſhoals, which render the acceſs to it very dangerous; though, at the ſame time, they guard it from the attacks of wind and ſea, cauſe it to abound with fiſh, and ſecure an eaſy and ſafe navigation along it for canoes. The coaſt in general ſeems to be inhabited; the plantations in the plains appear to be laid out with judgment, and cultivated with induſtry. Some of them were lying fallow, ſome ſeemed to be lately laid down, and others of longer date, parts of which they were again beginning to dig up, having previouſly ſet fire to the graſs, &c. that had over-run the ſurface. Yet though recruiting the land by letting it continue fallow for a ſeries of time, was obſerved by all the different nations in this ſea, none appeared to have any notion of manuring it. On the beach was found a large irregular maſs of rock, not leſs than a cube of ten feet, which conſiſted of a cloſe-grained ſtone, ſpeckled, full of granites, rather larger than pins heads; from whence it was conjectured, that ſome rich and uſeful mineral might be depoſited in this iſland.

There is no great variety in the vegetable ſyſtem in this country; however, ſeveral of a new ſpecies were found here, and a few young bread-fruit trees; but they ſeem to have come up without culture.—There are a few plantations of ſugar-canes, and ſome cocoa-nut trees ſmall and thinly planted. A new kind of paſſion-flower was alſo met with, which was never before known to grow wild any where but in America. Several trees called *caputi* trees, were found in flower. They had a looſe bark, which in many places burſt off from the wood, and concealed within it beetles, ants, ſpiders, lizards, and ſcorpions. This bark is ſaid to be uſed in the Eaſt-Indies, for calking ſhips. The wood of the tree is very hard, the leaves are long and narrow, of a pale, dead colour, and a fine aromatic.

A great variety of the feathered tribe, and for the moſt part entirely new, were found here, particularly a beautiful ſpecies of parrots, unknown to naturaliſts. There were alſo ducks, large tame fowls, with bright plumage, a kind of ſmall crow, tinged with blue, turtle-doves, fly-catchers, hawks, boobies, tropic birds, and others.

Turtles and fiſh are here in plenty, particularly a ſpecies of a poiſonous quality, as appeared from its effects upon ſome of our countrymen, who ate a ſmall part of the liver for ſupper. A few hours after they had retired to reſt, they were awakened by very alarming ſymptoms, being ſeized with extreme giddineſs; their hands and feet were numbed, ſo as ſcarcely to be able to crawl, and a dreadful languor took poſſeſſion of their whole frame. Emetics were adminiſtered with ſome ſucceſs; but ſudorifics proved moſt effectual. It ſeemed that the natives had not the leaſt notion of goats, ſwine, dogs, or cats, as they had not even a name for any one of them. The chief inſects are muſquetos, which abound here.

In general the natives of New Caledonia are ſtout, and well proportioned. They have good features, black hair, ſtrong and frizzled. Their principal colour is ſwarthy, or what we call mahogany. Some wear their hair long, and tie it up to the crown of their heads. Others ſuffer only a large lock to grow on each ſide, which they tie up in clubs; many of the men, as well as all the women, wear it cropped ſhort. They uſe a kind of comb made of ſticks of hard wood, from ſeven to ten inches long, and about the thickneſs of knitting-needles. A number of theſe, amounting to about twenty, are faſtened together at one end, parallel to each other, and near one-tenth of an inch aſunder: the other ends, which are a little pointed, will ſpread out or open like the ſticks of a fan. Theſe combs they wear conſtantly in their hair, on one ſide of their head. Some had a kind of ſtiff black cap, like that of an huſſar, which appeared to be a great ornament among them, and was ſuppoſed to be worn only by chiefs and warriors. The men go naked, except tying a wrapper round the middle, and another round the neck. A piece of brown cloth, which is ſometimes tucked up to the belt, and ſometimes hangs down, ſcarcely deſerves the name of a covering, and in the eyes of Europeans would appear rather obſcene than decent. This piece of cloth is ſometimes of ſuch a length, that the extremity is faſtened to a ſtring round the neck. To this ſtring they hang ſmall round beads of a pale green nephritic ſtone. Coarſe garments were ſeen among them, made of a ſort of matting; but they ſeemed never to wear them except when in their canoes, and unemployed. They ſtretch the flaps of their ears to a great length, cut out the whole cartilage

tilage or griſtle, and hang a number of tortoiſeſhell rings in them.

In New Caledonia, the women are kept at a diſtance by the men, and ſeem fearful to offend them, either by look or geſture. They were the only perſons in the family who ſeemed to have any employment, ſeveral of them bringing bundles of ſticks and fuel on their backs. Their indolent huſbands ſcarcely deigned to regard them, though they exhibited that ſocial cheerfulneſs which is the diſtinguiſhing ornament of the ſex. They carried their infants on their backs in a kind of ſatchel, and were ſeen to dig up the earth in order to plant it. Their ſtature is of the middle ſize, and their whole form rather clumſy. Their dreſs is very diſfiguring, and indeed gives them a thick, ſquat ſhape. It is a ſhort petticoat, reſembling fringe, conſiſting of filaments or little cords about eight inches long, juſt dropping below the waiſt.—Theſe filaments were ſometimes dyed black; but frequently thoſe on the outſide only were of that colour, while the reſt were of a dirty grey. They wore ſhells, ear-rings, and pieces of nephritic ſtones, like the men, and tattowed or beſmeared themſelves in three black ſtraight lines, from the under lip downwards to the chin. Their features expreſſed much good nature.

Some of the women were ſhy, and ſeemed by their motions to indicate an apprehenſion of being ſlain, if obſerved alone with a ſtranger: while others expreſſed no dread of the jealouſy of the men. They came among the crowd, and ſometimes amuſed themſelves in encouraging the propoſals of the ſailors, though they conſtantly eluded their purſuit, and heartily derided their diſappointment. It was remarkable, that during the veſſel's ſtay in the iſland, there was not a ſingle inſtance of the women permitting an indecent familiarity from an European.

The houſes or huts here are of a circular form, ſomething like a bee-hive, and full as cloſe and warm: the entrance is by a ſmall door, or long hole, juſt big enough to admit a man bent double: the roof is lofty, and brought to a point at the top; the framing is of ſmall reeds, &c. and both ſides and roof are thick and cloſe covered with thatch, made of coarſe long graſs. In the inſide of the habitation are ſet up poſts, to which coarſe ſpars are faſtened, and platforms made for the convenience of laying any thing on. In moſt of theſe huts were no fire-places, and there was no paſſage for the ſmoke but through the door; they were inſupportable to thoſe unaccuſtomed to them. The ſmoke was ſuppoſed to be deſigned to drive out the muſquetoes that ſwarm here: they commonly erect two or three of theſe huts near each other, under a cluſter of lofty fig-trees, whoſe foliage is ſo thick as to keep off the rays of the ſun. Theſe trees are deſcribed by voyagers, as ſhooting forth roots from the upper part of the ſtem, perfectly round, as if made by a turner: the bark ſeems to be the ſubſtance of which they prepare the ſmall pieces of cloth ſo remarkable in their dreſs.

Their canoes are heavy and clumſy, and made out of two large trees hollowed out, the gunnel raiſed about two inches high, and cloſed at each end with a kind of bulk head of the ſame height. Two canoes thus conſtructed, are ſecured to each other about three feet aſunder, by means of croſs ſpars, which project about a foot over each ſide; over which is laid a deck, or heavy platform, made of plank, on which they have a fire-hearth, and generally a fire burning: they are navigated by one or two ſails, extended on a ſmall yard, the end of which is fixed in a notch or hole in the deck. Their working tools are made of the ſame materials, and nearly in the manner as thoſe of the iſlands contiguous. They have no great variety of houſehold utenſils; the principal is a jar made of red clay, in which they bake their roots, and probably their fiſh.

The natives are well provided with offenſive weapons, ſuch as clubs, ſpears, darts, and ſlings for caſting ſtones: their clubs are about two feet and a half long, and of various forms; ſome like a ſcythe, others like a pick-axe; ſome have a head like a hawk, and others have knobs at the ends; but they are all neatly made, and well poliſhed. Many of their darts and ſpears are ornamented with carved work: their ſlings are as ſimple as poſſible, being no other than a ſlender round cord, no thicker than packthread, with a taſſel at one end, a loop at the other, and in the middle. They take ſome pains to form the ſtones they uſe into a proper ſhape, which is ſomething like an egg: theſe exactly fit the loop in the middle of the ſling, and are kept in a pocket of matting, tied round the waiſt for that purpoſe. They caſt the dart by the aſſiſtance of ſhort cords, knobbed at one end, and looped at the other, which the ſeamen call Beckets, and were dexterous in the uſe of them. Their ſpears are fifteen or twenty feet long, blackened over, and have a prominence near the middle, carved ſo as to bear ſome reſemblance to an human face.

The language of the inhabitants of New Caledonia bears little affinity to any of the various dialects ſpoken in the other iſlands in the South Seas, the word *areekee*, and one or two more excepted: this is the more extraordinary, as different dialects of one language were ſpoken, not only in the eaſterly iſlands, but at New Zealand: their pronunciation is indiſtinct.

Theſe people are remarkably courteous and friendly, and not in the leaſt addicted to pilfering, in which laſt reſpectable quality they ſtand alone.—They are good ſwimmers, and fond of ſinging and dancing. The only muſical inſtrument obſerved among them was a kind of whiſtle made of a poliſhed piece of brown wood, about two inches long, ſhaped like a bell, though apparently ſolid, with a rope fixed at the ſmall end: two holes were made in it near the baſe, and another near the inſertion of the rope, all which communicated with each other, and, by blowing in the uppermoſt, a ſhrill ſound like whiſtling was produced.

Many inhabitants in New Caledonia were ſeen with very thick legs and arms, which ſeemed to be affected with a kind of leproſy. The ſwelling was found to be extremely hard, but the ſkin was not alike harſh and ſcaly in all the ſick perſons. The preternatural expanſion of the leg and arm did not appear to be a great inconvenience to thoſe who ſuffered it, and they indicated, by tokens, that they felt pain in it very rarely; but in ſome the diſorder began to form blotches, which were marks of a great degree of virulence.

The method uſed by the people of New Caledonia to depoſit their dead in the ground, is more judicious and decent than that of ſome others in the South Seas, where they expoſe them above ground, till the fleſh is putrified; as the laſt-mentioned cuſtom muſt be attended with the moſt pernicious conſequences, and produce dreadful epidemical diſtempers. The grave of a chief who had been ſlain in battle here, bore reſemblance to a large mole-hill, and was decorated with ſpears, darts, &c. all ſtuck upright in the ground round about it. It appears a cuſtom univerſally prevalent with mankind, to erect a monument on the ſpot where their dead are buried.

One of the Engliſh officers was ſhewed a chief whom they called Tea-Booma, and ſtyled their *areekee*, or king; but little is known of their mode of government, and leſs of their religion. They gave the Europeans a very welcome and peaceable reception, addreſſing the commander firſt in a ſhort ſpeech, and then inviting him on ſhore; but they are indolent, and deſtitute of curioſity: the greater part of them did not remove from their ſeats when the ſtrangers paſſed them for the firſt time: they are alſo remarkably grave,

grave, ſpeak always in a ſerious tone, and laughter is hardly ever obſerved among them.

When captain Cook firſt landed in this part, he was accompanied by a native who appeared to be a man of ſome weight, and who had come on board the veſſel before ſhe came to an anchor. The natives aſſembled in great numbers on the beach, induced merely by curioſity; for many had not ſo much as a ſtick in their hands: the party were received on landing with the greateſt courteſy, and with the ſurpriſe natural for people to expreſs at ſeeing men and things ſo wonderful. The commander made preſents to all whom his companion pointed out; but on his going to give a few beads and medals to ſome women who ſtood behind the crowd, the chief held his arm, and would not ſuffer him to do it. As they proceeded up the creek, one of the party ſhot a duck, which was the firſt uſe the natives had ſeen of fire-arms: the friendly chief requeſted to have it, and when he had landed, he told his countrymen in what manner it was killed. From this excurſion, the party learned that they were to expect nothing from theſe people, but the privilege of viſiting their country undiſturbed, for they had little elſe than good nature to beſtow. In this particular, they are ſaid to have exceeded all the nations our voyagers had met with; and they obſerved, that although it did not ſatisfy the demands of nature, it at once pleaſed, and left all their minds in tranquillity.

A hatchet here was not quite ſo valuable as a ſpike nail; ſmall nails were of little or no value to them; nor did they admire beads, looking-glaſſes, &c.—Many of the natives came on board the ſhip with perfect confidence, and one of them exchanged a yam for a piece of red cloth. They admired every thing that had a red colour, particularly red cloth or baize, but did not chooſe to give any thing in exchange. Captain Cook ſent the king, Tea-Booma, a dog and a bitch, both young, but nearly full grown, which may be the means of ſtocking the country with that ſpecies of animals; and to Hebai, the friendly chief before ſpoken of, he gave a ſow and boar pig, in order to provide, if poſſible, a ſtock of domeſtic animals, for a nation whoſe inoffenſive character ſeemed highly deſerving of ſuch a preſent. To enhance their value with the Indians, and thereby induce them to be more careful of their ſtock of hogs, it was explained to them how many young ones the females would have at one time, and how ſoon this would multiply to ſome hundreds. Not one of the natives attempted to take the leaſt trifle by ſtealth, but all behaved with the ſtricteſt honeſty. Some of them ſpoke of a great land to the northward, which they called Mingha, the inhabitants of which were their enemies, and very warlike. They likewiſe pointed out a ſepulchral mount, where one of their chiefs lay buried, who had been killed, fighting in the defence of his country, by a native of this Mingha. The appearance of a large beef bone, which an officer began to pick towards the concluſion of the ſupper, interrupted this converſation.

The natives talked loudly and earneſtly to each other, looked with great ſurpriſe and ſome marks of diſguſt at the ſtrangers, and at laſt went away all together, expreſſing by ſigns, that they ſuppoſed it to be the limb of a man. The officer was very deſirous of freeing himſelf and his countrymen from this ſuſpicion, but was prevented by two inſurmountable obſtacles, want of language, and the natives having never ſeen a quadruped. At another time the Europeans were given to underſtand, by very ſignificant geſtures, that the natives had enemies who feaſted upon fleſh, which, doubtleſs, had cauſed them to impute the ſame practice to their new viſitors.—This iſland remains entirely unexplored on the ſouth ſide: its minerals and vegetables have not been touched upon; animals, it ſhould ſeem to have none, from the ignorance which the natives to the northward diſcovered of ſuch as they ſaw. The commander cauſed the following inſcription to be cut in a remarkable large and ſhady tree on the beach cloſe to a rivulet: "His Britannic Majeſty's Ship Reſolution, September 1774," to perpetuate the memory of the expedition.

The Isle of Pines, to the S. W. of New Caledonia, lies in latitude 22 deg. 40 min. ſouth, longitude 167 deg. 43 min. eaſt. This iſland, ſo far from being an inconſiderable ſpot, as ſome have believed, is not leſs than fourteen or fifteen miles over in a ſouth-eaſt and north-weſt direction: it is high, and remarkable in the middle, being quite a pointed hill, ſloping towards the extremities, which are very low; the low land had many tall pine trees upon it; theſe trees ſeemed exceedingly to ſurpaſs in length thoſe of Norfolk Iſland, but their branches did not appear to extend ſo far from the body of the tree.

Botany-Island is about two miles in circuit, entirely flat and ſandy, ſix leagues diſtant from the ſouth end of New Caledonia. This iſland was ſo called by captain Cook, from its containing in ſo ſmall a ſpace a *flora* of near 30 ſpecies, among which were ſeveral new ones. It is a ſmall iſland, wholly covered with cypreſs trees; but in the interior part it is mixed with vegetable earth, from the trees and plants which continually decay on it, without being cleared away by human induſtry.

Norfolk-Island likewiſe received its name from captain Cook, who diſcovered it in the year 1774. It is ſituated in latitude 29 deg. 0 min. ſouth, longitude 168 deg. 0 min. eaſt. It abounds, like the former, with cypreſs trees. There were ſoundings at a great diſtance in about twenty fathom, and eight leagues from the ſouth-eaſt end bottom was found at thirty and forty fathom. The rocks of this iſland conſiſt of a common yellowiſh clayey ſtone, and ſmall bits of reddiſh lava, which ſeemed to be decaying, and indicated that this iſland had been a volcano. It is but a few miles long, very ſteep, and uninhabited, and is ſuppoſed never to have had a human footſtep upon it till that time. Vegetables here thrive with great luxuriance in a rich black mould, accumulated during ages paſt from decayed trees and plants. The cypreſs and cabbage-palm flouriſh here in great perfection: the former yields timber, and the latter a moſt palatable refreſhment. The central ſhoot, or heart of this fruit, more reſembles an almond than a cabbage in taſte. Here were parrots, parroquets, pigeons, and a number of ſmall birds peculiar to the ſpot, ſome of which were very beautiful. The fiſh caught, together with the birds and vegetables, enabled the whole ſhip's company to fare ſumptuouſly for a day or two. Here is likewiſe the flax-plant, and rather more luxuriant than any where in New Zealand. It was the opinion of two eminent naturaliſts, that if this iſland was of greater extent, it would ſerve every purpoſe of eſtabliſhing an European ſettlement.

CHAP. V.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

Diſcovery, Soil, Climate, Cuſtoms and Manners of the Inhabitants.

De Quiros, in the year 1606, diſcovered the northernmoſt of theſe iſlands; they were then conſidered as a part of the ſouthern continent, which till very lately was ſuppoſed to exiſt. In 1768, they were viſited by Monſ. de Bougainville, who, beſides landing on the iſland of Lepers, did no more than diſcover

cover that the land was not connected, but compoſed of iſlands, which he called *The Great Cyclades*.

In the year 1774, captain Cook, beſides aſcertaining the extent and ſituation of theſe iſlands, added the knowledge of ſeveral in this groupe that were before unknown. He explored the whole cluſter, and thence claiming a right to affix to them a general appellation, named them THE NEW HEBRIDES. They are ſituated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 21 min. and 20 deg. 4 min. ſouth, and 170 deg. 21 min. eaſt longitude. They extend 125 leagues in the direction of N. N. W. and S. S. E. The whole cluſter conſiſts of the following iſlands, ſome of which have received names from the different European navigators; others retain the names they bore among the natives. They are as follow: Tierra del Eſpiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Iſle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitſuntide, Ambrym, Apee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montague, Hinchinbroke, Erromango, Immer, Annatom, and Tanna.

TIERRA DEL ESPIRITU is the moſt weſtern and largeſt of all the Hebrides, being twenty-two leagues long, twelve broad, and ſix in circuit. It lies in 15 deg. 20 min. ſouth latitude, and 166 deg. 50 min. eaſt longitude. The land, eſpecially to the weſt ſide, is very mountainous, and in many places the hills riſe directly from the ſea. Every part of it, except the cliffs and beaches, is covered with trees, or laid out in plantations, and every valley watered with a ſtream. On the north ſide is a very fine bay, called by De Quiros, St. Philip and St. Jago. The two points which form its entrance, lie at ten leagues diſtance from each other. Here De Quiros is ſuppoſed to have anchored, and to have given the name of Vera Cruz to the port in which his ſhips lay. He deſcribes it as capacious enough to contain 1000 ſhips with clear ſoundings. The country ſeemed fertile and populous. Two canoes with triangular ſails, came off towards the ſhip: the men were tall and ſtout, of a dark colour, and had woolly hair; they were naked; ſome of them had a bunch of feathers on the top of the head, and others wore a white ſhell tied on the forehead. On their arms they wore bracelets of ſhell work, and round their middle a narrow belt, from whence two long ſlips of matting hung down before and behind.

On the firſt day of the arrival of our navigators, no tokens of friendſhip could prevail with the natives to come near enough to hold any intercourſe; but the next morning, they ventured ſo cloſe as to receive a preſent of nails, medals, and red baize; but the nails were moſt valued. They faſtened a branch of the pepper plant to the ſame rope by which the nails had been lowered to them from the ſhip; and this was the only return they made for what had been given them. The diffidence with which they approached the veſſel, may well be accounted for, from the traditional knowledge which doubtleſs ſubſiſts among them concerning the viſit made them by De Quiros; for on his coming to an anchor, and ſending a boat from the ſhip, a chief, (as he is called in the narrative) the king, attended by ſome Indians, came to the ſtrand, and endeavoured to excite their departure by preſents of fruit; but the Spaniards leaping on the ſhore, made ſigns of peace: the natives, ſtill anxious for the departure of the ſtrangers, and the latter perſiſting in their endeavours to force their way, hoſtilities commenced between the parties: but the arrows of the one flew without effect, whilſt the fire-arms of the other laid the king and many of his followers breathleſs on the beach. This iſland, from appearance, as to vegetable productions, would have afforded the botaniſt an ample harveſt of new plants.

Mallicollo is the moſt conſiderable iſland next to Eſpiritu Santo: it is eight leagues long, and ſituated in 16 deg. 25 min. ſouth latitude, and 167 deg. 57 min. eaſt longitude. On inquiry of the natives concerning the name of this iſland, anſwer was made, that it was Mallicollo, which has the cloſeſt reſemblance poſſible to Manicollo, the name which De Quiros received for it 168 years before. He did not viſit the iſland, but had his intelligence from the natives.

When our countrymen touched at Mallicollo, they attentively examined the ſouth coaſt, and found it luxuriantly clothed with wood, and other productions of nature. They picked up an orange, which the natives call abbi-mora. This was the firſt orange that was met with in this ſea, and the only one that was ſeen here; being decayed, it cannot certainly be known whether it was fit to be eaten. The country is deſcribed as mountainous and woody, but the ſoil is rich and fertile, producing ſugar-canes, yams, cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, bananas, and turmeric. There are hogs here, and various kinds of birds; and as the frequent ſqueaking of pigs was heard in the woods, it was concluded that there were abundance of the former.

A ſhark, which meaſured nine feet in length, was caught, and afforded the crew a very palatable refreſhment. This ſhark, when cut open, was found to have the bony point of an arrow ſticking in its head, having been ſhot quite through the ſkull. The wound was healed ſo perfectly, that not the ſmalleſt veſtige of it appeared on the outſide. A piece of the wood ſtill remained ſticking to the bony point, as well as a few fibres with which it had been tied on; but both the wood and the fibres were ſo rotted, as to crumble into duſt at the touch. A large reddiſh fiſh, of the ſea-bream kind, was likewiſe caught, but it proved of very noxious quality, for all who ate of it were ſeized with violent pains in the head and bones, attended with ſcorching heat all over the ſkin, and numbneſs in the joints. It affected the hogs and dogs, who had eaten the garbage, in the higheſt degree. The opinion of naturaliſts upon the whole, was, that theſe fiſh may not always be poiſonous, but that, like many ſpecies in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, they may acquire that quality by feeding on poiſonous vegetables.

The people here are deſcribed as remarkably ugly, dark, ill-proportioned, diminutive in ſize, and in every reſpect different from the other iſlanders in the South-Seas. They have flat noſes and foreheads, woolly hair, and ſhort beards. To add to their natural deformity, they have a cuſtom of tying a belt or cord, uncommonly tight, round the waiſt, ſo that the belly ſeems in a manner divided, one part being above and the other below the rope. They wear bracelets of ſhells on the arm, a piece of white curved ſtone in the noſtrils, and on their breaſt hangs a ſhell ſuſpended by a ſtring round their necks; ſome wear tortoiſe-ſhell ear-rings, and other rings of ſhells.

The firſt natives that were ſeen upon the iſland had clubs in their hands, and waded into the water, carrying green boughs, the univerſal ſign of peace. In a day's time they ventured to come within a few yards of the ſhip's boat, which was ſent out, when they dipped their hands into the ſea, and gathering ſome water in the palms, poured it on their heads. The officers in the boat, in compliance with their example, did the ſame, with which the Indians appeared to be much pleaſed, repeating the word Tomarr, or Tomarro, continually. The greater part being now armed with bows and arrows, they ventured near the ſhip, and received and exchanged a few preſents. They continued about the ſhip, talking very loudly, but in ſuch a manner as was very entertaining. Some continued about the ſhip till midnight; finding, however, at length they were but little noticed, they returned on ſhore, where the ſound of ſinging and drums was heard all night. Theſe people ſeemed to covet whatever they ſaw, but never repined at a refuſal. They were highly delighted with the looking-glaſſes that were given them;

them; and notwithſtanding their remarkable deformity, were enraptured at viewing themſelves.

Next morning the natives came off to the veſſel in their canoes, and four or five of them went on board without any arms. They ſoon became familiar, and with the greateſt eaſe climbed up the ſhrouds to the maſt head. When they came down, the commander took them all into the cabin, and gave them preſents of various articles. They appeared the moſt intelligent of any nation that had been ſeen in the South-Seas; readily underſtood meanings conveyed by ſigns and geſtures, and ſoon taught the officers words in their language, which appeared peculiar to themſelves. When ſome of the moſt reſpectable of our countrymen went on ſhore, the natives with great good-will ſat down on the ſtump of a tree to teach them their language. They were ſurpriſed at the readineſs of their gueſts in remembering, and ſeemed to ſpend ſome time in pondering how it was poſſible to preſerve the ſound by ſuch means as pencils and paper. Nor were they leſs apt in catching the ſounds of the European languages; from whence it was juſtly remarked, that what they wanted in perſonal beauty was compenſated in acuteneſs of underſtanding.—But they expreſſed their admiration by hiſſing like a gooſe. There appeared but few women amongſt them; thoſe few, however, were no leſs ugly than the men. They were of ſmall ſtature, and their heads, faces, and ſhoulders were painted red. Some wore a kind of petticoat, others a bag made of a kind of cloth, in which they carry their children. They younger females went ſtark naked, like the males of the ſame age.

The women in general were not obſerved to have any finery in their ears, or round their necks and arms, it being faſhionable in this iſland for the men only to adorn themſelves; and as, wherever this cuſtom prevails, the other ſex is commonly oppreſſed, deſpiſed, and in a ſtate of ſervility; ſo the men here ſeemed to have no kind of regard for them; none of them came off to the ſhip, and they generally kept at a diſtance when any party landed from the boat.

The houſes, or rather huts, here are low and thatched with palm leaves. Some few are encloſed with boards, and the entrance is by a ſquare hole at one end.

Their chief weapons are bows and arrows, and a club about two feet and a half in length, made of hard wood, commonly knobbed at one end, and well poliſhed. This weapon they hang on their right ſhoulder from a thick rope made of a kind of graſs. Their arrows are compoſed of a kind of reed made of hard wood or bone, ſuppoſed to be poiſoned. They are very careful of them, and keep them in a ſort of quiver made of leaves.

As theſe people apply themſelves to huſbandry, their food ſeems to be principally vegetables; though as fowls and hogs are bred, theſe may conſtitute a part of their ſubſiſtence, as well as that derived from the ocean. Their canoes were ſmall, not exceeding two feet in width, of indifferent workmanſhip, and without ornament, but provided with an out-rigger.

One of the lateſt navigators gave the following relation, which we cite as an indication of the genius and diſpoſition of theſe people. "When the natives ſaw us under ſail for our departure from the iſland, they came off in canoes, making exchanges with more confidence than before, and giving ſuch extraordinary proofs of their honeſty as ſurprized us. As the veſſel at firſt had freſh way through the water, ſeveral of the canoes dropped aſtern after they received goods, and before they had time to deliver theirs in return. Inſtead of taking advantage of this, they uſed their utmoſt efforts to get up with us and deliver what they had already been paid for. One man in particular followed us a conſiderable time, and did not reach us till it was calm, and the thing was forgotten. As ſoon as he came alongſide he held up the article, which ſeveral on board were ready to buy; but he refuſed to part with it, till he ſaw the perſon to whom he had before ſold it, and to whom he gave it. The perſon, not knowing the man again, offered him ſomething in return, which he refuſed; and ſhewing him what had been given before, made us ſenſible of the nice ſenſe of honour which had actuated this Indian."

St. Bartholomew-Iſland was ſo called by Captain Cook, from its having been diſcovered on St. Bartholomew's day. It is between ſix and ſeven leagues in circumference, and ſituated in lat. 15 deg. 23 min. ſouth.

The Iſle of Lepers received its denomination from the number of people afflicted with the leproſy that were ſeen upon it. This iſle lies between Eſpiritu Santo and Aurora-Iſland, eight leagues from the former, and three from the latter, in latitude 15 deg. 22 min. ſouth. It is of an oval figure, very high, and 18 or 20 leagues in circuit. Many beautiful caſcades of water were ſeen pouring down from the hills. Here the palms grow on the hills. The natives are of two colours; their lips are thick, their hair woolly, and ſometimes of a yellowiſh caſt. They are ſhort, ugly, and ill proportioned, and moſt of them infected with the leproſy. The women are no leſs diſguſting than the men; they go almoſt naked; they have bandages to carry their children on their backs. In the cloth of which theſe bandages are made, are very pretty drawings of a fine crimſon colour.

None of theſe men have beards: they pierce the noſe in order to fix ſome ornament to it: they likewiſe wear on the arm, in form of a bracelet, a tooth, of a ſubſtance like ivory; on the neck they have pieces of tortoiſe-ſhell. Their arms are bows and arrows, clubs of hard wood, and ſtones, which they uſe without ſlings. The arrows are reeds armed with a long and very ſharp point made of bone. Some of theſe points are formed in ſuch a manner as to prevent the arrows being drawn out of a wound.

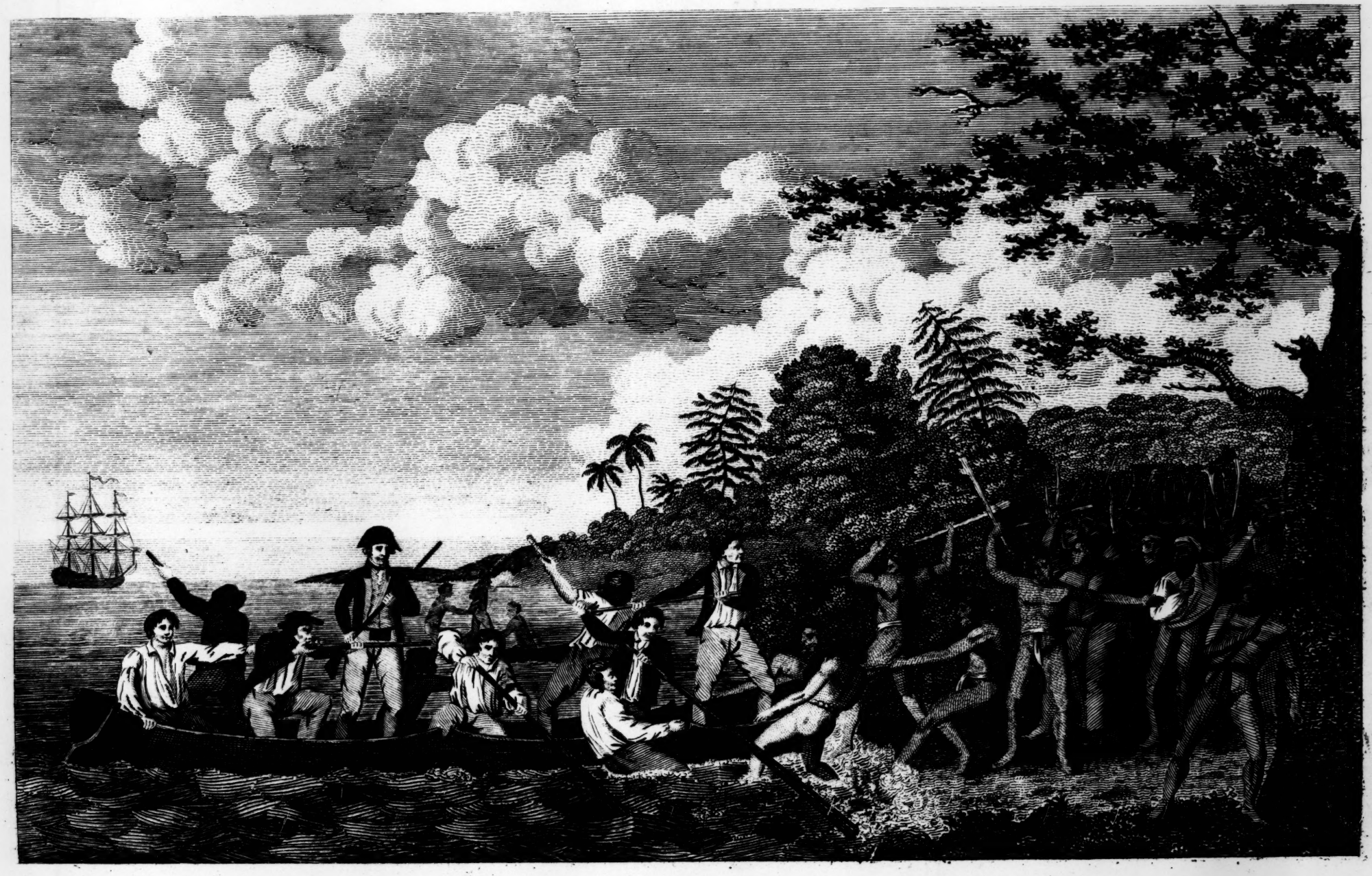
The natives appeared to be very friendly to M de Bougainville, when he touched here in 1768, until all the men were embarked; but then they ſent a flight of arrows after them; which aſſault, although it was attended with no bad conſequences, was revenged by diſcharging a volley of muſketry, which killed ſeveral of the natives. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at, that when captain Cook appeared off their coaſt, the natives ſhould be ſo ſhy of any intercourſe with ſtrangers. Two or three natives put off in a canoe; but no tokens of friendſhip could induce them to come near the ſhip.

In Aurora-Iſland inhabitants were diſcovered, and ſome canoes; but none came off to the ſhip. A fine beach and moſt luxuriant vegetation preſented themſelves. The whole country was woody, and a beautiful caſcade poured through a foreſt. The iſland is about twelve leagues long, but not above five miles broad in any part, lying nearly north and ſouth. A channel divides this iſland from

Whit-Sunday-Iſle, which lies, as was computed, about four miles to the ſouth, runs in the ſame direction, and is of the ſame length, having more ſloping expoſures than Aurora; it appears to be better inhabited, and to contain more plantations.

Ambrym is about 17 leagues in circuit, and two leagues and a half from the ſouth end of Whit-Sunday-Iſle. Its ſhores are rather low, but the land riſes with an unequal aſcent to an high mountain in the middle of the iſland, which gave occaſion to ſuppoſe that a volcano was ſeated there.

Apee, diſtant from Ambrym about five leagues, is not leſs than twenty leagues in circuit. Its longeſt direction is about eight leagues north weſt and ſouth eaſt.



THE FORTUNATE ESCAPE of CAPT.N COOK, from the FURIOUS NATIVES of ERRAMANGO.

eaſt. It is of conſiderable height, and richly diverſified with woods and lawns.

Sandwich-Iſle, which, in compliment to lord Sandwich, is ſo called, is 10 leagues long and 25 in circuit. It exhibits a delightful view, the hills gently ſloping to the ſea. Several ſmall iſlands lay diſpoſed about here, to which captain Cook gave the names of the Shepherd's-Iſlands, Three Hills, Two Hills, The Monument, Montague, and Hinchinbrook.

Erromango lies 18 leagues from Sandwich-Iſland, and is between 24 and 25 leagues in circuit. The middle of it lies in 18 deg. 54 min. ſouth latitude. The natives of this iſland ſeem to be of a different race from thoſe of Mallicollo, and ſpeak a different language. They are of the middle ſize, have a good ſhape and tolerable features. Their colour is very dark, and they paint their faces, ſome with black, and others with red pigment; their hair is very curly and criſp, and in ſome degree woolly. But few women were ſeen, and thoſe very ugly; they wore a petticoat made of the leaves of ſome plant. The men were in a manner naked, having only the belt about the waiſt, and a piece of cloth or leaf uſed for a wrapper. No canoes were ſeen in any part of the iſland They live in houſes covered with thatch, and their plantations are laid out by line, and fenced round.

Captain Cook went on ſhore here with two boats. He preſented ſome of the natives with medals and cloth, and received every token of amity in return. Making ſigns that he wanted water, one of them ran to a hovel at a ſmall diſtance, and preſently returned with a little in a bamboo. On aſking for ſomething to eat, he was as readily preſented with a yam and ſome cocoa nuts. During this time the whole groupe were armed with clubs, ſpears, darts, bows, and arrows, which excited ſome ſuſpicion, and led captain Cook to cut ſhort his viſit, telling the chief, by ſigns, that he ſhould ſoon return. Seeing their gueſts about to depart, they endeavoured to haul that boat on ſhore, which had the commander on board, whilſt others ſnatched the oars out of the people's hands. At the head of this party was the chief. Thoſe who could not come at the boat, ſtood behind, armed with weapons, ready to ſupport thoſe that were moſt forward. Signs and threats having no effect on theſe people, perſonal ſafety became the only conſideration; but in this emergency the Britiſh commander was unwilling to fire among the crowd, and reſolved to make the chief alone fall a victim to his own treachery. His muſket, at that critical moment, miſſed fire, which could not fail of giving the natives a very mean opinion of the weapons that were oppoſed to them. They determined, therefore to ſhew how much more effectual theirs were, by throwing ſtones and darts, and ſhooting arrows. This being the caſe, a general diſcharge of fire-arms could no longer be avoided. It threw them into confuſion; but a ſecond was hardly ſufficient to drive them off the beach. Four lay to all appearance dead on the ſhore; but two of them afterwards crawled into the buſhes. Not half of the muſkets would go off, which ſaved the lives of many of theſe poor miſtaken wretches. One of the men in the boat was wounded in the cheek with a dart; an arrow ſtruck the maſter on the breaſt, but as its force was ſpent it hardly penetrated the ſkin. The report of the muſkets on ſhore alarmed thoſe in the ſhip, and another boat was immediately ſent off, and a ſwivel, that fired to the part where a number of the natives were aſſembled, and a great gun fired towards the hills, which ſtruck them with a panic, and they all haſtened to ſkreen themſelves in the buſhes. With this unhappy ſkirmiſh all intercourſe ended.

Inmer is the moſt eaſtern iſland of all the Hebrides. It appeared to be about five leagues in circuit, of a conſiderable height, and flattiſh top.

Annatom is the ſouthernmoſt iſland, ſituated in latitude 20 deg. 3 min. ſouth; longitude 170 deg. 4 min. eaſt.

Six leagues on the ſouth ſide of Erromango is Tanna. It is about eight leagues long, three or four broad, and twenty-four in circuit. Its latitude is 19 deg. 30 min. ſouth, and longitude 169 deg. 38 min. Its name ſignifies *earth* in the Malay language.—The ſoil in ſome places was found to be a rich black mould; in other parts it ſeemed to be compoſed of decayed vegetables and the aſhes of a volcano, which was ſeen about eleven miles to the weſtward of the veſſel burning with great fury. The country is in general ſo covered with trees, ſhrubs, and plants, as to choke up the bread fruit and cocoa nuts; but it is not populous, nor the houſes conſequently numerous.

The volcano emitted at different times vaſt quantities of fire and ſmoke for ſixteen days, accompanied with an exploſion about once in five minutes. Some of theſe exploſions reſembled violent claps of thunder: the whole air was filled with ſmoaky particles and aſhes, which occaſioned much pain when they fell into the eye: at one time great ſtones were ſeen thrown up into the air, ſome of which were at leaſt as large as the hull of a ſhip's long boat. It firſt preſented a moſt magnificent ſight. The ſmoke, which rolled up from time to time, in thick and heavy volumes, was coloured with all the various hues of yellow, orange, crimſon, and purple, which died away into a reddiſh grey and brown. As often as a new exploſion happened, the whole country, with its ſhaggy foreſts, were tinged with the ſame orange and purple, according to its diſtance, or particular expoſure to volcanic light. It ſometimes continued quite ſilent for five or ſix days together. It was remarked, that the exploſions of the volcanos recommenced after a ſhower of rain, ſo that it ſhould ſeem that rain excites them, by promoting or increaſing the fermentation of various mineral ſubſtances in the mountain. The black aſhes with which the whole country was ſtrewed, were found to be long, needle-like, and ſemi-tranſparent, and to contribute greatly to that luxuriance of vegetation which is remarkable on this iſland; many plants here attaining twice the height which they reach in other countries; their leaves are broader, their flowers larger and more richly ſcented.

Some new plants were collected here, and a variety of odoriferous ſhrubs, and ſome others were cultivated only for their elegant appearance. The plantations on this iſland conſiſt for the moſt part of yams, bananas, eddoes, and ſugar-canes, all which being very low, permit the eye to take in a great extent of country. Here are great numbers of fig-trees, which the natives cultivate for the ſake of the fruit and leaves. They are of two or three different kinds, and one ſort in particular bears figs of the common ſize, which are wholly like peaches on the outſide, and have a beautiful crimſon pulp like pomegranates; they are ſweetiſh and juicy, but rather inſipid.

Several ſmall birds were obſerved here with a very beautiful plumage, and of a kind that had not been ſeen before. The natives were ſeen to have no methods of catching fiſh, but by ſtriking; it is probable that they draw but little of their ſubſiſtence from the water. Upwards of three hundred pounds weight of mullet, and other fiſh, were caught by three hauls with the ſeine.

A young native was ſhewn every part of the ſhip, but nothing fixed his attention a moment, or cauſed in him the leaſt ſurpriſe. He had no knowledge of goats, dogs, or cats, calling them all hogs (booga). The commander made him a preſent of a dog and a bitch, as he ſhewed a liking to that kind of animal. They appear to have plenty of hogs, but very few domeſtic fowls. Some rats of the ſame kind as is common on the other iſlands in the Pacific Ocean, frequent the fields of ſugar-cane, in which they make great

great depredations; the natives, therefore, dig ſeveral holes all round theſe plantations, in which they catch theſe animals.

The natives of this iſland are of a middle ſize, and tolerably proportioned. Their colour is a dark cheſnut brown, with a very ſwarthy mixture. They go naked, having only a ſtring round the belly, which did not, however, cut the body in ſo ſhocking a manner as that in the iſland of Mallicollo. Their hair is generally black or brown, growing to a tolerable length, and very criſp and curly. Their beards, which are ſtrong and buſhy, are generally ſhort. The women wear their hair cropped, as do the boys till they approach manhood. They make uſe of a cylindrical piece of alabaſter two inches long, which they wear in the cartilaginous part between the noſtrils, as a noſe-jewel. Not one ſingle corpulent man was ſeen here; all are active and full of ſpirits. Their features are large, the noſes broad; but the eyes full, and in general agreeable. They make inciſions chiefly on the upper arm and belly, which are inſtead of punctures; they cut the fleſh with a bamboo or ſharp ſhell, and apply a particular plant, which forms an elevated ſcar on the ſurface of the ſkin after it is healed. Theſe ſcars are formed to repreſent flowers and other fancied figures, which are deemed a great beauty by the natives. Moſt of them have an open, manly, aud good-natured air, though ſome were ſeen as in other nations, whoſe countenances indicated malevolence.

Though, like all the tropical nations, the people are active and nimble, they were not fond of labour, nor would ever aſſiſt in any work that the ſhip's company was carrying on, which the Indians of the other iſlands uſed to delight in. They throw all the laborious drudgery on the women; from which occaſion was taken to remark, that though they were not beauties, they were handſome enough for the men, and too handſome for the uſe that was made of them. Their ears are hung full of tortoiſe-ſhell rings, and necklaces of ſhells fall on their boſoms. Some of the elderly women had caps made of a green plantain leaf, or of matted work; but this head dreſs was rather uncommon. The number of ornaments conſiderably increaſed with age, the oldeſt and uglieſt being loaded with necklaces, ear-rings, noſe-jewels, and bracelets. The women here are expert cooks; they roaſt and boil the yams and bananas, they ſtew the green leaves of a kind of fig, they bake puddings made of a paſte of bananas and eddoes, containing a mixture of cocoa-nut kernel and leaves.

The people of Tanna, with reſpect to their domeſtic life, are rather of a ſerious turn, yet are not wholly deſtitute of amuſements, and their muſic is in greater perfection than any in the South-Seas. Their European viſitants gave them a variety of airs, in return for which, the natives ſang ſeveral times very harmoniouſly. They likewiſe produced a muſical inſtrument, which conſiſted of eight reeds, regularly decreaſing in ſize, and comprehending an octave, though the ſingle reeds were not perfectly in tune.

Their houſes are like the roof of a thatched houſe in England, taken off the walls, and placed on the ground. Some were open at both ends, others cloſed with reeds, and all were covered with a palm thatch. A few of them were thirty or forty feet long, and fourteen or ſixteen broad. Beſides theſe, they have other mean hovels, which were ſuppoſed to be deſigned only to ſleep in.

In point of neatneſs, their weapons come far ſhort of ſome that were ſeen in other iſlands. They are clubs, ſpears or darts, bows and arrows, and ſtones. The clubs are of three or four kinds, and from three to five feet long. They ſeem to place moſt dependence on the darts, with which they kill both birds and fiſh, and are ſure of hitting a mark within the compaſs of the crown of a hat, at the diſtance of eighteen yards; but at double that diſtance, it is a chance if they hit a mark the ſize of a man's body, though they will throw the weapon ſixty or ſeventy yards. The arrows are made of reeds pointed with hard wood; ſome are bearded, and ſome are not, and thoſe for ſhooting birds have two, three, and ſometimes four points. The ſtones they uſe in general are the branches of coral rocks, from eight to fourteen inches long, and from an inch to an inch and a half diameter. Thoſe who uſe ſtones keep them generally in their belts.

Their canoes can boaſt neither art or ornament; all of them have out-riggings, and ſome may contain twenty people. Their ſails are low triangular mats, of which the broadeſt part is uppermoſt, and the ſharp angle below. A long piece of timber, hollowed out in the middle, forms the bottom of the canoe, and upon this one or two planks are fixed, forming the two ſides, by means of ropes of the cocoa-nut fibres. Their oars are ill ſhaped, and very clumſily made.

Added to the common language of the land, and a dialect of the neighbouring iſlands, ſome words were collected of a third language, which was chiefly current among the inhabitants of the weſtern hills. Some of our intelligent voyagers, on comparing their vocabularies, to diſcover that two different words were uſed to ſignify the ſky, applied to one of the natives to know which of the expreſſions was right. He immediately held out one hand and applied it to one of the words; then moving the other hand under it, he pronounced the ſecond word, intimating, that the upper was properly the ſky, and the lower, clouds that moved under it.

No other liquor was ſeen here than water and the cocoa-nut juice. They ſignified, in the moſt pointed manner, to our countrymen, that they eat human fleſh, and that circumciſion was practiſed among them. Nay, they introduced the ſubject of eating human fleſh, by aſking our people, if it was a practice among them. They appeared to have ſome nominal chief, with very little authority. One old chief was ſaid to be the king of the iſland. His name was Geogy, and they gave him the title of Areekee. Notwithſtanding his advanced years, he had a merry, open countenance.

No information could be derived reſpecting the religion of theſe people, only every morning at daybreak was heard a ſlow ſolemn ſong or dirge, ſung on the eaſtern ſide of the harbour, which laſted more than a quarter of an hour. As this was ſuppoſed to be a religious act, the curioſity of our navigators was excited to enquire farther concerning it. But when they attempted to paſs that way, the natives crowded about them, and intreated them with the greateſt earneſtneſs to return. As they ſtill ſeemed to perſiſt, they were at length given to underſtand, that if they remained obſtinate in their attempt, they would be killed and eaten. They now turned off towards a hut about fifty yards diſtant, where the ground began to riſe, on which ſeveral of the Indians took up arms out of the hut, apparently meaning to force them to return back. Unwilling, therefore, to give offence, our people checked their curioſity, and were content to leave this point undetermined. Nothing, however, was ſeen in the general behaviour of theſe people that bore any reſemblance to a religious act, nor any thing that could be conſtrued into ſuperſtition.

When the boat firſt went on ſhore, the natives were drawn up in great numbers on the beach, armed with clubs, darts, ſpears, ſlings, and ſtones. From this hoſtile appearance, the Britiſh commander was induced to re-embark ſpeedily to prevent diſagreeable conſequences. In order to terrify without hurting them, he ordered a muſket to be fired over their heads, but the alarm was only momentary, as the natives inſtantly recovered themſelves, and began to diſplay their weapons. A few great guns, however, being fired from the ſhip, they all diſperſed, leaving

leaving the beach free for a ſecond debarkation. The commander having marked out boundaries on the ſhore with a line, the natives came gradually forward, ſome unarmed.

An old man, named Paowang, ſhewed a very friendly diſpoſition in forwarding an intercourſe between the commander and the natives. Such was the honeſty of this old man, that he brought an axe which had been left by the ſhip's company upon the beach. They were extremely jealous of any one going up the country, or even along the ſhore of the harbour, a diſpoſition that greatly obſtructed the naturaliſts in their attempts to explore.

As the carrying of bundles is the office of the women in this country, the natives imagined that thoſe from the ſhip who carried loads were females. A man who carried a bag which contained the plants ſelected by the naturaliſts, was followed by ſome of them, who, by their converſation, which was overheard, conſidered him as a woman, until by ſome means they diſcovered their miſtake, on which they cried out, *Erromange! erromange!* It is a man! it is a man!

A tillar to the rudder being wanted, the carpenter was ſent on ſhore to look at a tree for the purpoſe, and with him an officer with a party of men to cut it down, provided leave could be obtained of the natives. The officer underſtanding that there was no objection, the people accordingly went to work; but as the tree was large, the felling of it was a work of time, and before it was down, word was brought that *Paowang* was not pleaſed: orders were therefore ſent from on board to deſiſt. The commander ſoon after went on ſhore, and ſending for *Paowang*, preſented him with a dog and a piece of cloth, and then explained to him the purpoſe for which the tree was wanted. All the natives preſent diſcovered great ſatisfaction at the means that were uſed to obtain the grant of the tree, and unanimouſly conſented to its being felled.

But many were afraid to touch the preſents that were offered them, nor did they ſeem to have any notion of exchanging one thing for another. But few refreſhments were obtained on this iſland; ſome fruit or roots were daily procured from the natives, though greatly inadequate to the demands of the ſhip's company.

As the natives had no knowledge of iron, nails, iron tools, beads, &c. which were ſo current in other parts, they were of no value here, nor was cloth of any uſe in a country where the inhabitants went moſtly naked. The only commodity they ſeemed deſirous of obtaining was tortoiſe-ſhell; but as no demand was expected for ſuch an article, there were only a few ſmall pieces remaining in the ſhip, which had been purchaſed at another iſland. The ſailors, however, notwithſtanding the loathſomeneſs of ſalt proviſions of long ſtanding, had not a ſingle provident thought for the future, but exchanged their tortoiſe-ſhell for bows and arrows, inſtead of furniſhing themſelves with a ſtock of yams.

A party from the ſhip paſſing through a ſhrubbery, obſerved a man at work cutting ſticks, and ſeeing him make a very ſlow progreſs with his hatchet, which was only a bit of ſhell in lieu of a blade, they ſet about helping him with an iron hatchet, and in a few minutes cut a much greater heap than he had done the whole day. Several Indians, who were witneſſes to this diſpatch, expreſſed the greateſt aſtoniſhment at the utility of this tool, and ſome were very deſirous of poſſeſſing it, by offering their bows and arrows for it. This was conſidered as a favourable opportunity for procuring hogs; but they were deaf to every propoſal of that kind, and never exchanged a ſingle hog; one pig only was obtained as a preſent to the commander from *Paowang*.

There being great reaſon to ſuppoſe that the inhabitants of Tanna are haraſſed by frequent wars; the diſtruſt which they expreſſed on the firſt debarkation from the ſhips is not ſurpriſing. But as ſoon as they were aſſured of the pacific diſpoſition of their new viſitants, all ſuſpicions entirely ſubſided. They did not trade, indeed, becauſe they had not the means in proportion to the other iſlanders; but they were as aſſiduous in offering their ſervices, and from leſs intereſted motives. If any of the botaniſts had procured a plant, of which he was deſirous of having other ſpecimens, he had only to ſignify it to ſome natives, who would immediately haſten to the ſpot where it was to be found, and bring it with the moſt engaging alacrity. The civility of the natives was conſpicuous in this particular inſtance. If they met any officer or gentleman of the ſhip in a narrow path, they always ſtepped aſide, in order to make way. If they happened to know their names, they pronounced them with a ſmile, which could be extremely well underſtood as a ſalutation. If they had not ſeen them before, they commonly enquired their names, in order to know them again. They have the ſame engaging manner of expreſſing their friendſhip by a mutual exchange of names, as is common in the moſt eaſtern iſlands of this ſea.

CHAP. VI.

THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

Diſcovery, Number, Situation, Soil, Productions, Extent, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants.

THESE iſlands form a cluſter extending about three deg. of latitude and two of longitude. The principal are Middleburg, Rotterdam, or Anamooka, Hapaee, Amſterdam, or Tongataboo, and Pylſtart, ſo denominated by Taſman; there are alſo others which have been ſeen and viſited by more modern navigators. We ſhall attend to them ſeverally in their reſpective order.

Middleburg, called by the natives Eooa.

This iſland forms a very beautiful landſcape. Its ſkirts are in general laid out in plantations, eſpecially thoſe on the north-weſt and ſouth-weſt ſides. The interior parts are not, indeed, ſo well cultivated as they might be, but this heightens the proſpect; for while the other iſles of this cluſter are level, the eye can diſcover nothing but the trees that cover them; here the land riſing gradually upwards preſents an extenſive view, where groves of trees are only interſperſed at irregular diſtances, in a kind of beautiful diſorder. It is ſhaded near the ſhore with various trees, amongſt which are the habitations of the natives, laid out in ſuch order as convenience requires, and they may boaſt a moſt delightful ſituation. About half way up the iſland is a deep valley, the bottom and ſides of which, though compoſed of hardly any thing but coral rock, are clothed with trees. The ſoil in general is reddiſh clay, which in many places ſeems to be very deep.

On the moſt elevated part of the iſland is a round platform or mount of earth, ſupported by a wall of coral ſtones, to bring which to ſuch an height muſt have coſt much labour. This mount, called by the natives *Etchee*, is ſaid to have been erected by order of one of their chiefs. Not many paces from this, though on a former voyage, complaint was made of a dearth of water; on the laſt was found an excellent ſpring, and about a mile lower down a running ſtream, which, it is ſaid, found its way to the ſea, when the rains were copious. It appeared from information, that all or moſt of the land in this iſland belonged to the great chiefs of Amſterdam or Tongataboo, and

that the inhabitants were only tenants or vaſſals to them. This, indeed, is repreſented to be the caſe at all the other neighbouring iſles, except Rotterdam or Anamooka, where there are ſome chiefs who ſeem to act with a degree of independence.

Yams, with other roots, bananas, and bread-fruit, are the principal articles of food here; but the latter appeared to be ſcarce. The pepper tree, or *ava ava*, of which they make a favourite intoxicating liquor, alſo grows here. There are many odoriferous trees and ſhrubs, and one in particular of the lemon ſpecies; naturaliſts likewiſe met with divers new kinds of plants. The *caſuaria*, or club-wood, as in ſome neighbouring iſlands, points out alſo to the repoſitories of their dead. The ſhaddock, and ſeveral other trees are found upon the iſland.

The common complexion of the natives is mahogany or cheſnut brown, with black hair. Some are of an olive colour, and ſome of the women much fairer, which may be the effect of being more or leſs expoſed to the ſun. The men in general are of the middle ſtature; though ſome meaſured ſix feet.—Their bodies are well proportioned, though muſcular, which ſeems a conſequence of much exerciſe. Their features are various, nor are they characteriſed by any general likeneſs, unleſs it be a fullneſs at the point of the noſe, which is very common. The women in general are not ſo tall as the men; their bodies and limbs are well proportioned, and what peculiarly diſtinguiſhes them is the uncommon ſmallneſs and delicacy of their fingers, which may be put in competition with the fineſt in any part of the world.

Puncturing or tattowing the ſkin is in full faſhion amongſt the men here; on the tendereſt part of the body are marked configurated ſcars, which muſt be very painful as well as dangerous. The chiefs are exempted from this cuſtom. The dreſs of both men and women is much the ſame, and conſiſts of a piece of cloth or matting (though moſtly the former) about two yards wide, and two and an half long, ſo as to wrap in great abundance round the waiſt, to which it is confined by a girdle or cord. Before it is double, and hangs down like a petticoat as low as the middle of the leg. This, as to form, is the general dreſs; but large pieces of cloth and fine matting are worn only by thoſe of ſuperior rank. The inferior claſs are ſatisfied with ſmall pieces, and often wear nothing but a covering made of leaves of plants, or the *maro*, which is a narrow piece of cloth or matting like a ſaſh. This they paſs between the thighs and wrap round the waiſt, but the uſe of it is chiefly confined to the men. They have various dreſſes made for the purpoſe of their haivas or grand entertainments; but the form is always the ſame; the richeſt are adorned more or leſs with red feathers. Both ſexes ſometimes ſcreen their faces from the ſun with little bonnets made of divers materials.

The ſexes differ as little in their ornaments as their clothing. Of theſe the moſt common are necklaces made of various ſweet ſcented flowers, which go under the general name of *Kahulla*. Others conſiſt of ſeveral ſtrings of ſmall ſhells, ſharks teeth, and other things, which hang looſe upon the breaſt. In the ſame manner they likewiſe wear a mother of pearl ſhell, neatly poliſhed, and a ring of the ſame ſubſtance carved, on the upper part of the arm, as alſo rings of tortoiſeſhell on the fingers, and a number of theſe joined together as bracelets on the wriſts. The lobes of the ears are perforated with two holes, in which they wear cylindrical pieces of ivory, ſtuck through both ſides the holes. Some uſe reeds filled with a yellow pigment. This ſeems to be a fine powder of turmeric, with which the women rub themſelves all over in the ſame manner as the European females uſe dry rouge upon their cheeks.

What particularly characterizes theſe people, and was remarked by Taſman, is, that moſt of them want the little finger on one, and ſometimes on both hands; nor did the difference of age or ſex exempt from this amputation, for the very children were obſerved to have ſuffered that loſs. They had alſo a round ſpot on each cheek bone, which appeared to have been burned or bliſtered, on ſome it ſeemed to have been recently made, on others it was covered with ſcurf, and the mark was ſlight; but the purport of it could not be diſcovered. The women in general here are repreſented as modeſt and reſerved in their behaviour, though, as in all other iſlands, there were ſome exceptions.

The natives of theſe iſlands are much commended by voyagers for their cleanlineſs, to produce which they are ſaid to bathe frequently in ponds which ſeem to ſerve no other purpoſe. Though the water in moſt of them is nauſeous to a degree, they prefer them to that of the ſea, imagining, that ſalt water hurts their ſkins. When neceſſity obliges them to bathe in the ſea, they commonly have ſome cocoa-nut ſhells filled with freſh water poured over them, to waſh it off. The cocoa-nut oil has an admirable effect on the ſkin in rendering it ſmooth: for which theſe people hold it in ſuch eſtimation, that they not only pour a great quantity of it upon their heads and ſhoulders, but rub the body all over briſkly with a ſmaller quantity. The language here is ſoft and not unpleaſing, and whatever they ſay is ſpoken in a kind of ſinging tone.

In building their houſes, they do not diſcover much taſte or ingenuity; though the defect is rather in the deſign than the execution. Thoſe of the lower people are poor huts, thoſe of the better are larger and more comfortable. Their houſes, properly ſpeaking, are thatched roofs or ſheds ſupported by poſts and rafters diſpoſed in a tolerably judicious manner. The floor is a little raiſed, covered with ſtrong thick matting, and kept very clean. They are moſtly cloſed on the weather ſide with the ſame ſort of matting, the other being open. A thick ſtrong mat, of two or three feet broad, bent into the form of a ſemicircle and ſet upon its edge, with the ends touching the ſide of the houſe, in ſhape reſembling the fender of a fire hearth, encloſes a ſpace for the maſter and miſtreſs of the family to ſleep in. The latter indeed ſpends moſt of her time during the day within it. The reſt of the family ſleep upon the floor wherever they pleaſe to lie down, the unmarried men and women apart from each other. If the family be large, there are ſmall huts adjoining, to which the ſervants retire in the night, ſo that privacy is as much obſerved here as can be expected. They have mats made on purpoſe for ſleeping on, and the clothes they wear in the day ſerve for their covering in the night. Their houſehold furniture conſiſts of ſome bowls and platters, cocoa-nut ſhells, ſome ſmall wooden ſtools which ſerve them for pillows, and perhaps a large ſtool for the maſter of the family to ſit on.

Clubs, ſpears, bows, and arrows, are their weapons. The former are of a great variety of ſhapes, and many of them ſo heavy as not to be managed with one hand, but with difficulty. The moſt common form is quadrangular. The far greater part were carved all over in many chequered patterns, which ſeemed to have required great patience and a long time to work up, as a ſharp ſtone or piece of coral are the only tools made uſe of. The whole ſurface of the plain clubs was as highly poliſhed, as if furniſhed by an European artiſt with the beſt inſtruments. Their ſpears are ſometimes plain ſharp-pointed ſticks, and ſometimes barbed. Their bows and arrows are of a peculiar conſtruction. The former, which is about ſix feet long, is about the ſize of a little finger, and when ſlack forms a ſlight curve: the convex part is channelled with a ſingle deep groove in which the bow-ſtring is lodged. The arrow is made of reed near ſix feet long, and pointed with hard wood. When the bow is to be bent, inſtead of drawing it ſo as to increaſe the natural curve, they draw it the contrary

way,

way, make it perfectly ſtraight, and then form the curve on the other ſide.

There is much ingenuity diſplayed in the conſtruction of their canoes. They have out-riggers made of poles, and their workmanſhip is admirable. Two of theſe are joined together with ſurpriſing exactneſs, and the ſurface is poliſhed in a very curious manner. Their paddles have ſhort blades, and are very neatly wrought.

A circumſtance occurred in this place which afforded an opportunity of obſerving how theſe people treat conjugal infidelity. Some of our people, on their return from an excurſion, being informed that a party of the natives had ſtruck one of their own countrymen with a club, which laid bare, or, as others ſaid, fractured his ſkull, and then broke his thigh with the ſame, enquired the reaſon of ſuch treatment, and were given to underſtand that he had been diſcovered in a ſituation rather indelicate with a woman that was *tabood*, that is, forbidden. But the female delinquent had by far the ſmaller ſhare of puniſhment; as our people were told, ſhe would only receive a ſlight beating for her miſdemeanour.

When our navigators firſt viſited this iſland, they obſerved, that ſeveral of both ſexes were affected with leprous diſorders in the moſt virulent degree, in various parts of their bodies. The face of one woman was corroded by the acrid humours, ſo as to exhibit a moſt horrid ſpectacle. Many others were likewiſe ſo diſfigured by the diſorder, that they could not be beheld without a mixture of diſguſt and pity.

The amicable diſpoſition of theſe people is fully evinced from the friendly reception all ſtrangers have met with who have viſited them. When captain Cook firſt anchored on the W. N. W. ſide of this iſland, two canoes with ſeveral men in each, came along-ſide the ſhip; one of them on board, without the leaſt heſitation, preſented a root of the pepper tree, touched the noſes of the officers with his own, in token of friendſhip, and then ſat down on the deck without ſpeaking a word. The native was preſented with a nail, which, on receiving, according to the general cuſtom of the iſland, he held over his head, pronouncing the word *fagafetai* or *fagafatie*. This was moſt probably meant as an expreſſion of his thankfulneſs.

No people could give greater proof of liberality of diſpoſiton, for they came in great numbers about our veſſels, threw bales of cloth into them, and retired without ſo much as waiting for a return. As an inſtance of their hoſpitality, captain Cook, with ſeveral officers and gentlemen, were conducted, on their landing, by a chief, named Tioony, to his manſion, delightfully ſituated about three hundred yards from the ſea, at the head of a fine lawn, and under the ſhade of ſome ſhaddock trees, and there elegantly entertained. The very ſame chief, on the commander's laſt viſit, viſited him on board immediately as he came to an anchor, and with the utmoſt cordiality rendered him every friendly ſervice within his power. The European ſtrangers indeed were careſſed by old and young, men and women, who embraced them, kiſſed their hands, and laid them on their breaſts with the moſt expreſſive looks of affection. It was very remarkable that the diſcharge of guns neither excited their admiration, nor their fear, which plainly proved that their civility aroſe from the bent of natural diſpoſition, and not from a motive of conciliating the favour of their gueſts, becauſe they knew they were able to do them an injury.

The only glaring defect that ſullies their character is, a propenſity to theft, which is ſaid to be confined to nails, on which they ſet ſo high a value, that they would endeavour to poſſeſs them at any rate; but we are ſorry to ſay, that truth and candour obliges us to confeſs, that from later experience, in many inſtances, the propenſity in ſome appeared to be ſo univerſal as to admit of no limitation.

The inhabitants of the Friendly Iſlands are ſo agreeably circumſtanced, as neither to be ſubject to exceſſive labour on the one hand, or ſupine indolence on the other. Their occupations are agreeably diverſified, and their recreations and amuſements follow in pleaſing ſucceſſion, ſo that they neither diſguſt or tire. To the women is committed the care of making the cloth, and to them is alſo conſigned the manufacture of their mats.

Architecture, boat-building, agriculture, and fiſhing, are the principal objects of the men's attention. As cultivated roots and fruits form their chief ſubſiſtence, they find it neceſſary to practiſe huſbandry, which they have brought by their diligence to ſome degree of perfection. In planting yams and plantains, they dig ſmall holes for their reception, and afterwards root up the ſurrounding graſs. The inſtruments uſed by them for this purpoſe are called *hoo*; and are nothing more than ſtakes of various lengths, flattened and ſharpened to an edge at one end; and the largeſt ones have a ſhort piece fixed tranſverſely, by means of which they preſs the implement into the ground with the foot. When they plant the two above-mentioned vegetables, they obſerve ſuch particular exactneſs, that, whichever way you turn your eyes, the rows preſent themſelves complete and regular. Some of their vegetable productions, and in particular the bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees, are ſcattered without order, and reared without pains. The ſame may be ſaid of another large tree, which produces a roundiſh compreſſed nut, called *eceſee*; and of a ſmaller tree bearing an oval nut, with two or three triangular kernels. The *kappe* is, in general, planted regularly, and in large ſpots; but the *mawhaha* is interſperſed among other things, as is alſo the *jeejee*. Sugar-cane is uſually in ſmall ſpots, cloſely crowded. The tree of which the cloth is made, is kept very clean, and has a good ſpace allowed for it. The *pandanus* is commonly planted in a row, cloſe together, at the ſides of the fields.

The dwellings of the lower claſs of people are wretched huts, ſcarcely ſufficient to ſhelter them from the weather. Thoſe of the better ſort are larger, as well as more commodious and comfortable. An houſe of a middling ſize is about twelve feet in height, twenty in breadth, and thirty in length. Their houſes are, properly ſpeaking, thatched roofs or ſheds, ſupported by rafters and poſts. The floor is raiſed with earth ſmoothed, and covered with thick matting. Some of their habitations are open all round; but the major part of them are encloſed on the weather ſide with ſtrong mats, or with branches of the cocoa-nut tree, plated or interwoven with each other. A thick mat, about three feet broad, bent into a ſemicircular form, and placed edgeways, with the ends touching the ſide of the houſe, encloſes a ſufficient ſpace for the maſter and miſtreſs to ſleep in. The reſt of the family ſleep upon any part of the floor, the unmarried men and women lying apart from each other. If the family is large, there are little huts adjoining, in which the ſervants ſleep. Their whole furniture conſiſts of ſome wooden ſtools, which ſerve them for pillows; baſkets of different ſizes, in which they put their combs, fiſh-hooks, and tools; two or three wooden bowls, in which they make *kava*; ſome cocoa-nut ſhells, a few gourds, and a bundle or two of cloth.

However, the deficiency ſo apparent in the building of their houſes is amply compenſated in the conſtruction of their canoes, which diſplay much taſte and ingenuity. The double ones are made ſufficiently large to carry about fifty perſons, and ſail at a great rate. Upon them they generally fix a hut or ſhed for the reception of the maſter and his family. They are made of the bread-fruit tree, and the workmanſhip is extremely neat. They appear on the outſide as if they were compoſed of one ſolid piece; but, upon cloſer inſpection, they are found to conſiſt of a great number

number of pieces, which fit each other exactly, and by means of a ledge on the inside are secured together with cocoa-nut line. The single canoes are furnished with an out-rigger. The only tools which they make use of in the construction of these boats, are hatchets, or adzes, of a smooth black stone; augers made of shark's teeth; and rasps, composed of the rough skin of a fish, fastened on flat pieces of wood. The same tools are all they have for other works, except shells, which serve them for knives. Their cordage is made of the fibres of the cocoa-nut husk, which, though not above ten inches long, they plait about the size of a quill, to whatever length is required, and roll it up in balls; from which the ropes of a larger size are made, by twisting several of those together. Their fishing-lines are as strong and even as our best cord. Their small hooks consist entirely of pearl-shells; but the large ones are only covered with it on the back; and the points of both are, in general, of tortoise-shell. With the large hooks they catch albi cores, and bonnetos, by putting them to a bamboo-end, about twelve feet long, with a line of the same length. They have also numbers of small seines, some of which are of the most delicate texture.

Their pipes, or musical reeds, which resemble the *syrinx* of the ancients, have eight or ten pieces placed parallel to each other, most of which are of unequal lengths. Their flutes are made of a joint of bamboo, about eighteen inches long, and are closed at both ends, having a hole near each end, and four others; two of which, and only one of the first, are used by them in playing. They close the left nostril with the thumb of the left hand, and blow into the hole at one end with the other nostril. The fore-finger of the right hand is applied to the lowest hole on the right, and the middle finger of the left to the first hole on that side. In this manner, with only three notes, they produce a pleasing, though simple music.

Clubs curiously ornamented, spears, and darts, are their warlike weapons. They also make bows and arrows; but these are intended for amusement, such as shooting at birds, &c. and not for the purpose of war. Their stools, or rather pillows, are about two feet long, but only four or five inches in height, and near four in breadth, inclining downwards towards the middle, with four strong legs and circular feet; the whole composed of brown or black wood, neatly polished, and sometimes inlaid with ivory. They likewise inlay with ivory the handles of fly-flaps; and, with a shark's tooth, shape bones into figures of men, birds, &c.

Cocoa-nuts, plantains, bread-fruit, and yams, compose the greater part of their vegetable food. Their chief articles of animal food, are hogs, fish, and fowls; but the common people frequently eat rats. Their hogs, fowls, and turtle, seem to be only occasional dainties served for people of rank. Their food is, in general, dressed by baking; and they make, from different sorts of fruit, several dishes, which are very good. They sometimes boil their fish in the green leaves of the plaintain tree, which serve as a bag to hold both fish and water: having tied them up, they wrap them again in three or four other leaves, and place them upon stones heated for the purpose: when they are sufficiently done, they not only eat the fish, but drink the liquor or soup. They are not very cleanly either in their cookery, or their manner of eating. Their usual drink at their meals is water, or cocoa-nut milk, the *kava* being only their morning beverage. The food that is served up to the chiefs is generally laid upon plantain-leaves. The king, at his meals, is commonly attended upon by three or four of the natives, one of whom cuts large pieces of the fish, or of the joint, another afterwards divides it into mouthfuls, and the rest stand by with cocoa-nuts, and whatever else he may happen to want. The women are not excluded from taking their meals with the men; but there are certain ranks that are not allowed either to eat or drink together. This distinction begins with his majesty.

They rise at day-break, and retire to rest as soon as it becomes dark. They, for the most part, sleep also in the day time, when the weather is very hot. They are fond of associating together, in consequence of which, it is not uncommon to find several houses empty, and the possessors of them assembled in some other house, or upon some convenient spot in the neighbourhood, where they relax themselves by conversation and other amusements. Their private diversions chiefly consist of dancing, singing, and music. When two or three women snap their fingers, and sing in concert, it is called *oobai;* but when there are more, they form several parties, each of which sings in a different key, which constitutes an agreeable melody, and is termed *heeva*, or *haiva*. The songs are generally accompanied with the music of their flutes. The dances both of the men and women are performed with an ease and grace which are difficult to be described.

The nature of their marrages could not be ascertained, either in point of form, or obligation; it is certain, however, that the major part of the men content themselves with one wife. The chiefs, indeed, commonly have several women, but only one is considered in the light of mistress of the family.

These people display a striking instance of humanity in the manner in which they are affected by the loss of their friends and relations. Besides the *tooge*, and burnt circles and scars, they strike a shark's tooth into their heads till the blood flows considerably, beat their teeth with stones, and thrust spears not only through their cheeks into their mouths, but also into the inner parts of their thighs, and into their sides. The more painful operations, however, are only practised when they mourn for the deaths of those who were most nearly connected with them.

When one of them dies, he is wrapped up in mats and cloth, and then interred. The *fiatookas* seem to be appropriated to the chiefs and other persons of distinction, as their burial places; but the inferior people have no particular spot set apart for their interment. It is uncertain what part of the mourning ceremony follows immediately afterwards; but there is something besides the general one, which is continued for a considerable time. They seem to consider death as a great evil, to avert which they practise a very singular custom.

When captain Cook, during his second voyage, first visited these islands, he observed, that many of the natives had one or both of their little fingers cut off; of the reason of which mutilation, he could not then obtain a satisfactory account; but he was now informed, that they perform this operation when they are afflicted with some dangerous disorder, which they imagine may bring them to the grave. They suppose, that the little finger will be accepted of by the Deity, as a kind of propitiatory sacrifice sufficiently efficacious to procure their recovery. In cutting it off, they make use of a stone hatchet. There is scarcely one person in ten who is not thus mutilated; and they sometimes cut so close, as to encroach upon the bone of the hand which joins the amputated finger. It is also common for the lower class of people to cut off a joint of their little finger, on account of the sickness of the chiefs to whom they respectively belong.

They have apparently little conception of future punishment for sins committed in the present life. They believe, however, that they meet with just punishment upon earth; and therefore, put every method in practice to render their divinities propitious. They admit a plurality of deities, all of them inferior to *Kallafootonga*, who they say is a female, and the supreme author of most things, residing in the heavens, and directing the wind, rain, thunder, &c. They are of opinion, that when she is much displeased with them,

them, the productions of the earth are blaſted, many things conſumed by lightning, and themſelves afflicted with ſickneſs and death; but that when her anger abates, every thing is immediately reſtored to its former ſtate. Among their ſubordinate deities, they mention *Futtafaihe*, or *Footafooa*, who has the adminiſtration of the ſea, and its productions; *Toofooa-boolootoo*, god of the clouds and fog; *Talleteboo*, *Mattaba*, *Tareeava*, and others. The ſame ſyſtem of religion does not extend all over the Friendly Iſlands; the ſupreme deity of Hapaee, for inſtance, being called *Alo Alo*. They entertain very abſurd opinions relative to the power and various attributes of theſe beings, who they ſuppoſe have no further concern with them after death.

They have juſter ſentiments of the immortality and immateriality of the ſoul, which they call life, the living principle, or an *Otooa*, that is a divinity. They imagine, that, immediately after death, the ſouls of their chiefs are ſeparated from their bodies, and go to a delightful region called *Boolootoo*, the god of which is named *Gooleho*. By this *Gooleho*, they probably perſonify death. His country, according to their mythology, is the general repoſitory of the dead; and thoſe who are once conveyed thither, are no more ſubject to death, but feaſt on all the favourite productions of their native ſoil, with which this bliſsful abode is plentifully furniſhed. As for the ſouls of people of an inferior claſs, they are ſuppoſed by them to ſuffer a kind of tranſmigration; or are eaten up, they ſay, by a bird called *loata*, which walks on the graves with that intent. They do not worſhip any viſible part of the creation, or any things made by their own hands. They make no offerings of dogs, hogs, or fruit, unleſs emblematically. But there ſeems to be no reaſon to doubt of their offering up human ſacrifices. Their *fiatookas* are, in general, burying-grounds and places of worſhip: ſome of them, however, appear to be appropriated only to the former purpoſe: but theſe are ſmall, and greatly inferior to the reſt.

The Engliſh could derive but little information as to their mode and form of government. A ſubordination, reſembling the feudal ſyſtem of our anceſtors in Europe, is eſtabliſhed among them; but of its ſubdiviſions, and the conſtituent parts, we are ignorant. Though ſome of them aſſerted, that the king's power is unbounded, and that he has the abſolute diſpoſal of the lives and properties of his ſubjects; yet the few circumſtances that offered themſelves to our obſervation, contradicted, rather than confirmed, the idea of deſpotic ſway. Mareewagee, Feenou, and Old Toobou, acted each the part of a petty ſovereign, and ſometimes even counteracted the meaſures of the king. Nor was his court ſuperior in ſplendor to thoſe of Old Toobou and Mareewagee, who, next to his majeſty, were the moſt potent chiefs in theſe iſlands; and next after them, Feenou appeared to ſtand higheſt in rank and authority. But how independent ſoever of the king the principal men may be, the inferior people are totally ſubject to the will of the chiefs to whom they ſeverally belong.

Tongataboo is divided into a great number of diſtricts, each of which has its peculiar chiefs, who diſtributes juſtice, and decides diſputes, within his own territory. Moſt of theſe chieftains have eſtates in other iſlands, whence they procure ſupplies. The king, at ſtated times, receives the product of his diſtant domains at Tongataboo, which is not only the uſual place of his reſidence, but the abode of moſt perſons of diſtinction among theſe iſlands. Its inhabitants frequently call it the Land of Chiefs, and ſtigmatize the ſubordinate iſles with the appellation of Lands of Servants.

Their chiefs are ſtyled Lords of the earth, and alſo of the ſun and ſky; and great deference, not to ſay worſhip, is paid to them. The royal family aſ-

ſume the name of Futtafaihe, from the god diſtinguiſhed by that appellation, who is probably conſidered by them as their tutelar patron. The king's pecular title is ſimply *Tooee Tonga*. The order and decorum obſerved in his preſence, and likewiſe in that of the other chiefs, are admirable. Whenever he ſits down, all the attendants ſeat themſelves before him, forming a ſemicircle, and leaving a ſufficient ſpace between them and him, into which no one, unleſs he has particular buſineſs, preſumes to come. Nor is any one ſuffered to ſit or paſs behind him, or even near him, without his permiſſion. When a perſon wiſhes to ſpeak to his majeſty, he comes forward, and having ſeated himſelf before him, delivers in a few words what he has to ſay; then, after being favoured with an anſwer, retires. If the king ſpeaks to any one, the latter gives an anſwer from his ſeat, unleſs he has to receive an order; in which caſe he riſes from his place, and ſeats himſelf croſs-legged before his majeſty. To ſpeak to the king ſtanding, would here be conſidered as a great mark of unpolite behaviour.

None of the civilized nations have excelled them in implicit obedience to the commands of their chiefs, in decorum and order of behaviour, as well as in harmony and unanimity. Such a behaviour manifeſts itſelf in a remarkable manner, whenever their chiefs harangue a body of them aſſembled together, which frequently happens. The greateſt attention, and moſt profound ſilence are obſerved during the harangue; nor is there ever ſeen a ſingle inſtance of any one preſent ſhewing ſigns of being diſpleaſed, or ſeeming in the leaſt inclined to diſpute the declared will of the ſpeaker. It is a peculiar privilege annexed to the perſon of the king, not to be punctured, or circumciſed, or rather ſuperciſed, as his ſubjects are. Whenever he walks out, all who meet him muſt ſit down till he has paſſed. No perſon is ſuffered to be over his head; but, on the contrary, all muſt come under his feet.

The method of doing homage to their ſovereign and the other chiefs, is as follows: the perſon who is to pay obeiſance, ſquats down before the great perſonage, and bows the head down to the ſole of his foot, which he taps or touches with the under and upper ſide of the fingers of each hand; then riſing up, he retires. His majeſty cannot refuſe any one who is deſirous of paying him this homage, which is called by the natives *moe moea*; for the people frequently think proper to ſhew him theſe marks of ſubmiſſion when he is walking, and he is on theſe occaſions obliged to ſtop, and hold up one of his feet behind him, till they have performed this reſpectable ceremony. The hands, after having been thus applied, become, in ſome caſes, uſeleſs for a little time; for, till they are waſhed, they muſt not touch food of any ſort. This prohibition, in a country where water is far from being plentiful, would be attended with inconvenience, if a piece of any juicy plant, which they can immediately procure, being rubbed over the hands, did not ſerve for the purpoſe of purification. When the hands are in this ſituation, they term it *taboo rema*; the former word generally ſignifying forbidden, and the latter implying hand.—When the *taboo* is incurred, by doing homage to a perſon of rank, it may thus eaſily be waſhed off; but in ſeveral other caſes, it muſt continue for a certain poriod. Women, who have been *taboo rema*, are not fed by themſelves, but by others. The interdicted perſon, after the limited time has elapſed, waſhes herſelf in one of their baths, which are in general dirty ponds of brackiſh water. She then waits upon the ſovereign, and having paid the cuſtomary obeiſance, takes hold of his foot, which ſhe applies to her ſhoulders, breaſt, and other parts; he then embraces her on both ſhoulders, and ſhe immediately retires, purified from her uncleanneſs. If it be always neceſſary to have recourſe to his majeſty for this

purpoſe, it may be one reaſon of travelling from one iſland to another.

It may here be proper to obſerve, that divers ſignifications ſeem to be annexed to the word *taboo*. They call human ſacrifices *tangata taboo;* and when any particular thing is prohibited to be eaten, or made uſe of, they ſay it is *taboo*. If the king goes into a houſe belonging to one of his ſubjects, that will, in conſequence, become *taboo*, and can never be again inhabited by the owner of it; ſo that, wherever his majeſty travels, there are houſes peculiarly aſſigned for his accommodation. A certain perſon is appointed as an inſpector of all the produce of the iſland, who takes care that each individual ſhall cultivate and plant his quota, at the ſame directing what ſhall, and what ſhall not, be eaten. By ſo prudent a regulation, they take effectual precautions againſt a famine; ſufficient ground is employed in raiſing proviſions; and every article is ſecured from unneceſſary conſumption. By another good regulation, an officer is appointed to ſuperintend the police, whoſe buſineſs it is to puniſh all delinquents: he is alſo generaliſſimo, or commander in chief of the forces of the iſlands. If this commander ſhould act inconſiſtent with the duties of his office, or govern in ſuch a manner as may be injurious to the public welfare, he would, by the collective body of the people, be depoſed from his ſovereignty, and put to death. A monarch thus ſubject to controul and puniſhment for abuſe of power, cannot juſtly be deemed a deſpotic prince.

We might be led to ſuppoſe, on a review of theſe iſlands, and the remote diſtance at which ſome of them are ſituated from the ſeat of government, that many efforts would have been made to throw off the yoke of ſubjection; but ſuch a circumſtance never happens. One reaſon of their not being thus embroiled in domeſtic commotions may be this; that all the principal chiefs take up their reſidence at Tongataboo. They alſo ſecure the dependence of the other iſles, by the deciſive celerity of their operations; for if a ſeditious and popular man ſhould ſtart up in any of them, the commander is immediately diſpatched thither to put him to death, by which means they prevent any conſiderable inſurrection.

The different claſſes of their chiefs ſeem to be nearly as numerous as among us; but there are few, comparatively ſpeaking, that are lords of extenſive diſtricts of territory. It is ſaid, that when a perſon of property dies, all his poſſeſſions devolve on the ſovereign; but that it is cuſtomary to give them to the eldeſt ſon of the deceaſed, with this condition annexed, that he ſhould provide out of the eſtate for the other children. The crown is hereditary; and it is known, from a particular circumſtance, that the Futtafaihes have reigned, in a direct line, for the ſpace of at leaſt one hundred and thirty-five years, which have elapſed between our countrymen viſiting theſe iſlands, and Taſman's diſcovery of them.

Upon enquiring of them, whether any traditional account of the arrival of Taſman's ſhips had been preſerved among them till this time, it was found, that this hiſtory had been delivered down to them, from their anceſtors, with great accuracy: for they ſaid, that his two ſhips reſembled ours, and alſo mentioned the place where they had lain at anchor, their having continued but a few days, and their quitting that ſtation to go to Annamooka; and, for the purpoſe of informing us how long ago this affair had happened, they communicated to us the name of the Futtafaihe who reigned at that time, and thoſe who had ſucceeded him in the ſovereignty, down to Poulaho, who is the fifth monarch ſince that period.

Their rank of precedence ever appeared a matter of great difficulty to aſcertain. It was generally ſuppoſed that the preſent ſovereign of the Friendly Iſles had the higheſt rank of any perſon in his dominions. But it was found to be otherwiſe; for Latooliboloo and three women are ſuperior, in ſome reſpects, to Poulaho himſelf. Theſe great perſonages are diſtinguiſhed by the title of *Tammaha*, which implies a chief. The late king, father of Poulaho, left behind him a ſiſter of equal rank, and older than himſelf; ſhe, by a native of Feejee, had a ſon and two daughters; and theſe three perſons, as well as their mother, are of higher rank than the king. Endeavours were made to diſcover the reaſon of this pre-eminence of the *Tammahas*, but without effect. The mother, and one of her daughters, named Tooeela-Kaipa, reſided at Vavaoo. The other daughter, called Moungoulakaipa, and Latooliboloo, the ſon, dwelt at Tongataboo. Latooliboloo was ſuppoſed, by his countrymen, to be diſordered in his ſenſes.

The more ſpeculative part of our countrymen ſay, that the language of the natives of the Friendly Iſlands bears a ſtriking reſemblance to thoſe of New Zealand, of Otaheite, and the Society Iſles. The pronunciation of theſe people, differs, indeed, in many inſtances, from that both of Otaheite and New Zealand; but, notwithſtanding that, a great number of words are either very little changed, or exactly the ſame. The language, as ſpoken by the Friendly Iſlanders, is ſufficiently copious to expreſs all their ideas; and beſides being tolerably harmonious in common converſation, is eaſily adapted to the purpoſes of muſic. They have terms to ſignify numbers as far as an hundred thouſand, beyond which they either would not, or could not reckon.

The tides are more conſiderable at the Friendly Iſlands, than at any other of captain Cook's diſcoveries in this ocean, that are ſituate within either of the tropics. At Annamooka, the tide riſes and falls about ſix feet upon a perpendicular. At Tongataboo it riſes and falls four feet and three quarters on the full and change days, and three feet and a half at the quadratures.

The latitude of that part of Tongataboo, where our countrymen erected an obſervatory, and which was near the middle of the north ſide of the iſland, is, according to the moſt accurate obſervations, 21 deg. 8 min. 19 ſec. ſouth; and its longitude 184 deg. 55 min. 18 ſec. eaſt.

ROTTERDAM, CALLED BY THE NATIVES ANNAMOOKA.

Diſpoſition, Cuſtoms, and Manners peculiar to the Inhabitants.

TASMAN diſcovered this iſland in the ſame year with the former; it was alſo named by him. It lies in latitude 20 deg. 15 min. ſouth, and longitude 174 deg. 31 min. weſt. The ſhore conſiſts of a ſteep, rugged coral rock, about nine or ten feet high; but there are two ſandy beaches, which are defended from the ſea by a reef of the ſame kind of rock.—In the centre of the iſland is a ſalt water lake, in breadth about a mile and a half. On the riſing parts, and eſpecially towards the ſea, the ſoil is either of a blackiſh mould or reddiſh clay, though not a ſtream of water was to be found upon the iſland but what was brackiſh.

The perſons, diſpoſitions, dreſs, manners, cuſtoms, language, &c. of the inhabitants here, are almoſt the ſame as thoſe of the natives of Middleburgh, and indeed of the Friendly Iſlands in general, as before deſcribed. Upon the whole, the land appears to be well cultivated, and if ſome parts lie waſte, the deſign is evidently that they might recover that ſtrength which had been exhauſted by too frequent culture. The chief plantations were yams and plantains. Bread fruit and cocoa-trees are alſo interſperſed without regular order, but are chiefly found near the habitations of the natives. The iſland is in general covered with luxuriant trees and buſhes, but particularly thoſe parts towards the ſea and round the lake.

Theſe

Theſe iſlanders gave proof of that courteous diſpoſition from which their country is denominated, to all the ſtrangers they met from our veſſels, bowing their heads, and uſing the expreſſion, *lelei woa*, good friend, or ſome word to that import. They readily undertook to conduct into the receſſes of their country ſuch as applied to them, climbed the higheſt trees to procure them flowers, and took to the water, like ſpaniels, after birds that were ſhot: they pointed out the fineſt plants, and gave them their proper names; and whenever any intimation was given, that ſpecimens of a certain kind of plant were wanted, they would go to any diſtance to procure them.

They manage their canoes with the greateſt agility, and ſwim with ſurpriſing eaſe. Their common trailing canoes are neatly made, and curiouſly poliſhed. Theſe conſiſt of two, faſtened to a tranſverſe platform of planks, in the midſt of which they erect an hut, where they place their goods, their arms, and utenſils, and where they paſs great part of their time. They have alſo holes which give into the body of each canoe: their maſts are ſtraight poles, which can be ſtruck at pleaſure; and their ſails are very large and triangular, but not very proper to make way before the wind. Their cordage, in general, is excellent, and they have alſo contrived a very good ground tackle, conſiſting of a ſtrong rope, with large ſtones at the end, by means of which they come to an anchor.

From the enquiry of a great number of the natives, on the arrival of the veſſel in the iſland, it appeared, that the fame of theſe voyagers had already reached this ſpot. They ſupplied their European viſitors with plenty of fruit and roots. A few fowls, and one or two ſmall pigs, were all the animal food procured here.

No king, on the firſt viſit, was diſtinguiſhed amongſt theſe people, and their method of government was entirely unknown. A young dog and a bitch were left here, as they had no ſuch animal among them, and were the firſt of thoſe they ſaw. The people here are more afflicted with the leproſy, or ſome ſcrophulous diſorder, than at any of the other iſlands.

Captain Cook, reviſiting theſe iſlands in 1777, reſumed the ſame ſtation for anchorage as he had before occupied, and, as he thought, moſt probably in the ſame place where the firſt diſcoverer of this and ſome of the neighbouring iſlands anchored in 1643. The officers ſometimes amuſed themſelves in walking up the country, and ſhooting wild ducks, reſembling our widgeon, which are very numerous on the ſalt lake, as well as on the pool where water was procured. They found, on theſe excurſions, that the inhabitants frequently deſerted their houſes to repair to the trading place, without entertaining the leaſt ſuſpicion that ſtrangers would take away or deſtroy any property that belonged to them. From this circumſtance, it might be ſuppoſed, that moſt of the natives were ſometimes collected on the beach, and that there would be no great difficulty in forming an accurate computation of their number; but the continual reſort of viſitors from other iſlands rendered it impoſſible. However, as they never ſaw more than a thouſand perſons collected at one time, it may be reaſonably ſuppoſed, that there are about twice that number upon the iſland.

The natives, as upon a former occaſion, ſhewed their European viſitors every mark of civility. In the courſe of a few days they were viſited by a great chief from Tongataboo, or Amſterdam, whoſe name was Feenou, and to whom the commander was introduced as king of all the Friendly Iſles. He was alſo given to underſtand, that on his arrival, a canoe had been diſpatched to Tongataboo with the news; in conſequence of which this chief immediately paſſed over to Annamooka. When the Britiſh commander went to pay this great man a viſit, having firſt received a preſent of two fiſh from him, brought on board by one of his ſervants, he came up to him immediately on his landing. He appeared to be about thirty years of age, tall, but thin, and had more of the European features than had been ſeen before. Captain Cook, after the firſt ſalutation, aſked if he was the king; for notwithſtanding the information he had received, finding he was not the man he had remembered to have ſeen under that character during a former voyage, he began to entertain doubts. Taipa, a friendly chief, who had accompanied him ſince his laſt arrival, officiouſly anſwered for him, and mentioned many iſlands, of which he ſaid Feenou was the ſovereign. The monarch, and five or ſix of his attendants, having done the European viſitor the honour of accompanying him on board, he gave ſuitable preſents to them all, and having entertained them in ſuch a manner as he thought would be moſt agreeable, attended them on ſhore in the evening, and received a return for the preſents he had made.

A matter now fell out, the recital of which will convey ſome idea of the extent of the authority exerciſed here over the common people, very little of which was known before. While Feenou was on board the ſhip, an inferior chief, for what reaſon our people on ſhore did not know, ordered all the natives to retire from the poſt they occupied. Some of them having ventured to return, he took up a large ſtick and beat them moſt unmercifully. He ſtruck one man on the ſide of the face with ſo much violence, that the blood guſhed out of his mouth and noſtrils, and after laying ſome time motionleſs, he was removed from the place in convulſions. The perſon who had inflicted the blow, being told that he had killed the man, only laughed at it, and it was evident that he was not in the leaſt ſorry for what had happened. It was heard afterwards, however, that the poor ſufferer had been ſo fortunate as to recover.—One of the natives having ſtolen a large junk axe out of the ſhip on the firſt day of arrival, opportunity was taken of an invitation to apply to Feenou to exert his authority to get it reſtored; and ſuch was the effect of his mandate, that it was brought on board before the captain's departure.

On this ſecond viſit, the iſlanders gave frequent proofs of their expertneſs in theft. And it is remarked from experience, that even ſome of their chiefs did not think this profeſſion beneath them; for one of them was detected carrying out of the ſhip, concealed under his clothes, the bolt belonging to the ſpun-yarn winch, for which he was ſentenced by the commander to receive a dozen laſhes, and kept in confinement till he paid for his liberty. Their ſervants, or ſlaves, however, were ſtill employed in this dirty work, and it ſeems at the inſtigation of their maſters, who, nevertheleſs, when any of them happened to be caught in the act, ſo far from interceding for them, would adviſe the Europeans to kill them. As this was a puniſhment they did not chooſe to inflict, and flogging ſeemed to make no greater impreſſion on them, than it would have done on the main-maſt, a mode of treatment was deviſed which was thought to have had ſome effect. The delinquents were put under the hands of the barber, who completely ſhaved their heads, thus pointing them as objects of ridicule to their countrymen, and enabling our people to deprive them of future opportunities for a repetition of their rogueries by keeping them at a diſtance.

Feenou was ſo fond of aſſociating with his European friends, that he viſited them daily, and gave the ſtrongeſt proofs of his eſteem and reſpect. But the commander, finding that the iſland was exhauſted of almoſt every article of food that it afforded, determined to proceed directly to Tongataboo. Feenou, underſtanding his reſolution, importuned him ſtrongly to alter his plan, to which he expreſſed as much an averſion as if he had ſome particular intereſt to anſwer by diverting him from it. In preference to it, he

he warmly recommended an iſland, or rather a group of iſlands, called Hapaee, lying to the north-eaſt, where he aſſured him he might obtain a plentiful ſupply of every refreſhment in the eaſieſt manner; and to add weight to his advice, he engaged to attend his new friends thither in perſon. Arguments ſo founded could not fail of having full weight, and Hapaee was accordingly made choice of for the next ſtation. Indeed, as it had never been viſited by any European ſhips, the examination of it became an object of importance.

ISLES OF HAPAEE.

Various Forms, Ceremonies, and Entertainments.

TO the north and north-eaſt of Annamooka, and in the direct track to Hapaee, whither our voyagers were now bound, the ſea is ſprinkled with a great number of very ſmall iſles. As from the ſhoals and rocks adjoining to this group there was no aſſurance that there was a free or ſafe paſſage for large veſſels, though the natives ſailed through the intervals in their canoes, it was deemed expedient to go to the weſtward of the above iſlands; the courſe was framed N. N. W. towards Kao and Toofa, the two moſt weſterly iſlands in ſight, and remarkable for their great height. Theſe iſles lie ſcattered at unequal diſtances, and are in general nearly as high as Annamooka. Moſt of them are entirely clothed with trees; amongſt which are many cocoa-palms, and each forms a proſpect like a beautiful garden placed in the ſea.

When Hapaee was in ſight, our navigators could judge it to be low land, from the trees only appearing above the water. On a nearer view, they conld ſee it plainly forming three iſlands, almoſt of an equal ſize, and ſoon after a fourth to the ſouthward as large as the others. Each ſeemed to be about ſix or ſeven miles long, and of a ſimilar height and appearance. The northernmoſt of them is called Haanno; the next Foa, the third Lefooga, and the ſouthernmoſt Hoolaiva; but all four are included under the general name of Hapaee.

As ſoon as the European veſſels came to an anchor at Hapaee, they were viſited by the natives, and ſurrounded by a multitude of their canoes, filled alſo with them. They brought from the ſhore hogs, fowls, fruit, and roots. Feenou and Omai having come on board after it was light, in order to introduce the commander to the people of the iſland, he accompanied them on ſhore for that purpoſe, landing at the north part of Lefooga, a little to the right of the ſhip's ſtation. Being aſked how long he intended to ſtay, and replying five days, Taipa was ordered to proclaim to the people, as by Omai, his interpreter, he was given to underſtand, that they were all, both old and young, to look upon the viſitor before them as a friend, who intended to remain with them a few days; that, during his ſtay, they muſt not ſteal any thing, nor moleſt him any other way, and that it was expected they ſhould bring hogs, fowls, fruit, &c. to the ſhips, where they would receive in exchange for them a great variety of articles, which he enumerated. Taipa then took occaſion to ſignify to the commander that it was neceſſary he ſhould make a preſent to the chief of the iſland, whoſe name was Earoupa, in conſequence of which ſuch articles were preſented him as far exceeded his expectation. Feenou then ordered Earoupa to ſit by him, and to harangue the people as Taipa had done before him, and to the ſame purpoſe.

At this place the ſupply of proviſions was copious, for in the courſe of one day our people got by barter along ſide the ſhips about twenty ſmall hogs, beſides a large quantity of fruit and roots. The commander was informed, that on his firſt landing in the morning a man came off to the ſhips, and ordered every one of the natives to go on ſhore. Probably this was done with a view to have the whole body of the inhabitants preſent at the ceremony of his reception; for when that was over, multitudes of them returned again to the ſhip.

Feenou, attended by Omai, came ſoon after on board to require the preſence of the commander upon the iſland. In landing, he was conducted to the ſame place where he had been ſeated the day before, and where, ſeeing a large concourſe of people already aſſembled, he conjectured that ſomething more than ordinary was in agitation, but could obtain no information as to particulars. He had not been long ſeated before near an hundred of the natives appeared in ſight, and advanced laden with yams, bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, and ſugar-canes. They depoſited their burdens in two heaps or piles upon the left hand. Soon after arrived a number of others bearing the ſame kind of articles, which were collected into two piles on the right; to theſe were tied two pigs and ſix fowls, and to thoſe upon the left hand, ſix pigs and two turtles. Earoupa ſeated himſelf before the ſeveral articles to the left, and another chief before thoſe on the right; they being, as was judged, the two chiefs who had collected them, by order of Feenou, who ſeemed to be as implicitly obeyed here as he had been at Annamooka; and, in conſequence of his commanding ſuperiority over the chiefs of Hapaee, had laid this tax upon them for the preſent occaſion.

When this munificent collection of proviſion was laid down in order, and diſpoſed to the beſt advantage, the bearers of it joined the multitude, who formed a large circle round the whole. Preſently a number of men entered the circle, armed with clubs made of green branches of the cocoa-nut tree. Theſe paraded about for a few minutes, and then retired, the one half to the one ſide, and the other half to the other ſide, ſeating themſelves before the ſpectators. Soon after they ſucceſſively entered the liſts, and entertained them with ſingle combats. One champion riſing up, and ſtepping forward from one ſide, challenged thoſe on the other ſide, by expreſſive geſtures more than by words, to ſend one of their body to oppoſe him. If the challenge was accepted, the two combatants put themſelves in proper attitudes, and then began the engagement, which continued till one or other owned himſelf conquered, or till their weapons were broken. As ſoon as each combat was over, the victor ſquatted himſelf down oppoſite to the chief, then roſe up and retired. At the ſame time ſome old men, who ſeemed to ſit as judges, gave their plaudits in a few words; and the multitude, eſpecially thoſe on the ſide to which the victor belonged, celebrated the glory he had acquired in two or three loud huzzas. During the intervals of ſuſpenſion from this entertainment, there were both wreſtling and boxing matches; the latter differed very little from the method practiſed in England.

But what moſt ſurpriſed our people was, to ſee two luſty wenches ſtep forth, and begin boxing without ceremony, and with as much art as the men. This conteſt, however, did not laſt above half a minute before one of them gave it up. The conquering heroine received the ſame applauſe from the ſpectators, which they beſtowed upon the ſucceſsful combatants of the other ſex. The Europeans expreſſed ſome diſlike at this entertainment, which, however, did not prevent two other females from entering the liſts. They ſeemed to be girls of ſpirit, and would certainly have given each other a good drubbing, if two old women had not interpoſed to part them. All the combats were exhibited in the midſt of at leaſt three thouſand people, and were conducted with the greateſt good humour on all ſides; though ſome of the champions, women as well as men, received blows which they muſt have felt for ſome time after.

As ſoon as the diverſions were ended, the chief gave the commander to underſtand, that the heaps

of proviſion on the right hand were a preſent to Omai, and thoſe on the left hand, being about two thirds of the whole quantity, were given to himſelf. He aſſured him, that a guard was needleſs, as not the ſmalleſt article would be taken away by the natives. So, indeed, it proved; for when the proviſions were removed on board, not a cocoa nut was miſſing. It was remarked, that this preſent of Fenou excelled any that had been made the commander by any of the ſovereigns of the various iſlands he had viſited in the Pacific Ocean. His liberality was compenſated by the beſtowal of ſuch commodities as were ſuppoſed to be moſt valuable in his eſtimation. This chief having expreſſed a deſire to ſee the marines go through their military exerciſe, they were accordingly ordered on ſhore from both ſhips.

After they had performed various evolutions, and fired ſeveral vollies to the gratification of the ſpectators; the chief entertained his viſitors, in his turn, with an exhibition, which, as acknowledged by all, was performed with dexterity and exactneſs, far ſurpaſſing the ſpecimen the Europeans had given of their military manœuvres. This was a dance performed by men, and in which no leſs than one hundred and five perſons bore their parts. Each of them had in his hand an inſtrument neatly made, in ſhape reſembling a paddle, of two feet and an half in length, with a ſmall handle and a thin blade, ſo that they were very light. With this inſtrument, they made many and various flouriſhes, each of which was accompanied with a different attitude of the body, or a different movement. At firſt, the performers ranged themſelves in three lines, and by various evolutions, each man changed his ſtation in ſuch a manner, that thoſe who had been in the rear came into the front. Nor did they remain long in the ſame poſition, but theſe changes were made by pretty quick tranſitions. At one time they extended themſelves in one line; they then formed into a ſemicircle; and, laſtly, into two ſquare columns. While this laſt movement was executing, one of them advanced, and performed an antic dance before the commander, with which the whole ended. It was the general opinion of the party preſent, that ſuch a performance would have met with univerſal applauſe upon an European ſtage; and it ſo far exceeded any attempt our people had made to entertain them, that they ſeem to plume themſelves upon their ſuperiority in this particular. They held none of our muſical inſtruments in the leaſt eſteem, except the drum. The French-horns in particular ſeemed to be held in great contempt, for neither here, or at any other of the iſlands, would they pay the leaſt attention to them.

To give the natives a more favourable opinion of Engliſh amuſements, and to have their minds fully impreſſed with a ſenſe of our ſuperior attainments, the commander directed ſome fire-works to be prepared, and after dark cauſed them to be played off in the preſence of Fenou, the other chief, and a vaſt concourſe of their people. They ſucceeded in general ſo well as to anſwer the end propoſed. The water and ſky-rockets, in particular, pleaſed and aſtoniſhed them exceedingly.

As a prelude to another entertainment of dances which Fenou had prepared for his gueſts, a band of muſic, or chorus of eighteen men, ſeated themſelves before them in the centre of the circle compoſed by the numerous ſpectators, the area of which was to be the ſcene of the exhibitions. Four or five of this band had pieces of large bamboo, from three to five or ſix feet long, each managed by one man, who held it nearly in a vertical poſition, the upper end open, but the other cloſed by one of the joints. With this cloſe end, the performers kept conſtantly ſtriking to the ground, though ſlowly, thus producing different notes, according to the different lengths of the inſtruments, but all of them of the hollow or baſe ſort; to counteract which, a perſon kept ſtriking, quickly and with two ſticks, a piece of the ſame ſubſtance, ſplit and laid along the ground, and by that producing a tone as acute as thoſe proceeding from the others were grave. The reſt of the band, as well as thoſe who performed on the bamboo, ſung a ſlow and ſoft air, which ſo tempered the harſher notes of the above inſtruments, that no by-ſtander, however accuſtomed to hear the moſt perfect modulations of ſweet ſounds, could avoid confeſſing the vaſt power and pleaſing effect of this ſimple harmony. After this concert had continued about a quarter of an hour, twenty women entered the circle. Moſt of them had upon their heads garlands of crimſon flowers of China roſe, or others; and many of them had ornamented their perſons with leaves of trees, cut with great nicety about the edges. They formed a circle round the chorus, turning their faces towards it, and began by ſinging a ſoft air, to which reſponſes were made by the chorus in the ſame tone, and theſe were repeated alternately. All this while the women accompanied their ſong with ſeveral very graceful motions of their hands towards their faces, and in other directions, at the ſame time making conſtantly a ſtep forward, and then back again with one foot, while the other was fixed.—They then turned their faces to the aſſembly, ſung ſome time, and retreated ſlowly in a body, to that part of the circle which was oppoſite to the ſpot where the principal ſpectators ſat. After this, one of them advanced from each ſide, meeting and paſſing each other in the front, and continuing their progreſs round till they came to the reſt. On which two advanced from each ſide, two of whom alſo paſſed each other, and returned as the former; but the other two remained, and to theſe came one from each ſide by intervals, till the whole number had again formed a circle about the chorus.

They now changed their manner of dancing to a quicker meaſure, in which they made a kind of half turn by leaping, and clapped their hands, and ſnapped their fingers, repeating ſome words in conjunction with the chorus. Towards the end, as the quickneſs of the muſic increaſed, their geſtures and attitudes were varied with wonderful vigour and dexterity, and ſome of their motions by our countrymen might be deemed indecent: though probably this part of the performance was not meant to convey any wanton ideas, but merely to diſplay the aſtoniſhing variety of their movements. Another exhibition followed, performed by fifteen men; and though ſome of them were old, time ſeemed to have robbed them of but little of their agility. They were diſpoſed in a kind of circle, divided at the front. Sometimes they ſung ſlowly, in concert with the chorus, making ſeveral graceful motions with their hands, but differing from thoſe of the women; at the ſame time inclining the body alternately to either ſide, by raiſing one leg outward, and reſting on the other; the arm of the ſame ſide being alſo ſtretched upwards. They then recited ſentences, which were anſwered by the chorus; and occaſionally increaſed the meaſure of the dance, by clapping the hands, and quickening the motions of the feet. Towards the concluſion, the rapidity of the muſic and dancing ſo much increaſed, that the different movements were hard to be diſtinguiſhed.

Twelve other men advanced after the concluſion of the dance, placing themſelves in double rows, fronting each other. On one ſide was ſtationed a kind of prompter, who repeated ſeveral ſentences, to which reſponſes were made by the performers and the chorus. They ſung and danced ſlowly; and gradually grew quicker, like thoſe whom they had ſucceeded.

The next that exhibited themſelves were nine women, who ſat down oppoſite the hut where the chief had placed himſelf. A man immediately roſe, and gave the firſt of theſe women a blow on the back with both his fiſts joined. He treated the ſecond and third in the ſame manner; but when he came to the fourth, he ſtruck her upon the breaſt. Upon ſeeing this, a perſon

inſtantly riſing from among the crowd, knocked him down with a blow on the head, and he was quietly carried away. But this did not excuſe the other five women from ſo extraordinary a diſcipline; for they were treated in the ſame manner by a perſon who ſucceeded him. When theſe nine women danced, their performance was twice diſapproved of, and they were obliged to repeat it again. There was no great difference between this dance and that of the firſt women, except that theſe ſometimes raiſed the body upon one leg, and then upon the other, alternately, by a ſort of double motion. Soon after a perſon entered, making ſome ludicrous remarks on what had been exhibited, which extorted a burſt of laughter from the crowd. The company had then a dance by the attendants of Fenou; they formed a double circle of twenty-four each round the chorus, and joined in a gentle ſoothing ſong, accompanied with motions of the head and hands. They alſo began with ſlow movements, which gradually became more and more rapid, and finally cloſed with ſeveral very ingenious tranſportations of the two circles.

The entertainments of this remarkable night concluded with a dance, in which the principal people preſent exhibited, and which was performed with ſo much ſpirit, and ſo great exactneſs, that they met with univerſal approbation. The native ſpectators, who, no doubt, were perfect judges whether the ſeveral performances were properly executed, could not withhold their applauſes of ſome particular parts, and even a ſtranger who never ſaw the diverſion before, felt at this time ſimilar ſatisfaction.

The place where theſe dances were performed, was an open ſpace amongſt the trees, juſt by the ſea, with lights at ſmall intervals placed round the inſide of the circle. The concourſe of people was pretty large, though not equal to the number aſſembled when the marines went through their exerciſe. Some gueſſed there might be about five thouſand perſons preſent on this occaſion.

The commander next day took a tour into the iſland of Lefooga, of which he was deſirous to obtain ſome knowledge, and found it to be in ſeveral reſpects ſuperior to Annamooka. The plantations were more numerous and more extenſive. In many places indeed, towards the ſea, eſpecially on the eaſt ſide, the country is ſtill waſte, which is owing probably to the ſandy ſoil, as it is much lower than Annamooka and its ſurrounding iſles. But towards the middle of the iſland the ſoil was better, and the marks of conſiderable population and of improved cultivation were every where ſeen. The party which went on the excurſion obſerved large ſpots covered with the paper mulberry-trees, and the plantations in general were well ſtocked with ſuch roots and fruits as are the natural produce of the iſland. To theſe ſome addition was made by our countrymen, in ſowing the ſeeds of Indian corn, melons, pumpkins, &c.

The iſland is not above ſeven miles long, and in ſome places not above two or three broad. The eaſt ſide of it, which is expoſed to the trade-wind, has a reef running to a conſiderable breadth from it, on which the ſea breaks with great violence. It is a continuation of this reef that joins Lefooga to Foa, which is not above half a mile diſtant, and at low water the natives can walk upon this reef, which is then partly dry, from one iſland to another. The ſhore itſelf is either a coral rock, ſix or ſeven feet high, or a ſandy beach; but higher than the weſt ſide, which in general is not more than three or four feet from the level of the ſea, with a ſandy beach its whole length.

A party in a walk happened to ſtep into a houſe where a woman was dreſſing the eyes of a young child who ſeemed blind, the eyes being much inflamed, and a film ſpread over them. The inſtruments ſhe uſed were two ſlender wooden probes, with which ſhe had bruſhed the eyes ſo as to make them bleed. It ſeems worth mentioning, that the natives of thoſe iſlands ſhould attempt an operation of this ſort, though our countrymen entered the houſe too late to deſcribe exactly how this female oculiſt applied the wretched tools ſhe had to work with. However, they ſaw a different operation go on in the ſame houſe, of which they were able to give a tolerable account. They there found another woman ſhaving a child's head with a ſhark's tooth, ſtuck into the end of a piece of ſtick. It was obſerved, that ſhe firſt wetted the hair with a rag dipped in water, applying her inſtrument to that part which had been previouſly ſoaked. The operation ſeemed to give no pain to the child, although the hair was taken off as cloſe as if one of our razors had been employed. A perſon of curioſity amongſt the party, encouraged by what he ſaw, ſoon after tried one of theſe ſingular inſtruments upon himſelf, and found it to be an excellent ſhift. The men of theſe iſlands, however, have recourſe to another contrivance when they ſhave their beards. They perform the operation, as before mentioned, with two ſhells, and ſome amongſt them ſeem to profeſs this trade. It was as common, according to the account of our voyagers, to ſee the ſailors go on ſhore to have their beards ſcraped off, after the faſhion of Hapaee, as it was to ſee their chiefs come on board to be ſhaved by our barbers.

An artificial mount was near the ſouth end of the iſland Lefooga. From the ſize of ſome trees that were growing upon it, and from other appearances, it was ſuppoſed to have been raiſed in remote times. At the bottom of this mount ſtood a ſtone, which muſt have been hewn out of coral rock; it was four feet broad, two and a half thick, and fourteen high, and our people were told by the natives preſent, that not above half its length appeared above ground. They called it *tangata areekee*, (tangata in their language is man, areekee, king) and ſaid that it had been ſet up and the mount raiſed by ſome of their forefathers, in memory of one of their kings; but how long ſince, they could not give information.

The party that landed at Hoolaiva did not find the leaſt mark of cultivation or habitation upon it, except a ſingle hut, the reſidence of a man employed to catch fiſh and turtle. Uninhabited as Hoolaiva is, an artificial mount, like that at the adjoining iſland, has been raiſed upon it as high as the ſurrounding trees. A large ſailing canoe here came under the commander's ſtern, in which was a perſon named Tuttafaihe, or Poulaho, or both, who, as the natives then on board informed our people, was king of Tongataboo, and was king of all the neighbouring iſlands that we had ſeen or heard of. The commander was ſurpriſed at having a ſtranger introduced to him under that dignified character, which he had been before aſſured belonged to another; but the natives perſiſted in their declaration, and for the firſt time confeſſed that Fenou was not the king, but only a ſubordinate chief, though of great power, as he was often ſent from Tongataboo to the other iſlands on warlike expeditions, or to decide differences.—However, as it was the intereſt as well as inclination of the commander to pay court to all the great men, without enquiring into the validity of their aſſumed titles, Poulaho was invited on board; nor was he an unwelcome gueſt, for he brought with him as a preſent two fat hogs, though not ſo fat as himſelf. If weight of body could give weight in rank or power, he was certainly the moſt eminent man in that reſpect who had been ſeen; for, though not very tall, he was very unwieldy, and almoſt ſhapeleſs with corpulence. He appeared to be a ſedate, ſenſible man, viewed the ſhip and the ſeveral new objects with uncommon attention, and aſked many pertinent queſtions.

Poulaho ſoon became as ſolicitous himſelf as his people were, to convince his new friends that he was king, and not Fenou, who had paſſed with them as ſuch:

ſuch: for he ſoon perceived they had ſome doubts about it, which Omai, from his attachment to Fenou, was not very deſirous of removing. Poulaho ſat down to table, ate little, drank leſs, and, on riſing, deſired the commander to accompany him on ſhore. This was accordingly complied with, after preſenting him with ſuch articles as he was obſerved to value moſt, and were even beyond his expectation to receive. This munificence was however amply compenſated both by preſents and honours, as ſoon as they reached the ſhore. The commander was placed at his ſide, while he received the ſeveral articles his people had got by trading on board the ſhips. At length he ordered every thing to be reſtored to the reſpective owners, except a glaſs bowl, with which he was ſo much pleaſed, that he reſerved it to himſelf.

The perſons who brought theſe things to him firſt ſquatted themſelves down before him, then depoſited their ſeveral purchaſes, and immediately roſe up and retired. The ſame reſpectful ceremony was obſerved in taking them away, and not one of them preſumed to ſpeak to him ſtanding. The commander ſtaid till ſeveral of his attendants left him, firſt paying him obedience, by bowing the head down to the ſoles of his feet, and touching or tapping the ſame with the upper and under ſide of the fingers of both hands.—The commander was charmed with the decorum that was obſerved, and declared that he had no where ſeen the like, even amongſt more civilized nations.

The king continued to heap favours on his new friend, and, in particular, preſented the commander with one of their caps, which were known to be valued at Otaheite, one of the places of their future deſtination. Theſe caps, or rather bonnets, are compoſed of the tail feathers of the tropic bird, with the red feathers of the parroquets wrought upon them, or jointly with them. After various courſes, hazards, and difficulties, they arrived and landed at Kotoo, in order to examine that iſland.

It is ſcarcely acceſſible by boats on account of the coral reefs that ſurround it. It is not more than a mile and a half, or two miles long, and not ſo broad. The north-weſt end of it is low, like the iſlands of Hapaee, but it riſes ſuddenly in the middle, and terminates in reddiſh clayey cliffs at the ſouth-eaſt end about thirty feet high. The ſoil in that quarter is of the ſame ſort as in the cliffs; but in the other parts, it is a looſe black mould. It produces the ſame fruits and roots which were found at the other iſlands, and is tolerably cultivated, but thinly inhabited.

CHAP. VII.

ISLANDS BETWEEN THE EQUATOR AND THE SOUTHERN TROPIC.

Their Situation, Productions, Manners of the Natives, and other Particulars.

AS ſome of theſe are comprehended under the liſt of the Friendly Iſlands, as ſuch they will be pointed out and firſt attended to.

From the beſt accounts, we may include not only the groupe at Hapaee, viſited by our late navigators, but thoſe diſcovered nearly under the ſame meridian to the north, as well as ſome others under the dominion of Tongataboo, which though not the largeſt, is the capital ſeat of government.

This archipelago muſt be very extenſive, for the natives reckoned a great number of iſlands; fifteen of them were ſaid to be very lofty.

The principal of thoſe ſeen on the laſt voyage have been deſcribed, viz. Eooa, Annamooka, Hapaee, and Tongataboo.

Plyſtart-Iſland was ſo called by Taſman who firſt ſaw it. The name ſignifies arrow-tail. This iſland lies in latitude 22 deg. 26 min. ſouth, and longitude 170 deg. 59 min. weſt; it is mountainous, barren, and about two or three miles in circumference.

Ammattafoa. From the appearance of a thick ſmoke ariſing from this iſland, and a fire iſſuing from it in the night, it was concluded that there was a volcano upon it, and this opinion was confirmed by information received from the natives that the appearances are conſtant. Near to this iſland is a high peak called Oghoa. They are both inhabited, ſeem barren, and are about twelve leagues diſtant from Annamooka.

It is ſuppoſed by captain Cook, that Prince William's Iſlands, diſcovered and ſo named by Taſman, are included in this liſt; and aſſigns as a reaſon, that while he lay at Hapaee, he received information from one of the natives, that at the diſtance of three or four days ſail from thence to the north-weſt, there was a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, and this account correſponds with that given in Taſman's voyage. From the beſt information our late navigators could obtain, the moſt conſiderable in this neighbourhood are Hamod, Vavaoo, and Feejee. Each of theſe was repreſented to them as larger than Tongataboo: our countrymen in their late voyages did not viſit them.

Hamoa lies two days ſail north-weſt from Vavaoo. It is ſaid to be the largeſt of all their iſlands; affords harbours and good water, and produces in abundance all the articles of refreſhment that are found at the places our people viſited. Poulaho frequently reſides upon this iſland; and the people here are in high eſtimation at Tongataboo.

Feejee lies in the direction of north-weſt by weſt, about three days ſail from Tongataboo. It abounds with hogs, dogs, fowls, and ſuch fruits and roots as are to be found in any of the others, and is much larger than Tongataboo; but not ſubject to its dominion, as the other iſlands of this archipelago are. Feejee and Tongataboo frequently engage in war againſt each other; and the inhabitants of the latter are often ſo much afraid of this enemy, that they bend the body forward, and cover the face with their hands, to expreſs the ſenſe of their own inferiority to the Feejee men. This is, indeed, no matter of ſurpriſe, for thoſe of Feejee have rendered themſelves formidable, by their dexterity in the uſe of bows and ſlings; but more ſo, by their ſavage practice of eating ſuch of their enemies as they kill in battle. Extreme hunger, ſome ſay, firſt occaſioned men to feed on human fleſh; but where could be the inducement for the Feejee people to continue it in the midſt of plenty? It is held in deteſtation by the inhabitants of Tongataboo, who ſeem to cultivate the friendſhip of their ſavage neighbours of Feejee through fear; though they, occaſionally, venture to ſkirmiſh with them on their own territory, and carry off large quantities of red feathers as trophies. When a profound peace reigns between the two iſlands, they have frequent intercourſe together; though, it is probable, they have not long been known to each other; or, it might be ſuppoſed, that Tongataboo, and its neighbouring iſlands, would, before this time, have been ſupplied with a breed of dogs, which are numerous at Feejee, and were not introduced at Tongataboo, when firſt viſited by our countrymen in 1773.

The colour of the natives of Feejee met with here, was a ſhade darker than any of the inhabitants of the other Friendly Iſlands. One of the natives was ſeen, who had his left ear ſlit, and the lobe ſo ſtretched, that it almoſt extended to his ſhoulder; which ſingularity had been obſerved at other iſlands in the South Seas during a former voyage. The Feejee men were much reverenced here; not only on account of their power

power and cruelty in war, but alſo for their ingenuity; for they greatly excelled the inhabitants of Tongataboo in workmanſhip. Specimens were ſhewn of their clubs and ſpears which were ingeniouſly carved. Some of their beautiful chequered cloth, variegated mats, earthen pots, and other articles, alſo diſplayed a ſuperiority in the execution.

Feejee, as before obſerved, is three days ſail from Tongataboo; theſe people having no other method of expreſſing the diſtance from iſland to iſland, but by mentioning the time required for the voyage in one of their canoes. That this might be aſcertained with ſome preciſion, captain Cook ſailed in one of their canoes, and by repeated trials with the log, found that ſhe went cloſe hauled, in a gentle gale, ſeven miles in an hour. He judged from this, they could ſail, with ſuch breezes as in general blow in their ſeas, ſeven or eight miles an hour on an average. Each day, however, is not to be reckoned at twenty-four hours; for when they talk of one day's ſail, they mean no more than from the morning to the evening, or ten or twelve hours at the moſt. From the morning of the firſt day till the evening of the ſecond, is, with them, two days ſail. In the day, they are guided by the ſun; and, in the night, by ſtars, When theſe are obſcured, they can only have recourſe to the points from whence the winds and waves come upon the veſſel. If, at that time, the winds and waves ſhould ſhift, they are quite bewildered, often miſſing their intended port, and ſometimes are never heard of more.

Traitors, or Keppel's Iſland, lying in 15 deg. 55 min. latitude; 175 deg. 3 min. longitude weſt, is three miles and a half in extent and two in breadth. It was ſeen by Le Mair in 1716, and by him named The Iſland of Traitors. When Captain Wallis arrived here, in the Dolphin, in 1765, he found a good landing place. The natives appear to be of a diſpoſition ſimilar to that of thoſe of the Friendly Iſlands in general, and reſemble them in the clothing and the amputation of the little fingers. At that time no hogs were ſeen upon this iſland, and the refreſhments procured were trifling.

The reaſon that captain Cook comprehends both this, and the following, called Boſcawen's Iſland, in the liſt, ariſes from the following circumſtances. Enquiring one day of Poulaho, the king, in what manner the inhabitants of Tongataboo had acquired the knowledge of iron, and from what quarter they had procured a ſmall iron tool, which he had ſeen amongſt them when he firſt viſited their iſland; he was informed they had received it from an iſland, which he called Neeootabootaboo. On a more minute enquiry, the king ſaid, that one of thoſe iſlanders ſold a club for five nails to ſome of the crew of a ſhip that had touched there, and that theſe five nails were afterwards ſent to Tongataboo. He added, that this was the firſt iron known amongſt them, ſo that what Taſman left of the metal, muſt have been worn out and forgotten long ago. On enquiring further, the principal facts appeared to be freſh in his memory; he ſaid there was but one ſhip, that ſhe did not come to anchor, but left the iſland after her boat had been on ſhore. From ſeveral particulars which he mentioned, it could not be many years ſince this had happened. It appeared, further, from his account, that there were two iſlands near each other, at which he had been himſelf. The one he deſcribed as high and peaked, like Kao, and he called it Kootahee; the other, where the people of the ſhip landed, called Neeootabootaboo, he repreſented as much lower. He added, that the natives of both were the ſame ſort of people with thoſe of Tongataboo; and built their canoes in the ſame manner; that their iſland had hogs and fowls, and in general the ſame vegetable productions. Upon the whole, it appeared evident to captain Cook, that the ſhips ſo pointedly referred to, in this converſation, could be no other than the Dolphin, the only ſhip from Europe, as far as could be learned, that had touched, of late years, at any iſland in this part of the Pacific Ocean, prior to his former viſit of the Friendly Iſlands.

Cocos, or Boſcawen's-Iſland. This iſland received the former name from Le Mair and Schouten, who firſt viſited it in 1716, and the latter from captain Wallis, who ſaw it the ſame voyage as he did the foregoing. It lies in latitude 15 deg. 50 min. ſouth, and longitude 175 deg. weſt. The natives of this, as well as Traitor's-Iſland, are of a ſavage diſpoſition. Their clothing conſiſts of ruſhes or mats; they have their hair in different forms, and are robuſt and well proportioned. The flaps of their ears are ſlit, and hang down almoſt to the ſhoulders. They wear whiſkers and a ſhort tuft under the chin, and their bodies are punctured or tattowed.

When the firſt Europeans arrived at this ſpot, one of the chiefs put off from the ſhore, in a canoe, covered with a mat in the form of a tent, and accompanied by a number of people in thirty canoes. As they approached Schouten's ſhip, the chief cried out three times with a loud voice, and at the fourth all the attendants joined him. He preſented the commander with a paper dreſs and a fine mat, for which he received due compenſation. Theſe people ſoon gave proofs of an irreſiſtible propenſity to theft, attempting to pilfer every thing they ſaw; they even tried to draw out the nails from the ſhip's ſide with their teeth; nay, ſome ſwam under the very keel, and ſtrove to draw the nails from thence, till being fired at they deſiſted. A vaſt number of them, however, next day put off from ſhore with ſome hogs, bananas, fowls, and cocoa nuts, of which they have plenty. When the chief, or Latow, as he is there called, gave the ſignal from his double canoe, there was a general ſhout, followed by a volley of ſtones thrown on board the ſhip. The chief, indeed, was ſo abſurd as to ſuppoſe that he could run down the ſhip with his canoe, and made the ridiculous attempt, in which he ſtruck the head of it to pieces. This exaſperated the ſavages, and they renewed the attack, but they were ſoon put to flight, by the diſcharge of ſmall arms and a few great guns.

Hervey-Iſland, ſo called by captain Cook, in honour of the earl of Briſtol, was diſcovered by him in 1773. It is ſituated low, in latitude 19 deg. 8 min. ſouth, longitude 158 deg. 4 min. weſt. On his laſt voyage, our people obſerved, on their approach, ſeveral canoes coming from the ſhore towards the ſhips, a circumſtance which occaſioned much ſurpriſe, as no traces or ſigns of inhabitants were ſeen when the iſland was firſt diſcovered. It might, indeed, be owing to a briſk gale that then blew, and prevented their canoes from coming out. Thoſe that came off, ſtopped at a ſhort diſtance from the veſſel: it was with difficulty they were prevailed on to come along ſide, but could not be induced, by any means, to come on board. They ſoon, however, began to evince their propenſity to theft, ſo prevalent in this part of the globe, in ſtealing oars, cutting away a net, containing meat, that hung over the ſtern of one of the ſhips, and other acts of a like nature. But it appeared that they had a knowledge of bartering, for they exchanged ſome fiſh for ſome of our ſmall nails, of which they were extravagantly fond, and called them *goore*. Pieces of paper, or any trifling article that was thrown to them, they caught with the greateſt avidity; and if what was thrown fell into the ſea, they immediately plunged in to ſwim after it.

The colour of the natives of Hervey-Iſland, is of a deep caſt, and ſeveral of them had a fierce ſavage aſpect, like the natives of New Zealand, though ſome were fairer. Their hair was long and black, either hanging looſe about their ſhoulders, or tied in a bunch on the top of the head. Some few, indeed, had it cropped ſhort, and in two or three of them, it was of a red

a red or browniſh colour. Their clothing was a narrow piece of mat, bound ſeveral times round the lower part of the body, and paſſing between the thighs. A fine cap of red feathers was ſeen lying in one of the canoes, and ſome amongſt them were ornamented with the ſhell of a pearl-oyſter, poliſhed and hung about the neck.

The boats that were ſent to reconnoitre the coaſt, could advance no further than the other edge of the reef, which was computed almoſt a quarter of a mile from the dry land. A number of the natives came upon the reef, armed with clubs and long pikes, meaning, as was ſuppoſed, to oppoſe the people's landing; though, at the ſame time, they threw cocoa-nuts to them, and requeſted them to come on ſhore. Notwithſtanding this ſeeming friendly treatment, the women were very active in bringing down a freſh ſupply of darts and ſpears.

Captain Cook diſcovered Palmerſton's-Iſland in 1774. It lies in latitude 18 deg. 4 min. ſouth, and longitude 163 deg. 10 min. weſt. This iſland conſiſts of a groupe of ſmall iſlets, about nine or ten in number, connected by a reef of coral rocks, and lying in a circular direction. It appeared from obſervation made by ſome of our people in going on ſhore upon the laſt voyage, that the iſland does not exceed a mile in circumference, and is not elevated above three feet beyond the level of the ſea. It conſiſts almoſt entirely of a coral ſand, with a ſmall mixture of blackiſh mould, which appeared to be produced from rotten vegetables.

The ſoil, poor as it is, however, is covered with ſhrubs and buſhes; a great number of man of war birds, tropic birds, and alſo two ſorts of boobies were perceived, which were then laying their eggs, and ſo exceedingly tame as to ſuffer themſelves to be taken off their neſts, which conſiſted only of a few ſticks looſely put together. Theſe tropic birds differ eſſentially from the common ſort, being of a beautiful white, ſlightly tinged with red, and having two long tail-feathers of a deepiſh crimſon. Our people killed a conſiderable number of each ſort, which, though not the moſt delicate kind of food, were highly acceptable to ſuch as had been a long time confined to a ſalt diet. There were plenty of red crabs creeping among the trees; and ſeveral fiſh caught, which, when the ſea retreated, had been left in holes upon the reef.

At one part of the reef, which bounds the lake within, almoſt even with the ſurface, there appeared a large bed of coral, which afforded a moſt enchanting proſpect. Its baſe, which was fixed to the ſhore, extended ſo far that it could not be ſeen, ſo that it appeared to be ſuſpended in the water. The ſea was then unruffled, and the refulgence of the ſun expoſed the various ſorts of coral, in the moſt beautiful order; ſome parts luxuriantly branching into the water; others appearing in vaſt variety of figures; and the whole greatly heightened by ſpangles of the richeſt colours, glowing from a number of large clams interſperſed in every part. Even this delightful ſcene was greatly improved by the multitude of fiſhes, whoſe colours were the moſt beautiful that can be imagined; blue, yellow, red, &c. far excelling any thing that can be produced by art. The richneſs of this view was greatly increaſed by their various forms; and the whole could not poſſibly be ſurveyed without a moſt pleaſing tranſport.

No traces could be diſcovered of inhabitants having been here, except a piece of a canoe that was found upon the beach; and probably that might have been drifted from ſome other iſland. Some ſmall brown rats were found on this iſland; a circumſtance, perhaps, not eaſily accounted for, unleſs the poſſibility of their being imported in the canoe, of which the remains were ſeen, be admitted.

An ample ſupply was found here for the ſubſiſtence of the cattle, conſiſting principally of tender branches of the wharra-tree, palm-tree, palm-cabbage, and young cocoa-nut trees. Amongſt the great number of fiſh found upon the reefs, were ſome beautiful large ſpotted eels, which would raiſe themſelves out of the water, and endeavour to bite their purſuers. There were alſo ſnappers, parrot-fiſh, and a brown ſpotted rock-fiſh, not larger than a haddock, ſo tame that it would remain fixed, and gaze at the people. If they had been really in want, a ſufficient ſupply might eaſily have been had. There were alſo ſome ſhell-fiſh; and when the tide flowed, ſeveral ſharks came with it, ſome of which were killed by our people; but their preſence rendered it, at that time, unſafe to walk in the water. Muſquetoes abound here.

The iſlets, comprehended under the name of Palmerſton's-Iſland, may be ſaid to be the ſummits of a reef of coral rock, covered only with a thin coat of ſand; though clothed with trees and plants, like the low grounds of the high iſlands of this ocean.

In their courſe to Annamooka, our late navigators paſſed the following places.

Savage-Iſland, diſcovered by captain Cook in 1774. It lies in latitude 19 deg. 1 min. ſouth, and longitude 169 deg. 37 min. weſt. On his firſt landing, the inhabitants diſcovered a moſt ſavage ferocity, and withſtood every poſſible intimation of good will. They gave ſuch evident tokens of hoſtile deſigns in darting a ſpear, which grazed the commander's ſhoulder, and other inſtances, that a party poſted on a rock, to ſecure a retreat in caſe of an attack, found it neceſſary to fire on the natives to reſcue him, and thoſe who were with him, from impending deſtruction. —From the general aſpect and conduct of theſe iſlanders, captain Cook was induced to call this ſpot Savage-Iſland. It is in circuit about ſeven leagues, of a round form, good height, and has deep water cloſe to its ſhores. As no ſoil was to be ſeen towards the coaſts, and the rocks alone ſupplied the trees with moiſture, the interior parts are ſuppoſed to be barren.

Eimeo, or Wallis's Duke of York's Iſland, was firſt diſcovered by captain Wallis in 1767. It was viſited by captain Cook in 1777. The harbour, which is called Taloo, is ſituated on the north ſide of the iſland. It runs between the hills about two miles ſouth, or ſouth by eaſt. For ſafety and ſoundneſs of bottom it is pronounced by our navigators equal to any harbour met with in this ocean, to which is added this peculiar convenience, that a veſſel can ſail both in and out with the reigning trade wind. A rivulet falls into it ſufficiently capacious to admit boats a quarter of a mile up, where the water was found perfectly freſh. The banks of the rivulet are covered with what the natives call the Pooroo tree, which is in no eſtimation, and ſolely uſed for firing. From theſe two cauſes wood and water abound here.—There is another harbour called Parowroah, about two miles to the eaſtward on the ſame ſide of the iſland. Though much larger within than Taloo, the opening in the reef lies to leeward of it, and is in no degree ſo wide. From theſe two defects the harbour of Taloo is evidently ſuperior. On the ſouth ſide of the iſland are one or two more harbours, but they are inconſiderable compared with thoſe above deſcribed.

The natives of the Duke of York's Iſland are a ſtout, robuſt, well-made people, of a light copper colour; none of them could be called black; they go entirely naked. The hair is woolly; but it is ſo managed by ſome ſort of greaſe or ointment, and a white or red powder with which they dreſs it, that it hangs on ſome like ſo many candle-wicks, or rather like the thrums of a new mop reverſed, or turned upſide down: they are generally as fully powdered as a beau dreſſed for an aſſembly; ſome have their hair of a yellow, ſun-burnt colour; others quite red,

as if powdered wholly with the true marechall; none are ſeen with the hair of its natural colour. This yellow or red appearance, we believe, may be occaſioned by an univerſal method of powdering, for the powder ſeems to be made from burnt ſhells or coral, and is really a kind of lime: they generally carry a ſmall gourd or box filled with it about them; and when they are hoſtilely diſpoſed, they frequently take a quantity of this powder into the hollow of the hand, from which, with a ſtrong blaſt from the mouth, they blow it before them; and at a ſmall diſtance it has exactly the appearance of firing gunpowder, and no doubt ſo meant as a token of defiance.

Their chief, upon hoſtile occaſions, powdered his body all over, ſo that it was no difficult matter to diſcover him; they alſo upon ſuch occaſions painted their faces red; ſome had marks upon their arms and ſhoulders, cauſed by ſcarifying thoſe parts in long ſtripes, and letting the ſore riſe above the ſurface of the ſkin. They frequently wore a bone or reed thruſt through the ſeptum of the noſe, and, like the natives of Lord Howe's Group, had alſo holes cut through the wings of the noſe, into which were fixed ſhort pieces of hollow reed, as ladies wear wires to keep the ears open when newly bored; into theſe hollows or rings they occaſionally ſtuck long pieces of reed, which are no doubt conſidered by them as ornamental. The men in general were well-looking people; but the women are remarkable for being of a dark hue, low of ſtature, and diſagreeable features.

Numbers of the natives came on board the European veſſels as ſoon as they had anchored, from mere curioſity, as appeared by their bringing out commodities for the purpoſe of traffic. Several canoes, however, arrived the next day from more remote quarters with an abundant ſupply of bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, and a few hogs, which were exchanged for beads, nails, and hatchets.

Maheme, the chief of the iſland, accompanied by his wife, viſited the commander on board; but through extreme caution and deliberation, betrayed much diſtruſt. They were preſented with ſuch articles as appeared moſtly to engage their attention, which they took with them on ſhore, and returned with a hog in compenſation; but received an additional preſent to its full value. This chief was between forty and fifty years of age, and bald headed, which in theſe iſlands was rather ſingular at that time of life. He ſeemed deſirous of concealing this baldneſs, as he wore a turban, from whence it was inferred, that it was held diſgraceful; a very probable ſuppoſition, as one of the natives had his head ſhaved as a puniſhment for theft. This propenſity to pilfering prevailed here in common with the iſlanders in general, and the loſs of a goat on the part of the Europeans had nearly been attended with the moſt ſerious conſequences. The natives were guilty of great duplicity of conduct upon this occaſion. The chief retired to a remote part of the iſland; their replies were equivocal on demanding reſtoration of the animal, inſomuch that it was deemed expedient to ſend on ſhore an armed party which drove the natives before them. However, as aſſurance was given them of their ſafety, it put a ſtop to their flight. Perſiſting in their denial of any knowledge of the animal, ſix or eight of their houſes were ſet on fire, two or three canoes were conſumed, and a meſſenger was diſpatched to Maheme with a peremptory declaration, that on his refuſing immediate reſtoration of the goat, a ſingle canoe ſhould not be left on the iſland, nor ſhould hoſtilities ceaſe while the ſtolen animal continued in his poſſeſſion. Theſe means had the deſired effect; the goat was returned—and, it appeared from good intelligence, that it was brought from the very place where the inhabitants, but the day before, declared their total ignorance of the matter.

This iſland, in its produce, is nearly the ſame with that of thoſe adjoining. The country is hilly, has little low land except ſome vallies, and the flat border that almoſt ſurrounds the ſea. Theſe hills, though rocky, are generally covered almoſt to their tops with trees. At the bottom of Taloo harbour the ground gradually riſes to the foot of the hills, but the flat border on each ſide becomes quite ſteep at a very ſmall diſtance from the ſea. This gives it a romantic caſt, pleaſing to the view. In the low grounds the ſoil is of a yelloviſh ſtiff mould; on the lower hills it is blacker and looſer, and the ſtone that compoſes the hills is of a blueiſh colour, with ſome particles of glimma interſperſed. Near where the veſſels lay were two large ſtones, or rather rocks, concerning which the natives entertain ſome ſuperſtitious notions, conſidering them as brother and ſiſter, and holding them to be *Eatooas*, or Divinities brought thither by ſupernatural agency.

The iſland called O-Heteroa is thirteen miles in circumference, ſituated in latitude 22 deg. 27 min. ſouth, and longitude 150 deg. 47 min. weſt. Though more even and uniform, it is neither ſo populous or fertile as the adjacent iſlands. The inhabitants are not hoſpitable, nor have they any harbour for the accommodation of ſhipping. There is a bay on the weſtern ſide of the iſland; the bottom is foul and rocky; but the water is ſo clear that the bottom can be ſeen at the depth of 25 fathom, or 150 feet. The natives are of an hoſtile diſpoſition, and generally armed with lances near 20 feet long, made of a very hard wood, poliſhed and ſharpened at one end.—They differ much in the form of their dreſs from the other iſlanders, though the materials are the ſame. Some of them wear caps made of the large feathers of the tropic bird, and cover their bodies with ſtripes of different coloured cloth, as yellow, red, and brown. Their habit is a kind of ſhort jacket of cloth, which reaches to the knee. It is of one piece, and having a hole in the middle, with long ſtitches round it, is thereby rendered different from the dreſs of all the other iſlanders. Through this hole the head is put, and the whole being bound round the body by a piece of yellow cloth or ſaſh, that paſſes round the neck behind, is croſſed upon the breaſt, and collected round the waiſt like a belt, which paſſes over another belt of red cloth, ſo that they are repreſented as making a very gay and warlike appearance. They take ſingular pains in adorning their canoes, by the embelliſhments of carving, and ſome rows of white feathers hanging down from head to ſtern.

The Iſlands of Danger, were ſo called by commodore Byron, from the hazard to which a veſſel is expoſed from the rocks and broken ground between them, which being ſo low a ſhip may be cloſe in with them before they are ſeen. They are three in number, and their ſituation is differently laid down by commodore Byron and captain Cook, the former placing them in latitude 12 deg. 33 min. ſouth, longitude 167 deg. 47 min. weſt. The length of the moſt extenſive of theſe iſlands is about three leagues. From the extreme points runs out a reef upon which the ſea breaks to a tremendous height. Innumerable rocks and ſhoals ſtretch near two leagues into the ſea, on the north-weſt and weſt ſides, and are extremely dangerous. Theſe iſlands are populous, and appear fertile and beautiful; but they are ſecluded from inveſtigation by their very dangerous ſituation.

Byron's Duke of York's Iſland, was thus named by commodore Byron, who diſcovered it in 1765. It lies in latitude 8 deg. 41 min. ſouth, and longitude 173 deg. 3 min. weſt. It is a dreary ſpot, uninhabited; a dreadful ſea breaks upon almoſt every part of the coaſt, nor could ſoundings be any where found. The boats landed with great difficulty, and procured ſome cocoa-nuts, which greatly refreſhed the crew, amidſt a dearth of wholeſome food. The iſland appeared as if it never had been trodden by a human

human being before. Innumerable ſea-fowls were ſeen ſitting upon their neſts, built upon high trees; but ſo tame that they ſuffered themſelves to be knocked down without leaving their neſts. No other animal was ſeen but land crabs, with which the ground was covered.

Turtle-Iſland, ſo denominated by captain Cook, who firſt viſited it, from the number of turtles with which it abounded, lies in latitude 19 deg. 48 min. ſouth, and longitude 178 deg. 2 min. weſt.

When Queen Charlotte's Iſlands were firſt diſcovered by captain Carteret, ſeven of them were counted; but there was reaſon to ſuppoſe there were more diſperſed within the cluſter. The water here is excellent; but there is a dearth of wholeſome vegetables. The colour of the natives is black, their hair is woolly, and they go ſtark naked. A party ſent on ſhore upon this iſland by captain Wallis to procure proviſions, by their inſolent behaviour, brought upon themſelves the reſentment of the natives, and thereupon enſued a ſkirmiſh, in which the maſter of the ſhip, and three ſeamen were wounded by arrows, and afterwards died, while the Dolphin lay here. To protect the Engliſh on ſhore from the fury of the natives, grape ſhot was fired from the ſhip's guns, which ſo intimidated them, that they abandoned that part of the iſland, and left the people to fill water without annoyance. The commander was not acceſſary to the carnage, as the inſult given to the natives was contrary to his expreſs orders, and he was under an indiſpenſible neceſſity of procuring water by any means. The inhabitants are very nimble and vigorous, and of an amphibious compound, as they were in and out of their canoes every minute. Theſe iſlands lie in latitude 11 deg. longitude 164 deg. eaſt.

Byron's-Iſland, was ſo called from commodore Byron, who diſcovered it in 1765; it lies in 1 deg. 18 min. ſouth latitude, and 170 deg. 50 min. eaſt longitude. There being no part favourable for anchorage, the people could not go on ſhore, nor procure any refreſhments. It was ſuppoſed to be about four leagues in extent, and was evidently very populous, for as ſoon as the veſſels came in ſight, the natives aſſembled on the beach, to the number of above a thouſand, and more than ſixty canoes put off from the ſhore, made towards it, and ranged themſelves in a circle round it. Having gazed for ſome time, one of the people jumped out, ſwam to the ſhip, and ran up the ſide like a cat. Having ſtepped over the gunwale he ſat down upon it, burſt into a fit of exceſſive laughter, and ſtarting up ſuddenly, ran up and down the ſhip, ſeemingly deſirous of ſtealing whatever he could lay his hands on, but could not effect his deſign, as being ſtark naked it was impoſſible to conceal his booty. Much merriment was produced on the ſailors dreſſing him in a jacket and trowſers, as he then diſplayed all the droll geſticulations of an ape. He was ready enough to eat, with a moſt voracious appetite, ſome bread which was given him; and having played a number of antic tricks, leaped over in his new garb, and ſwam to his canoe.

The natives of this iſland are of good ſtature, proportion, and features. Their complexion is of a bright copper, and the mixture of cheerfulneſs and intrepidity, diſcoverable in their countenances, ſtrikes the beholder. They have long black hair; ſome had long beards, others only whiſkers, and others nothing more than a ſmall tuft at the point of the chin. They were all ſtark naked except ſome ornaments, which conſiſted of ſhells fancifully diſpoſed and ſtrung together, which they wore round their necks, wriſts, and waiſts. Their ears were perforated, but they had no ornaments in them, though it ſeemed as if they had worn very heavy ones, for their ears hung down almoſt to their ſhoulders, and ſome were ſplit quite through. A perſon amongſt them of apparent importance, had a ſtring of human teeth tied about his waiſt, which was ſuppoſed to be a badge of his valour, as he would not part with it upon any conſideration. Some were armed with a kind of ſpear very broad at the end, and ſtuck full of ſhark's teeth, which were as ſharp as a lancet. They were of a ſavage diſpoſition; for when our people ſhewed them ſome cocoa-nuts, and indicated, by ſigns, that they wanted more, inſtead of ſupplying them, they diſcovered a deſire of depriving them of thoſe few they had remaining; ſo that we could expect no friendſhip to be eſtabliſhed with them.

CHAP. VIII.

OF THE ISLANDS OF MANGEEA, WATEEOO, AND OTAKOOTAIA.

The Soil, Manners, Diſpoſition, Dreſs, and Cuſtoms of the Natives.

MANGEEA, or MANGYA, is ſituated in 21 deg. 59 min. ſouth latitude, and 201 deg. 53 min. eaſt longitude, and was diſcovered by captain Cook in March 1777. As an attempt to land from boats appeared impracticable, on account of the ſurf, and no bottom could be found for anchorage, till they came within a cable's length of the breakers, our late navigators were obliged to leave this iſland unviſited. However, thoſe parts of the coaſt that fell under obſervation are guarded by a reef of coral rock, againſt which a heavy ſurf is continually breaking.

This iſland is about five leagues in circumference; and though of a moderate and pretty equal height, may be ſeen in clear weather at the diſtance of ten leagues. In the interior parts it riſes into ſmall hills, whence there is an eaſy deſcent to the ſhore, which, in the ſouth-weſt part, is ſteep, though not very high, and has ſeveral excavations made by the daſhing of the waves againſt a browniſh ſand ſtone, of which it conſiſts. The deſcent here abounds with trees of a deep green, which ſeem to be all of one ſort, except neareſt the ſhore, where was obſerved a number of that ſpecies, found in the woods of New Zealand. The ſhore on the north-weſt part terminates in a ſandy beach, beyond which the land is broken into ſmall chaſms, and has a broad border of trees, which reſemble tall willows. Further upon the aſcent, the trees were of the deep green before mentioned. Some trees of the higher ſorts were thinly ſcattered on the hills, the other parts of which were either covered with ſomething like fern, or were bare, and of a reddiſh colour.

This iſland, upon the whole, has a pleaſing appearance, and might, by proper cultivation, be made a beautiful ſpot. From the numbers and aſpect of the natives, it is highly probable, that ſuch articles of proviſion as the iſland produces, are found in great abundance. Our countrymen were informed, that they had no hogs or dogs, though they had heard of both thoſe animals; but that they had plantains, taro, and bread-fruit. The only birds obſerved were ſome terns, noddies, white egg-birds, and one white heron.

As our people approached the ſhore, they ſaw many of the natives running along the beach, and, by the aſſiſtance of glaſſes, could perceive that they were armed with long ſpears and clubs, which they brandiſhed in the air with ſigns of threatening, but, as ſome ſuppoſed, with invitations to land. Moſt of them were naked, except having a kind of girdle, which was brought up between the thighs; but ſome of them wore about their ſhoulders pieces of cloth

cloth of various colours, white, ſtriped, or chequered; and almoſt all of them had about their heads a white wrapper, in ſome degree reſembling a turban. They were of a tawny complexion, robuſt, and about the middle ſize.

A man getting into a ſmall canoe, at a diſtant part of the beach, put off, as with a view of reaching the ſhip; but his courage failing, he quickly returned towards the ſhore. Another man ſoon after joined him in the canoe; and then both of them paddled towards it. They ſeemed, however, afraid to approach, till their apprehenſions were partly removed by Omai, who addreſſed them in a language they underſtood. Thus encouraged, they came near enough to receive nails and beads, which, being tied to ſome wood, were thrown into the canoe. They, however, put the wood aſide without untying the things from it, which might perhaps have proceeded from ſuperſtition; for Omai told our people, that when they obſerved them offering preſents, they requeſted ſomething for their *Eatooa*. On being aſked by Omai, whether they ever eat human fleſh, they replied in the negative, with equal abhorrence and indignation. One of them, named Mourooa, being queſtioned with regard to a ſcar on his forehead, ſaid, it was the conſequence of a wound he had received in fighting with the natives of an iſland lying towards the north-eaſt, the people of which ſometimes invaded them. They afterwards laid hands on a rope but would not venture on board, telling Omai, that their countrymen on ſhore had ſuggeſted to them this caution; and had likewiſe directed them to enquire when our ſhip came, and to learn the name of the captain. Their chief, they ſaid, was called Orooaeeka, the name of the iſland *Mangya* or *Mangeea*, to which they ſometimes added *nwoe*, *nai*, *naiwa*.

We perceived one of the natives to be rather corpulent; and, though not tall, well proportioned. As his perſon was agreeable, ſo was his diſpoſition; this appeared from ſome droll geſticulations, which indicated humour and good nature. He alſo made others of a ſerious kind, and repeated ſome words with an air of devotion, before he would venture to take hold of the rope at the ſtern of the ſhip. His complexion was nearly of the ſame caſt with that of the natives of the moſt ſouthern parts of Europe. His companion was not ſo handſome. They both had ſtrong, ſtraight, black hair, tied together on the top of their heads with a piece of white cloth. They had long beards; and the inſide of their arms, from the elbow to the ſhoulder, and ſome other parts, were tatooed or punctured. The lobes of their ears were ſlit to ſuch a length, that one of them ſtuck a knife and ſome beads that were given him in them. The ſame perſon had hung about his neck, by way of ornament, two poliſhed pearl ſhells, and a bunch of human hair, looſely twiſted together. They wore a kind of girdle, of a ſubſtance manufactured from the *morus papyrifera*, and glazed like thoſe uſed in the Friendly Iſlands. They had on their feet a ſort of ſandals, made of a graſſy ſubſtance interwoven, which were obſerved to be all worn by thoſe ſeen on the beach.

The canoe in which they came, was the only one of the natives ſeen; it was very narrow, and not above ten feet long, but ſtrong and neatly made. The lower part was of white wood, but the upper part black; and their paddles were made of wood of the ſame colour; theſe were broad at one end, and blunted, and about three feet long. The fore part had a flat board faſtened over it, which projected out, to prevent the water from getting in. It had an upright ſtern, five feet high, which terminated at top in a kind of fork. They paddled indifferently either end of the canoe forward.

While the Engliſh officers were employed in reconnoitring the coaſt in two boats, the natives thronged down upon the reef all armed. Mourooa, who was in the boat with captain Cook, thinking, perhaps, that this warlike appearance deterred them from landing, commanded his own people to retire. As many of them complied, it was imagined that he was a perſon of ſome conſequence. Several of them, inſtigated by curioſity, ſwam from the ſhore to the boats, and came on board them without reſerve. It was difficult to keep them out, and prevent their pilfering whatever they could lay hands upon. At length, when they obſerved our people returning to the ſhips, they all departed, except Mourooa, who, though not without manifeſt indication of fear, accompanied the commodore on board the Reſolution. The cattle and other new objects that he ſaw there, did not ſtrike him with much ſurpriſe; his mind, perhaps, being too much occupied about his own ſafety, to allow him to attend to other things. He ſeemed very uneaſy, gave but little new intelligence; and therefore, after he had continued a ſhort time on board, captain Cook ordered a boat to carry him towards the land. In his way out of the cabin, happening to ſtumble over one of the goats, he ſtopped, looked at the animal, and aſked Omai what bird it was; but not receiving an immediate anſwer from him, he put the ſame queſtion to ſome of the people who were upon deck. The boat having conveyed him near the ſurf, he leaped into the water, and ſwam aſhore. His countrymen, eager to learn what he had ſeen, flocked round him as ſoon as he had landed, in which ſituation they remained till our people loſt ſight of them.

Theſe iſlanders ſpeak a language reſembling that ſpoken at Otaheite, but their pronunciation is more guttural, and they have ſome words peculiar to themſelves. It was remarked, that they ſeemed to reſemble the natives of Otaheite in their perſons more than any other nation ſeen in theſe ſeas, having a ſmooth ſkin, and not being muſcular. Their general diſpoſition and method of living, as far as there were opportunities of judging, were ſuppoſed to be ſimilar. One houſe was obſerved near the beach. It was pleaſantly ſituated in a grove of trees, and appeared to be about thirty feet long, and ſeven or eight feet high, with an open end. Their mode of ſalutation is that of joining noſes, with the additional ceremony of taking the hand of the perſon whom they ſalute, and rubbing it with a degree of warmth upon their noſe and mouth.

Wateeoo was diſcovered alſo by captain Cook in 1777, is ſituated in latitude 20 deg. 1 min. ſouth, and longitude 201 deg. 45 min. eaſt. It is a beautiful ſpot, about ſix leagues in circuit, with a ſurface covered with verdure, and compoſed of hills and plains. The ſoil in ſome parts is light and ſandy, but on the riſing ground of a reddiſh caſt.

Soon after the arrival of the European veſſels, ſeveral of the natives put off from the ſhore in ſeveral canoes, and came alongſide of them. Their canoes are long and narrow, and ſupported with out-riggers; the head is flat above, but prow-like below, and the ſtern about four feet high. They ſeemed to have no idea of barter or traffic; as after having received ſome preſents of knives, beads, and other trifles, they gave our people ſome cocoa-nuts, in conſequence of having aſked for them, but not by way of exchange.—One of them with a little perſuaſion came on board, and others ſoon followed his example. They appeared to be perfectly free from all apprehenſion of danger. When introduced into the cabin, and conducted to other parts of the ſhip, though ſome objects ſeemed to ſurpriſe them, nothing could fix their attention. They were afraid to venture near the cows and horſes, of whoſe nature they could form no conception. As for the ſheep and goats, they gave the ſeamen to underſtand, that they knew them to be birds, a moſt aſtoniſhing proof of their ignorance, and total want of conception. Though the commodore beſtowed on his new friends what he ſuppoſed would

would be moſt acceptable, yet they ſeemed rather diſappointed.

Such of the natives as were ſeen in theſe canoes, were in general of the middle ſtature, and not unlike thoſe of Mangeea. Their hair either flowed looſe over their ſhoulders, or was tied on the crown of the head; and though in ſome it ſome it was frizzed, yet that, as well as the ſtraight ſort, was long. Some of the young men were handſome. Like the inhabitants of Mangeea, they wore girdles of glazed cloth, or fine matting, the ends of which were brought between their thighs. Their ears were bored, and they wore about their necks, by way of ornament, a ſort of broad graſs, ſtained with red, and ſtrung with berries of the night-ſhade. They were punctured or tatooed from the middle downwards, particularly upon their legs, which made them appear as if they wore boots. Their beards were long, and they had a kind of ſandals on their feet. They were frank and cheerful in their deportment, and very friendly and good natured.

Some cocoa-nuts and plantains, and a hog, were brought in ſome canoes, for which the natives demanded a dog in return, refuſing every other thing offered by way of exchange. Though one of the ſailors had a dog and a bitch, which were great nuiſances in the ſhip, and which might have ſerved to propagate a race of ſo uſeful an animal in this iſland, yet he could not be prevailed upon to part with them. However, to gratify them, Omai gave them a favourite dog he had brought from Great Britain; with which acquiſition they were highly ſatisfied. Now and then ſome of them brought a few cocoa-nuts to the ſhips, and exchanged them for whatever was offered.

The following account of tranſactions, which is very circumſtantial, and includes ſome obſervations on the iſland and its inhabitants, is preſented as a general diſplay.

"Some of our people rowed towards a ſandy beach, where a great number of the natives had aſſembled, and came to anchor at the diſtance of an hundred yards from the reef. Several of the iſlanders ſwam off, bringing cocoa-nuts with them; and Omai gave them to underſtand, that our people were deſirous of landing. Soon after two canoes came off; and to inſpire the natives with greater confidence, they reſolved to go unarmed The conductors of the canoes, watching with great attention the motion of the ſurf, landed them ſafely on the reef. A native took hold of each of them, with a view of ſupporting them in walking over the rugged rocks to the beach, where ſeveral others, holding in their hands the green boughs of a ſpecies of *mimoſa*, met them, and ſaluted them by the junction of noſes. They were conducted from the beach amidſt a vaſt multitude, who flocked round them with the moſt eager curioſity; and being led up an avenue of cocoa-palms, ſoon came to a number of men, arranged in two rows, and armed with clubs.

"Proceeding onward among theſe, they found a perſon who appeared to be a chief, ſitting croſs-legged on the ground, and cooling himſelf with a kind of triangular fan, made from the leaf of the cocoa-palm, with a poliſhed handle of black wood. He wore in his ears large bunches of beautiful feathers of a red colour; but had no other mark to diſtinguiſh him from the reſt of the people. Our countrymen having ſaluted him as he ſat, marched on among the men armed with clubs, and came to a ſecond chief, adorned like the former, and occupied like him in fanning himſelf. He was remarkable for his ſize and corpulence, though he did not appear to be above thirty years of age. They were conducted in the ſame manner to a third chief, who ſeemed older than the two former; he was alſo ſitting, and was ornamented with red feathers. After they had ſaluted him as they had done the others, he deſired them to ſit down; which they willingly conſented to, being greatly fatigued with walking, and with the extreme heat they felt amidſt the ſurrounding multitude. The people being ordered to ſeparate, they ſaw, at a ſmall diſtance, about twenty young women, adorned like the chiefs, with red feathers, engaged in a dance, which they performed to a ſlow and ſolemn air, ſung by them all. They roſe up, and walked forward to ſee theſe dancers, who, without paying them the ſmalleſt attention, ſtill continued their dance. They ſeemed to be directed by a man, who mentioned the ſeveral motions they were to make. They never changed the ſpot, as Europeans do in dancing, though their feet were not entirely at reſt: this exerciſe conſiſted chiefly in moving their fingers very nimbly, holding their hands at the ſame time near the face, and occaſionally clapping them together. Their dancing and ſinging were performed in the exacteſt concert. They were in general very ſtout, and of an olive complexion, with black hair flowing with ringlets down their necks. Their ſhape and limbs were elegantly formed; their dreſs conſiſted only of a piece of glazed cloth, tied round the waiſt, which ſcarcely reached ſo low as the knees. Their features were rather too full to conſtitute a perfect beauty. Their eyes were of a deep black, and their countenances expreſſed a great degree of modeſty and complacency.

"While the dance continued, a noiſe was heard by our countrymen, as if ſome horſes had been galloping towards them; and, on turning their eyes aſide, they ſaw the people armed with clubs, who had been deſired to entertain them, as they ſuppoſed, with an exhibition of their mode of fighting; which they now did, one party purſuing another which ran away.

"One of our people found that the natives pilfered ſeveral trifling things which were in his pocket; and on his complaining of this treatment to the chief, he juſtified their behaviour. From theſe circumſtances it was apprehended, that they deſigned to detain the party among them. In this ſituation he aſked for ſomething to eat; upon which they brought him ſome cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, and a ſort of ſour pudding; and when he complained of the heat, occaſioned by the multitude of people, the chief himſelf condeſcended to fan him. To try whether their ſuſpicions were well founded or not, they attempted to get to the beach; but were ſoon ſtopped by ſome of the natives, who ſaid they muſt return to the place which they had left. On their coming up, they found Omai under the ſame apprehenſions; but he had, as he imagined, an additional motive of terror; for, having obſerved that they had dug a hole in the ground for an oven, which they were now heating, he could aſſign no other reaſon for it, than that they intended to roaſt and devour our party: he even went ſo far as to aſk them whether that was their intention, at which they were much ſurpriſed, aſking, in return, whether that cuſtom prevailed among us. Our party were continually in a crowd, who frequently deſired them to uncover parts of their ſkin, the ſight of which ſtruck the iſlanders with admiration. They at the ſame time rifled their pockets; and one of them ſnatched from an officer a bayonet which hung by his ſide. This being repreſented to one of the chiefs, he pretended to ſend a perſon in ſearch of it, but probably countenanced the theft; for Omai, ſoon after, had a dagger ſtolen from his ſide in the ſame manner.

"They now brought ſome green boughs as emblems of friendſhip, and, ſticking the ends of them in the ground, deſired that our party would hold them as they ſat, giving them to underſtand, that they muſt ſtay and eat with them. The ſight of a pig lying near the oven which they had prepared and heated, removed Omai's apprehenſions of being put into it himſelf, and made him think that it might be intended for the repaſt of him and his friends. The

chief alſo ſent of his people to provide food for the cattle, and they returned with a few plantain trees, which they conveyed to the boats. In the mean time our party made a ſecond attempt to get to the beach; but, on their arrival, they found themſelves watched by people who ſeemed to have been ſtationed there for that purpoſe; for, when one of them endeavoured to wade it upon the reef, a native dragged him back by his clothes. They alſo inſiſted upon his throwing down ſome pieces of coral that he had picked up, and, on his refuſal to comply, took them from him by force. Nor would they ſuffer him to retain ſome ſmall plants which he had gathered. They likewiſe took a fan from an officer, which, on his coming aſhore, he had received as a preſent.

"Finding that obedience to their will was the only method of procuring better treatment, our people returned to the place they had quitted; and the natives now promiſed, that, after they had partaken of a repaſt which had been prepared for them, they ſhould be furniſhed with a canoe to carry them off to their boats. Accordingly, the ſecond chief to whom they had been preſented, having ſeated himſelf on a low ſtool, and directed the multitude to form a large ring, made them ſit down by him. A number of cocoa-nuts were now brought with a quantity of baked plantains, and a piece of the pig that had been dreſſed was placed before each of them. Their fatigue, however, had taken away their appetites; but they ate a little to pleaſe their entertainers. It being now near ſun-ſet, the iſlanders ſent down to the beach the remainder of the proviſions that had been dreſſed, to be carried to the ſhips. Our people found a canoe prepared to put them off to their boats, which the natives did with great caution; but as they were puſhing the canoe into the ſurf, one of them ſnatched a bag out of her, which contained a pocket piſtol, but the owner calling out to the thief with marks of the higheſt diſpleaſure, he ſwam back to the canoe with the bag. The iſlanders then put them on board the boats, with the cocoa-nuts, plantains, and other proviſions; and they immediately rowed back to the ſhips.

"The reſtrained ſituation of the party gave them very little opportunity of obſerving the country: for they were ſeldom an hundred yards from the place where they had been introduced to the chiefs, and conſequently were confined to the ſurrounding objects. The firſt thing that attracted their notice was the number of people, which muſt have been at leaſt two thouſand. Except a few, thoſe who had come on board the ſhips were all of an inferior claſs; for a great number of thoſe ſeen on ſhore had a ſuperior dignity of demeanor, and their complexion was much whiter. In general, they had their hair, which was long and black, tied on the crown of the head. Many of the young men were perfect models in ſhape, and of a delicate complexion. The old men were, many of them, corpulent; and they, as well as the young, had a remarkable ſmoothneſs of ſkin. Their general dreſs conſiſted of a piece of cloth wrapped about the waiſt, but ſome had pieces of mats moſt curiouſly variegated with black and white, formed into a kind of jacket without ſleeves; while others wore conical caps made of the core of a cocoa nut, interwoven with beads. In their ears, which were pierced, they hung pieces of the membranous part of ſome plant, or ſtuck there ſome odoriferous flower. The chiefs, and other perſons of rank, had two little balls, with a common baſe, made of bone, which they hung round their necks with ſmall cord. Red feathers are here conſidered as a particular mark of diſtinction; for none but the chiefs, and the young women who danced, aſſumed them. Some of the men were punctured all over the ſides and back, and ſome of the women had the ſame ornament (if it deſerves that name) on their legs.

"The elderly women had their hair cropped ſhort, and many of them were cut all over the fore part of the body in oblique lines. The wife of a chief appeared with her child laid in a piece of red cloth, which had been preſented to her huſband; ſhe ſuckled the infant much after the manner of our women. Another chief introduced his daughter, who was young, beautiful, and modeſt. No perſonal deformities were obſerved in either ſex, except in a few individuals, who had ſcars of broad ulcers remaining on the face, and other parts. Their weapons were ſpears and clubs, the latter of which were generally about ſix feet long, made of a hard black wood neatly poliſhed. The ſpears were formed of the ſame wood ſimply pointed, and were in general twelve feet long; but ſome were ſo ſhort as to ſeem intended for darts.

"Our party continued all the day under the ſhade of various trees, where they preſerved their canoes from the ſun. They ſaw eight or ten of them, all double ones; that is, two ſingle ones faſtened together by rafters laſhed acroſs.

"Moſt of the trees obſerved were cocoa palms, ſome ſpecies of *bibiſcus*, a ſort of *euphorbia*, and many of the ſame kind as had been ſeen at Mangeea. The latter are tall and ſlender, reſembling a cypreſs, and are called by the natives *etoa*. Here was ſeen a ſpecies of *convolvulus*, and ſome treacle-muſtard. The ſoil, towards the ſea, is nothing more than a bank of coral, generally ſteep and rugged, which, though it has been for many centuries expoſed to the weather, has ſuffered no further change than becoming black on its ſurface.

"The party which landed upon this occaſion were gratified in no particular except that of curioſity in ſpeculation; for they did not procure any article that could be ranked among the grand objects in view. Omai was queſtioned by the natives concerning us, our country, our ſhips, and arms: in anſwer to which he told them, among many other particulars, that our country had ſhips as large as their iſland, on board of which were implements of war (deſcribing our guns) of ſuch dimenſions as to contain ſeveral people within them; one of which could demoliſh the iſland at one ſhot. As for the guns in our two ſhips, he acknowledged they were but ſmall in compariſon with the former; yet even theſe he ſaid could with great eaſe, at a conſiderable diſtance, deſtroy the iſland and all its inhabitants. On their enquiring by what means this could be done, Omai produced ſome cartridges from his pocket, and having ſubmitted to inſpection the balls, and the gunpowder by which they were to be ſet in motion, he diſpoſed the latter upon the ground, and, by means of a piece of lighted wood, ſet it on fire. The ſudden blaſt, the mingled flame and ſmoke, that inſtantaneouſly ſucceeded, filled the natives with ſuch aſtoniſhment, that they no longer doubted the formidable power of our weapons. Had it not been for the terrible ideas they entertained of the guns of our ſhips, from this ſpecimen of their mode of operation, it was imagined they would have detained the party on ſhore the whole night; for Omai aſſured them, that, if he and his friends did not return on board the ſame day, they might expect that the commodore would fire upon the iſland.

"But the Europeans were not the only ſtrangers upon this iſland, as was diſcovered by Omai's accompanying our countrymen on ſhore. He had ſcarcely landed on the beach, when he found among the crowd three of his own countrymen, natives of the Society Iſles. The mutual ſurpriſe and pleaſure in which they engaged in converſation may be eaſily imagined. Their ſtory is a very affecting one.—About twenty perſons, male and female, had embarked in a canoe at Otaheite, with an intention of croſſing over to Ulietea; but were prevented by contrary winds from reaching the latter, or returning to the former iſland. Their ſtock of proviſion being ſoon exhauſted,

exhauſted, they ſuffered inconceivable hardſhips.—They paſſed many days without ſuſtenance, in conſequence of which their number gradually diminiſhed, worn out by famine and fatigue. Only four men ſurvived, when their canoe was overſet. The deſtruction of this ſmall remnant now ſeemed inevitable; however, they continued hanging by the ſide of the veſſel, during ſome of the laſt days, till they providentially came in ſight of the inhabitants of this iſland, who ſent out canoes and brought them on ſhore. One of theſe four died. The other three were ſo well ſatisfied with the generous treatment they met with here, that they refuſed the offer made them by our party, at the requeſt of Omai, of taking them on board our ſhips, and reſtoring them to their native iſlands. They had arrived upon this coaſt at leaſt twelve years before. Their names were Tavee, Otirreroa, Orououte: the former was born at Huaheine, the ſecond at Ulietea, and the latter at Otaheite. This circumſtance will ſerve to explain, in a more ſatisfactory manner, than the conjectures of ſome ſpeculative reaſoners, how the detached parts of the world, and, in particular, the iſlands of the Pacific Ocean, may have been firſt peopled; thoſe eſpecially that lie at a conſiderable diſtance from each other, or from any inhabited continent.

"Several of the houſes of the natives were obſerved to be long and ſpacious. The produce of this iſland is nearly the ſame with that of Mangeea.

"According to Omai's report of what he learned from his three countrymen in the courſe of converſation, the manners of the people of Wateeoo, their general habits of life, and their method of treating ſtrangers, greatly reſemble thoſe at Otaheite, and its neighbouring iſlands. There is alſo a great ſimilarity between their religious opinions and ceremonies. From every circumſtance, indeed, it may be conſidered as indubitable, that the inhabitants of Wateeoo derive their deſcent from the ſame ſtock, which has ſo remarkably diffuſed itſelf over the immenſe extent of the Southern Ocean. Omai aſſured our people, that they dignified their iſland with the pompous appellation of *Wenooa no te Eatooa*, implying *a land of Gods;* eſteeming themſelves a kind of divinities, poſſeſſed with the ſpirit of the *Eatooa*. Their language was equally well underſtood by Omai, and by the two New Zealanders who were on board.

From divers particulars already mentioned, it appears that Wateeoo can be of little ſervice to any ſhip that wants refreſhment, unleſs in a caſe of the moſt abſolute neceſſity.

The natives being ignorant of the value of ſome of our commodities, might be induced to bring off fruits and hogs to a ſhip ſtanding off and on, or to boats lying off the reef, as the boats of our lateſt circumnavigators did. It is doubtful, however, if any freſh water could be procured; for though ſome was brought in cocoa-nut ſhells to the party who went on ſhore, they were told, that it was at a conſiderable diſtance; and probably it is not to be met with but in ſome ſtagnate pools, as no running ſtream was any where ſeen.

Otakootaia lies in latitude 19 deg. 15 min. ſouth, and longitude 201 deg. 37 min. eaſt. It was diſcovered by captain Cook in 1777. It is about three or four leagues diſtant from Wateeoo, and ſuppoſed not to exceed three miles in circuit.

The natives labour under a dearth of water. The only common trees found here were the cocoa palms, of which there were ſeveral cluſters, and great quantities of the *wharra* or pandanus. There were alſo the *calloplyllum*, *ſuriana*, with a few other ſhrubs, alſo a ſort of *bind-weed*, *treacle-muſtard*, a ſpecies of *ſpurge*, and the *metinda citri folia*.

The only bird ſeen among the trees was a beautiful cuckoo, of a cheſnut brown, variegated with black; but upon the ſhore was a ſmall ſort of curleu, blue and white herons, ſome egg-birds, and a great number of noddies. A lizard was caught running up a tree, and though ſmall, had a forbidding aſpect.—Many of another kind were likewiſe ſeen. Infinite numbers of a kind of moth elegantly ſpeckled with black, white, and red, ſwarmed on the buſhes towards the ſea. Other ſorts of moths and pretty butterflies were ſeen.

Though our countrymen ſaw no fixed inhabitants upon this iſland, they diſcovered a few empty huts, which proved that it had been at leaſt occaſionally viſited. Monuments, conſiſting of ſeveral large ſtones, were alſo erected under the ſhade of ſome trees: there were alſo ſome ſmaller ones, with which ſeveral places were encloſed, where it was thence inferred their dead had been buried. As many cockle ſhells were found very large, and of a particular kind, it was ſuppoſed that the iſland muſt have been viſited by people who ſometimes fed on ſhell-fiſh.

CHAP. IX.

NEW DISCOVERIES

BY ENGLISH NAVIGATORS, AND NOT YET SETTLED BY THE EUROPEANS.

INTRODUCTION.

THOUGH we are greatly indebted to the moderns, for the amazing progreſs they have made in Geography, yet we are ſtill far from knowing all the parts of our terraqueous globe, or of being made acquainted with the prodigious variety of the human ſpecies inhabiting the different countries of the earth. Terra del Fuego was believed to be the extremity of South America, till Magellan, in 1519, diſcovered the ſtreights which bear his name. It was then conſidered as an iſland; but ſucceeding navigators found that this alſo was a miſtake; and that, inſtead of being one, it conſiſts of ſeveral iſlands; but with regard to the nature of the country, or the diſpoſitions of the inhabitants, we had but very imperfect notions, till the Endeavour, a ſhip fitted out by the government in purſuit of natural knowledge, viſited Terra del Fuego in 1769. But before we give a particular account of that and other voyages, it will be neceſſary to give a compendious narrative of the ſeveral voyages and expeditions projected and accompliſhed by Britiſh navigators in the reign of King George III. for the diſcovery of a ſouthern continent.

In Auguſt 1766, the Dolphin was ſent out under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expence of the Britiſh government, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Theſe veſſels proceeded together, till they came within ſight of the South Sea, at the weſtern entrance of the Streight of Magellan, and returned from thence by different routes to England. Captain Wallis, on the 6th of June, 1767, diſcovered an iſland, about four miles long and three wide, to which he gave the name of Whitſun-Iſland, it being diſcovered on Whitſun-Eve. Its latitude is 19 deg. 26 min. S. and its longitude 137 deg. 56 min. W. The next day he diſcovered another iſland, to which he gave the appellation of Queen Charlotte's-Iſland; it is about ſix miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19 deg. 18 min. S. and 138 deg. 1 min. W. He tells us, that the inhabitants of this iſland were of a middle ſtature, and dark complexion, with long black hair, which hung looſe over their ſhoulders. The men were well made, and the women handſome. Their clothing was a kind of coarſe cloth or matting, which was faſtened

faſtened about their middle, and ſeemed capable of being brought up round their ſhoulders. A few days afterwards he alſo diſcovered ſeveral other ſmall iſlands, to which he gave the names of Egmont-Iſland, Glouceſter-Iſland, Cumberland-Iſland, Oſnaburgh-Iſland, and Prince William Henry's-Iſland. On the 19th of the ſame month, he diſcovered the iſland of Otaheite; and after quitting that, he diſcovered, on the 28th of July 1767, another iſland, about ſix miles long, which he called Sir Charles Saunders's-Iſland; and on the 30th of the ſame month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called Lord Howe's-Iſland. After having ſeen ſeveral other ſmall iſlands, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November, at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February 1768, and on the 10th of May following his ſhip anchored ſafely in the Downs.

After captain Carteret, in the Swallow, had parted from captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, having paſſed through the Streight of Magellan, and made ſome ſtay at the iſland of Maſafuero, on the 2d of July 1767, he ſaw an iſland about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of Pitcairn's-Iſland; it is ſituated in lat. 25 deg. 2 min. ſouth, and in 133 deg. 21 min. weſt long. about 1000 leagues to the eaſtward of the continent of America. On the 11th of the ſame month he obſerved another ſmall iſland to which he gave the name of the Biſhop of Oſnaburgh's-Iſland. The next day he diſcovered two other ſmall iſlands, to which he gave the name of Queen Charlotte's-Iſlands; and alſo three others, which he named Gower's-Iſland, Simpſon's-Iſland, and Carteret-Iſland. On the 27th of the ſame month they diſcovered Sir Charles Hardy's-Iſland, which lies in lat. 4 deg. 50 min. ſouth, and the next day Winchelſea's-Iſland, diſtant about 10 leagues in the direction of ſouth by eaſt. He afterwards diſcovered ſeveral other iſlands, and then proceeding homewards round the Cape of Good Hope, he arrived, March 1769, in England.

The Royal Society, about the latter end of the year 1767, came to a reſolution, that it would be proper to ſend perſons into ſome part of the South Sea, to obſerve a tranſit of the planet Venus over the ſun's diſk, which, according to aſtronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769; and that the iſlands named Marqueſas de Mendoza, or thoſe of Rotterdam or Amſterdam, were the propereſt places then known for making ſuch obſervations. In conſequence of theſe reſolutions, it was recommended to his majeſty, in a memorial from the ſociety, dated February 1768, that he would be pleaſed to order ſuch an obſervation to be made; whereupon his majeſty ſignified by the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, his pleaſure that a ſhip ſhould be provided to carry ſuch obſervers as the ſociety ſhould think fit to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark of 370 tons was prepared for that purpoſe. It was called the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was ſoon after, by the Royal Society, appointed with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had long been aſſiſtant to Dr. Bradley, at the Royal Obſervatory at Greenwich, to obſerve the tranſit. But while this veſſel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by lord Martin, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for this aſtronomical obſervation, he by letter dated on board the Dolphin, May 18, 1768, the day before he landed at Haſtings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the iſland of Otaheite; the Royal Society, therefore, by letter dated the beginning of June, in anſwer to an application from the admiralty, to be informed whither they would have their obſervers ſent, mentioned that place.

Captain Cook ſet out from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26th of Auguſt, 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joſeph Banks, eſq. and Dr. Solander. They made no diſcovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoin-Iſland, Two Groups, Bird-Iſland, and Chain-Iſland; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April, 1769. During their ſtay at that iſland, they had an opportunity of making very accurate enquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants; and on the 4th of June the whole paſſage of the planet Venus over the ſun's diſk was obſerved by them with great advantage: the philoſophical tranſactions contain an ample account of the reſult of their obſervations. After captain Cook departed from Otaheite, he diſcovered and viſited the Society Iſlands and Oheteſoa, and thence proceeded to the ſouth till he arrived in the latitude of 40 deg. 22 min. and 147 deg. 29 min. weſt long. and afterwards made an accurate ſurvey of the coaſt of New Zealand. In November he diſcovered a chain of iſlands, which he called Barrier-Iſlands. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guernſey; and in September 1770 arrived at the iſland of Savus, from whence he ſailed to Batavia, and from thence proceeding round the Cape of Good Hope, he arrived on the 12th of June 1771, in England.

In a ſhort time after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was reſolved to equip two ſhips, in order to make further diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Accordingly, the Reſolution, commanded by captain Cook, and the Adventure, by captain Tobias Furneaux, were appointed for that purpoſe; and, excluſive of excellent officers, and able ſeamen, ſeveral learned and ingenious gentlemen were engaged to aſſiſt in the undertaking. The two veſſels ſailed from Plymouth Sound on July 13, 1772, and on the 29th of the ſame month arrived at the iſland of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope, which they came to on the 10th of October following; and in February 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having ſought in vain for a ſouthern continent. In that month the Reſolution and Adventure ſeparated, in conſequence of a thick fog, but joined company again in Queen Charlotte's Sound, on the 18th of May following. In Auguſt, they arrived at Otaheite, and in December they diſcovered Hervey's-Iſland. On the 2d of October, they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly Iſlands; and about the cloſe of the month, the two ſhips ſeparated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Reſolution, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern polar regions, but was ſtopped in his progreſs by the ice, in the latitude of 71 deg. 10 min. ſouth, and 106 deg. 54 min. weſt long. He then proceeded to Eaſter-Iſland, where he arrived in March 1774, as he did alſo in the ſame month at the Marqueſas. He afterwards diſcovered four iſlands, which he named Palliſer's-Iſlands, and again ſteered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made ſome ſtay; and alſo viſited the neighbouring iſles. In Auguſt he came to the New Hebrides, ſome of which were firſt diſcovered by him. After quitting theſe iſlands, he ſteered to the ſouthward a few days, and diſcovered New Caledonia. Having ſurveyed the ſouth-weſt coaſt of this iſland, captain Cook again ſtood for New Zealand, in order to refreſh his crew, and put his ſhip into a condition to encounter the dangers attending the navigation in the high ſouthern latitudes. Directing his courſe to the ſouth and eaſt, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 55 deg. 6 min. ſouth, 138 deg. 56 min. weſt long. without meeting with any continent. This able navigator gave up all hopes of diſcovering any in that ocean; and therefore came to a reſolution to ſteer directly to the weſt entrance of the Streights of Magellan, with a view of coaſting and ſurveying the uttermoſt, or ſouth ſide of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 53 or 55, and ſteering nearly eaſt, he arrived off the weſtern mouth of

of theſe ſtreights, without meeting with any thing remarkable in this new route. In January 1775, he diſcovered a large and dreary iſland, to which he gave the name of South Georgia. He afterwards perceived various capes, and elevated ſnow-clad coaſts, to the moſt extreme part of which he gave the name of the Southern Thule, as being the neareſt land to that pole which has been yet diſcovered. In February, he perceived Sandwich-land, and ſeveral iſlands covered with ſnow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned in the Adventure a year before, having ſailed round the Cape of Good Hope without making any remarkable diſcovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by ſome of the ſavages of New Zealand; ſo that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof, that cannibals really exiſt. Indeed, in the courſe of theſe voyages of diſcovery, other evidence of this diſputed matter too plainly appeared.

Another voyage was performed by captain Cook and captain Clarke, in the Reſolution and Diſcovery, in the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in ſearch of a north-weſt paſſage between the continents of Aſia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland; and in their courſe, they diſcovered two iſlands, which captain Cook called Prince Edward's iſles. The largeſt, about fifteen leagues in circuit, is in lat. 46 deg. 53 min. ſouth, and 37 deg. 46 min. long. The other, about nine leagues in circuit, lat. 46 deg. 40 min. and long. 38 deg. 8 min. eaſt, both barren, and almoſt covered with ſnow. From thence they proceeded to New Zealand, and afterwards they viſited the Friendly and the Society Iſles. In January 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Iſles, which are twelve in number, and are ſituated between 22 deg. 15 min. and 18 deg. 53 min. north lat. Captain Cook afterwards diſcovered King George's Sound, which is on the north-weſt coaſt of America, and is extenſive. That part of it where the ſhips under his command anchored, is in lat. 43 deg. 36 min. north, and long. 233 deg. 28 min. eaſt. On the 12th of May, they diſcovered Sandwich Sound, in lat. 59 deg. 54 min. north. The harbour in which the ſhips anchored, appeared to be almoſt ſurrounded with high land, which was covered with ſnow; and here they were viſited by ſome of the natives in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the Iſland of Unalaſchka, and after their departure from thence ſtill continued to trace the coaſt. They arrived on the 20th of Auguſt 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 54 min. and 194 deg. 55 min. long. where they found themſelves almoſt ſurrounded with ice, and the further they proceeded to the eaſtward, the cloſer the ice became compacted. This voyage afforded ſufficient evidence, that no practicable paſſage exiſts between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the north; and it alſo aſcertained the weſtern boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return, it unfortunately happened, that the celebrated and able navigator, captain Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, of which event, a full detail will be given in its proper place. In his laſt voyage, he had explored the coaſt of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 ſec. north. After his death, the command devolved on captain Clarke, who died at ſea on his return to the ſouthward, on the 22d day of Auguſt 1779. The two ſhips returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and anchored at the Nore, on the 5th of October 1780.

Captain Cook, in the courſe of his voyage in the Reſolution, begun in 1772, had made the circuit of the Southern Ocean, in a high latitude, and had traverſed it in ſuch a manner, as to leave little room for indulging an idea of a ſouthern continent, except ſo near the pole, as to be out of the reach of navigation. It deſerved alſo to be remembered, in honour of that experienced commander, that, with a company of 118 men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates, from 52 deg. north, to 71 deg. ſouth, with the loſs of only one man by ſickneſs; and this appears in a great meaſure to have ariſen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preſerving the health of his men, and deviſing all proper means for removing thoſe diſeaſes which long voyages and different climates had ſubjected them to.

Having preſented the readers with this ſummary introduction, we ſhall treat of the iſles diſcovered in the courſe of theſe voyages, beginning with Otaheite, in the deſcription of which our readers may find both inſtruction and amuſement.

CHAP. X.

OTAHEITE, OR ST. GEORGE'S-ISLAND.

Its Situation and Extent. Captain Wallis anchors there. Endeavours to traffic with the Inhabitants. Natives aſſault and attack the Veſſel. Various Affrays and Reconcilements. The Captain takes Poſſeſſion of the Place in the Name of the King of England. Peace perfectly reſtored, and Traffic eſtabliſhed. Oberea, a Princeſs, comes on board. Her Friendſhip for Captain Wallis, and Sorrow at his Departure.

THE firſt diſcovery of this iſland is not perfectly known; it has however been viſited by ſeveral navigators, particularly by commodore Byron, and, laſtly, by captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, on the 19th of June 1767. It is ſituated in 17 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. and 149 deg. 5 min. weſt long. It conſiſts of two peninſulas, joined by an iſthmus, and is ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form ſeveral excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almoſt any number of the largeſt ſhips. The length of the iſland is thirty miles. A border of low land almoſt ſurrounds each peninſula, and behind this border the land riſes in ridges that run up into the middle of the diviſions, and theſe form mountains that may be ſeen at ſixty leagues diſtance. But we ſhall now proceed to a detail of events in circumſtantial order.

After captain Wallis had paſſed ſeveral ſmall iſlands, he diſcovered a high ſpot of land in hazy weather, near which having anchored, when the fog cleared up, he took a view of the land, and conceived it to be worthy of his notice.

About this time, a number of canoes ſurrounded the veſſel, who ſeemed amazed at her conſtruction. Many invitations were given to the natives in the canoes to come on board, which they did, but not till after ſeveral branches of plantain had been thrown on the ſhip's deck, in token of peace and friendſhip. On their firſt eſſay, one of the ſtrangers being ſtruck down by a he-goat, leaped into the ſea, and his companions immediately followed. Theſe circumſtances impreſſed the Engliſh ſailors with a ſtrong idea of their timidity.

When this alarm was over, many of them came on board again, but could not be prevailed on to traffic, though they ſhewed great inclination to ſteal ſome articles; and one of them ſnatching a laced hat from an officer's head, jumped into the ſea, and ſwam clear off with it.

When the boats were afterwards ſent out in ſearch of anchorage, the iſlanders ſurrounding our people, a

gun was fired over their heads to intimidate them, when exhibiting ſigns of a hoſtile intention, a muſket was diſcharged, whereby an offender was wounded; and the conſequence was, that his party diſperſed in conſternation.

The veſſel now ſailing along the coaſt, and coming to an anchor occaſionally, the natives began to reſort on board, bringing fruit, fowl, and hogs, in exchange for nails, toys, &c. And with the men alſo came ſome women, whoſe behaviour was not the moſt modeſt, but very friendly, ſo that there was reaſon to conclude a commerce and amicable connexion eſtabliſhed, after having repelled ſome acts of hoſtility. But at this juncture, ſeveral canoes ſurrounded the ſhip, loaded with pebbles, which the iſlanders had been found very dextrous in ſlinging. The people in theſe canoes played on a ſort of flute, and blowed their ſhells, and in this manner they advanced to the ſound of muſic.

One of theſe canoes came forward, with a chief ſitting under an awning, who, being encouraged to come alongſide, gave an Engliſh ſailor a bunch of red and yellow feathers, as a preſent for the captain. This was accepted, and ſome things were preparing to be given him in return, when the canoe ſuddenly put off, and a branch of the cocoa-nut tree was thrown up in the air, as a ſignal for the commencement of hoſtilities, whereon vollies of ſtones were poured by the canoes from all quarters into the veſſel. The unwelcome ſalute was returned by a diſcharge of muſketry, and two of the ſhip's guns, which at firſt diſordered the iſlanders; but they rallied, and there were numbers ſeen ready to embark to ſupport the aſſailants. Notwithſtanding the cannon were brought to bear, they returned to the attack, and ſeveral of the ſeamen were wounded by their miſſiles. However, at length, a ſhot ſtriking a canoe that ſeemed to have a chief on board, the canoes rowed off with precipitation, and the people fled behind the hills for ſhelter.

Soon after this lieutenant Furneaux was ſent on ſhore with the boats well armed, and a party of marines, with orders to land his men under cover of the ſhip; the intent being to procure water from a place where they had received intelligence by a reconnoitring party, that ſome of the pureſt was to be obtained.

This officer having executed that part of his orders, proceeded to take poſſeſſion of the iſland in the name of the king of Great Britain, and diſplayed a broad pendant on a ſtaff ſet up on the occaſion. They now perceived an old man on the oppoſite ſide of the river, who was apparently terrified, and in a ſupplicating poſture. When ſigns were made for him to advance, he croſſed, and crawled on his hands and knees towards the lieutenant, who gave him ſigns of encouragement, but could not forbear likewiſe pointing at the ſtones with which the Indians uſed to annoy the ſhip. Several hatchets were then produced, and two water caſks filled, in order to renew the idea of bartering with the natives. Some trinkets were alſo preſented to this man, who danced round the flag-ſtaff to expreſs his joy; and this ceremony, returning again after the lieutenant embarked, he and ſeveral of the natives who came with him repeated, though at firſt they appeared to be frightened by the pendant's ſhaking in the wind.

The conſequence of this reconciliation was, that two large hogs having been laid before the flag-ſtaff, and danced round, were put into a canoe, which the old man brought as a preſent alongſide the veſſel. He would not accept of any thing, but pronounced a ſpeech, between the different parts of which he delivered, one by one, a number of plantain leaves, which ſeemed calculated to anſwer the ſame end as the belts of wampum delivered at their *talks* by the natives of North America.

†

Notwithſtanding all this, hoſtilities were renewed, and the flag-ſtaff was taken away; but when the offenders were fired at, they retired in confuſion.—Therefore, finally to convince them of the power of thoſe whom they ſeemed ſo raſhly diſpoſed to contend with, cannon were pointed, and fired firſt into the woods, and afterwards towards the hills, where numbers of the Otaheiteans were aſſembled, to their great terror and aſtoniſhment; beſides which, fifty of their canoes were deſtroyed. Theſe proceedings, together with the incident of ſome of them having ſeen the ſurgeon, when on ſhore, ſhoot three ducks flying, gave them ſuch an idea of the extent to which fire-arms would reach, and the execution done by them, that levelling a cannon, or only pointing a muſket, ſerved to diſperſe whole bodies of warriors.

Thus by degrees, partly by force, and partly by kindneſs, was friendſhip eſtabliſhed between our people and a ſet of men, who had diſplayed more courage in war than could have been rationally expected, from the fears ſhewn by individuals among them upon trifling occaſions. But ſuch paradoxes will ever appear among nations deſtitute of refinement, and ſuch are to be traced and ſolved only by thoſe who have read the book of human nature, and, combining the knowledge gained by books with that reſulting from experience, can thereby in ſome meaſure form a judgment of the motives that actuate communities, too often termed *ſavage*, becauſe they poſſeſs not our modern cultivation, which perhaps they might ignorantly deem a corruption of manners.

It ſhould appear from the ſequel, that the natives of Otaheite fought, not againſt the Engliſh in anger or malice, but from a ſuppoſition that they came with a deſign to invade or injure them; as nothing could be more friendly than their behaviour, when they were fully convinced to the contrary. The frequent overtures to barter commodities might not at firſt perhaps ſeem to them a ſufficient token of intended amity, but as a ſnare laid, which they rather wiſhed to avoid.

Soon after theſe tranſactions, a tall female, of a majeſtic deportment, and placid countenance, who ſeemed to have come from ſome diſtance, came on board his ſhip, where ſhe was well entertained, preſented with ſeveral trinkets, a looking-glaſs, and a blue mantle, which latter the captain himſelf tied on, and with theſe ſhe ſeemed greatly delighted; but in all her geſtures, ſtill retained her dignity.

It was afterwards aſſerted, that ſhe was no leſs than ſhe appeared. Her name was Oberea, and it was ſaid ſhe was queen at leaſt of that part of the iſland where captain Wallis landed.

She was viſited the next day by the captain, who was not yet entirely recovered from a late indiſpoſition that had confined him to his veſſel, and rendered him very weak; and on which account he was carried by her attendants to her own dwelling, as ſhe was prepared for the viſit. Numbers of perſons aſſembled on the occaſion were diſperſed, on a ſign from the queen; and when the gueſts entered the houſe, which was ſpaciouſly built, according to the manner of the country, the captain's coat, ſtockings, and ſhoes being taken off, in which ſhe herſelf aſſiſted, ſome young girls were introduced, who ſmoothed his ſkin, and chafed it ſoftly with their hands; the ſame was done by lieutenant Furneaux and the purſer, who attended him, and who had likewiſe been indiſpoſed; and they all found benefit from this gentle operation, which however was interrupted for a time, by the ſurgeon's taking off his wig, in order to cool himſelf. This appeared to the natives as a moſt extraordinary circumſtance, and excited their aſtoniſhment accordingly; but the girls ſoon returned to their employment.

The queen was ſo tender of her principal gueſt, that when ſhe walked out with him, ſhe laid hold of his

his arm, and lifted him like an infant over any dirt or water that happened to be in the way.

It appeared, that the Otaheiteans had no utenſils for boiling their food, and were entirely ignorant of the poſſibility of ſuch an operation, and of the effects of hot water. This was evident enough from a whimſical circumſtance that happened on board the ſhip, where the queen was one morning at breakfaſt with the captain. One of her attendants (apparently a perſon of no mean rank) obſerving that the tea-pot was filled by turning the cock of an urn that ſtood on the table, took it into his head to turn it alſo, and received the boiling water on his hand. In conſequence, being ſcalded, he roared out, and danced about the cabin with the moſt extravagant geſtures, and his companions ſtood ſtaring in aſtoniſhment, till the ſurgeon applied a lenient remedy to the part affected.

However, a perſon who was ſerviceable in bringing in proviſions, and had curiouſly obſerved the gunner boiling his pork when on ſhore, was put in poſſeſſion of an iron pot, and after that he always boiled his meat for himſelf and his aſſociates.

The queen was equally ſurpriſed and pleaſed at looking through a teleſcope which captain Wallis brought with him to her houſe, directing her view to various objects which were very familiar to her, but not perceptible to the naked eye, which, when the glaſs was removed, to her amazement ſhe ſtrove to trace in vain. She had at firſt admired the ſtructure, little gueſſing, as might well be conceived, the uſe of ſuch an inſtrument. Captain Wallis gave his royal hoſteſs two turkies, two geeſe, three guinea-hens, and a cat big with kitten; ſome looking glaſſes, china, linen, needles, thread, and ribbands, together with cutlery-ware, and other articles (among which various vegetables and garden ſeeds were not forgotten) in memorial of the preſents received from her, and her friendly behaviour.

When the time for his departure drew near, it was not without reluctance that the captain intimated this circumſtance to the queen, who received the tidings with real concern, an intercourſe of good offices having endeared them to each other. Trying the force of perſuaſion in vain to detain her gueſt, ſhe came on board the Dolphin, where ſhe remained till the anchor was weighed, and the veſſel under ſail; ſhe then received the laſt preſents he made her in ſolemn ſilence, when he bade farewel to Oberea, and the iſland of Otaheite.

CHAP. XI.

Captain Cook on his firſt Voyage viſits Otaheite. His Reception by the Natives. Alterations there. Tootahah found to be a Man in Power. A Fort erected. Various Thefts. Oberea again brought forward. Strange Adventure with her. A Wreſtling Match. A Chief's Honeſty not Proof againſt a Baſket of Nails. Obſervations of the Tranſit of Venus in thoſe Parts.

IT was on the 13th of April 1769, as we have already obſerved, that captain Cook, on his firſt voyage, fell in with Otaheite, and came to an anchor in Port-Royal harbour. The canoes of the natives immediately ſwarmed round the Endeavour, bringing with them fruits and other proviſions to exchange for various commodities. At the ſame time an old man came on board, who was known to many of the officers, who had been here before with captain Wallis. This man, who was called Owhaw, had a reſpectable appearance.

When captain Cook, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander went on ſhore, accompanied by the above-named Indian, together with a party of men, they were received with the greateſt joy and reſpect, by a vaſt number of the natives, who very thankfully accepted their preſents; and promiſing to conduct them to a more agreeable ſpot, led them for ſome miles through pleaſant groves of trees, intermixed with the huts of the natives; yet they ſaw no fowls and few hogs in their road. Things ſeemed to wear ſomewhat of a different appearance from what the officers who were with captain Wallis had before obſerved; and, according to their opinion, the queen's houſe had been removed.

They were now informed, that ſuch as they had ſeen before, were not any of the principal people of the iſland; but early the next morning ſome canoes appeared alongſide the ſhip, which contained perſons whoſe dreſs ſeemed to denote their being of diſtinction; and two of them who came on board, having fixed on Mr. Banks and captain Cook reſpectively as friends, invited them on ſhore to their dwellings; whither thoſe gentlemen went accordingly, accompanied by Dr. Solander and others. Soon after landing, they were conducted to a large houſe, and introduced to a middle-aged man, whoſe name they found to be Tootahah. He preſented Mr. Banks with a cock, a hen, and a piece of perfumed cloth, and received a ſuitable preſent in return. They afterwards viſited ſeveral other large houſes, where they were introduced to many females, who preſſed them to ſit down and ſtay, and behaved in a manner agreeably free and engaging. On their return, they were met by Tuborai Tamaide, another chief, with whom they dined, and proceeded to ſettle a treaty of peace and mutual intercourſe.

Nevertheleſs, the circumſtance of moſt of the hogs, and all the poultry ſeeming to have vaniſhed, cauſed the captain to ſuſpect, that theſe had been driven up the country: it was therefore reſolved to explore the woods, whilſt an officer was left with a party of marines to guard the tent.

It is to be obſerved, that as ſoon as the Endeavour reached Otaheite, captain Cook eſtabliſhed ſeveral very judicious rules and ordinances among his people, all tending to facilitate barter for proviſions, and preſerve peace and harmony between them and the natives, which thoſe who broke through were to be ſeverely puniſhed; and theſe, with other precautions that had been taken, were deemed ſufficient, with a people ſo friendly, to ſecure tranquillity. But where the cuſtoms and manners of nations are ſo different as thoſe of England and Otaheite, it muſt needs be that diſputes will frequently ariſe, and ſometimes on mere trifling occaſions.

While this party were purſuing their deſign, they heard two pieces fired, which they knew muſt be diſcharged by the guard left at the tent, a circumſtance not at all pleaſing at ſuch a juncture. However, Owhaw diſperſed all the Indians, three excepted, who gave every poſſible token of fidelity.

It is natural to ſuppoſe, that the captain and his companions were anxious to know what had paſſed at the tent during the time of their abſence; and on the ſtricteſt enquiry, they found the following circumſtance had occaſioned the alarm. One of the natives, whoſe propenſity to theft was unconquerable, had ſnatched a centinel's muſket out of his hand, in conſequence of which, by order of a young midſhipman who commanded the guard, they fired, but none were ſlain or wounded except the aggreſſor, who was purſued and killed as ſoon as overtaken. As it was apprehended that the matter would excite ſome reſentment in the iſlanders, but few of whom appeared the next morning, and none of thoſe few were inclined to come on board the ſhip, ſhe was brought cloſer in ſhore, and ſo moored, that her broadſide was brought to bear on a ſpot which had been pitched on for the erection of a little temporary fortification, equally calculated for defence and convenience. Mr. Buchan,

who

who was Mr. Banks's landſcape painter, died the next day, univerſally regretted.

The anger of the natives ſeemed ſoon to have ſubſided, and our people remained quiet enough on ſhore, except their being annoyed by flies, which, to the working parties there, ſeemed the moſt troubleſome of enemies.

Tuborai Tamaide reſolving to build a houſe near the Engliſh fort, brought the materials with him, and invited Mr. Banks to a place in the woods where he ſometimes reſided, entertained him with a diſh of ſomewhat that had the appearance of wheat flour, but when ſtirred about with cocoa-nut milk, formed a jelly of an agreeable ſavour, not unlike what is called *Blanc-Mange* in Europe. He alſo gave this gentleman two garments, one made of ſcarlet cloth, the other of fine matting. It was not long afterwards that the ſame chief, who was a frequent gueſt to Mr. Banks on board, preferred a complaint againſt the ſhip's butcher for having brutally threatened to cut his wife's throat, becauſe ſhe would not let him have one of the ſtone axes, or adzes, which they ſubſtitute for iron in this iſland, in return only for a ſingle nail; a flagrant violation of juſtice and good order, and a breach of thoſe rules which the captain had reſolved ſhould be attended to while the veſſel ſtaid at Otaheite. The conſequence was, that the offender was flogged in ſight of the Indians; and he went through the whole of the puniſhment, notwithſtanding they themſelves interceded for him, and that even with tears and exclamations of ſorrow, after they had ſeen the firſt laſh given. This ſtrictneſs of diſcipline being certainly as well timed as neceſſary, did honour to the juſtice and policy of the commander.

It was remarkable, that captain Cook having produced an iron adze, made in imitation of one of thoſe ſtone inſtruments juſt mentioned, Tootahah, to whom it was only ſhewed as a curioſity, laid hold of it, and could not be ſatisfied till he was permitted to take it away, though an offer was made him to ſelect any article in its ſtead out of numbers contained in all the cheſts that could be conveniently opened before him.

On ſeveral of the natives bringing their axes to be ground, all of which, it was ſcarcely doubted, had been left there by captain Wallis or ſome of his people; a French one was diſcovered among the reſt. It appeared that the Otaheiteans were indebted for this to M. de Bougainville, who had viſited the iſland in 1768.

About this time ſome coldneſs was occaſioned by the following incident. Mr. Banks's gun was ſuddenly taken out of his hand by Tuborai Tamaide, one day when he ſeemed employed only in curiouſly obſerving it. The Indian alſo pulled the trigger, though the piece only flaſhed in the pan. This was an offence not ſo heinous in itſelf as it might tend to prove inconvenient in its conſequences. It is unneceſſary to obſerve, that in our expeditions to theſe places, the knowledge of fire-arms furniſhes almoſt the whole of the ſecurity of the few againſt the many; and experience has continually evinced how ſoon a ſudden miſtake, and fatal reſentment may be kindled in the boſoms of thoſe who ſeem moſt friendly among the uncultivated nations. Conſiderations of this nature appear to have influenced Mr. Banks, in giving a moſt ſevere reprimand for this preſumption to one favourite Indian acquaintance, who was not inſenſible either of the rebuke, or the cauſe of its ſharpneſs, as he demonſtrated by his behaviour; but, that of one of his female attendants was truly extraordinary on this occaſion. She broke forth into tears, wounded herſelf with a ſhark's tooth, and exhibited before the offended party a number of extravagant geſtures, refuſing to anſwer ſuch queſtions as were aſked; and yet after all this, ſhe carefully took up the certain pieces of cloth, which ſhe had placed to receive her blood, and having thrown them into the ſea, bathed herſelf in the river, and returned with a cheerful countenance.

The ſame chief's wife came one morning to ſolicit Mr. Banks's attendance on her huſband, whom ſhe repreſented as being in a moſt deplorable ſtate, occaſioned by having ſwallowed ſomething very deadly, that was given him by one of the Endeavour's people. Mr. Banks went accordingly, found the perſon in queſtion extremely ſick indeed. On his arrival, he perceived that the Indian had already been vomiting, which ſaved the trouble of preſcribing an emetic. It appeared likewiſe that he had thrown up a leaf which thoſe around him affirmed to contain the poiſon; and indeed this, which was only a leaf of tobacco, proved to be all the poiſon that the ſick chief had ſwallowed. The cauſe of the diſorder being thus explained, the patient, who, while Mr. Banks examined the leaf, ſeemed in doubt whether he ſhould live or die, was now only ordered to drink plentifully of cocoa-nut milk, in conſequence of which ſimple and agreeable remedy he ſoon became as well and cheerful as ever.

In the mean time, Oberea, who ſeemed to have been loſt, was luckily diſcovered at Mr. Banks's tent by the gunner, who recognized in her the ſame perſon that had been ſo friendly to captain Wallis (with whom this officer ſailed in the Dolphin) and was ſet down as queen of the iſland. She was tall and majeſtic, as has been already obſerved, her eyes had great expreſſion in them, her ſkin was white, and ſhe appeared to have been what might properly be termed handſome; but being now paſt forty, ſhe was rather on the decline. She was conducted on board the ſhip, where ſhe was preſented, amongſt other matters, with a doll, which greatly delighted her. But this circumſtance being obſerved by Tootahah, who, though not king, ſeemed to be inveſted with the authority of a regent, he would not be ſatisfied without a preſent of the ſame ſort. And dolls now grew ſo much in faſhion, that for a while they were preferred even to axes, till time and juſt reflexion cauſed the iſlanders once again to ſet a due value on the latter, as being ſo uſeful and neceſſary. Temporary faſhions, however, were found to prevail in many more inſtances, even among theſe children of ſimple nature.

There was a circumſtance relative to Oberea, which at firſt greatly ſurpriſed Mr. Banks; namely, that one morning being informed ſhe was aſleep under the awning of her canoe, when going to awake her, he found ſhe was in bed with a young man, whoſe name was Obadee; but it was ſoon underſtood that a commerce of this kind was frequent with the ladies of Otaheite, and ſo familiarized were they to it, that no ſecrecy was obſerved in the matter.

About this time the natives exerciſing ſome of their uſual dexterity, the aſtronomical quadrant was miſſing, though for the whole night a centinel had been placed within a few yards of the place where it was lodged. But a proper application being made to Tubourai Tamaide, he found out the thief, and the inſtrument, which luckily had received no damage, was with ſome trouble recovered.

In captain Cook's abſence, who had gone to ſupport Mr. Banks and Mr. Green, while they were travelling up the country, in ſearch of the quadrant, an embargo having been laid on the canoes in the bay, by that commander's order, occaſioned a diſturbance: for one of theſe attempting to depart, a boat was ſent out to detain her, on which the Indians, among whom was Tootahah, leaped into the ſea. When this chief was taken up ſwimming, the lieutenant confined him in the fort, which was now quite finiſhed and fortified, and the captain found it ſurrounded by a number of the natives when he returned from his excurſion.

He

He cauſed the priſoner, who had expected nothing but death, to be releaſed; yet the affair raiſed great murmurings among his countrymen, who pretended that he had been beaten and ill uſed, but no proofs appeared of ſuch treatment. Yet the markets were but ill ſupplied, which was doubtleſs owing to the circumſtance juſt mentioned.

Theſe were matters however, which, from the friendly diſpoſition of the natives, their gueſts conceived might be well ſettled; and, in particular, they endeavoured to conciliate the affections of the chief whoſe confinement had occaſioned the diſpute. And in fact, little was done in the principal matter, which regarded proviſions, till that was accompliſhed; nor was this brought about without ſome difficulty. Tootahah had left ſome hogs behind him, which he demanded; but it was thought moſt proper not to ſend them, becauſe his preſence was deemed neceſſary for the deſired reconciliation. This was at laſt happily effected, Meſſrs. Banks and Solander taking a journey to the chief's reſidence, which was at ſeventy miles diſtance. From what had paſſed, they had ſome ideas of finding diſguſtful treatment from the people; but in this they were agreeably diſappointed: for they heard nothing but ſhouts, which in their language expreſſed that Tootahah was a friend to the Engliſh.

As this chief, not receiving the hogs he left, had demanded an axe and a ſhirt in return for them, theſe articles were brought and given to him, together with a garment of broad cloath; and he ſeemed well pleaſed with the additional preſent. He was found ſitting under a tree, with many old men ſtanding about him, who afterwards were conducted to the court-yard of his houſe, where a ſpectacle was prepared for their entertainment. It was a wreſtling match, which was conducted in the following order.

Several combatants, to the number of ten or twelve, entering on an area which was left void for that purpoſe, after having challenged, engaged each other, the principal object of each being to overthrow his adverſary by dint of ſtrength. For this purpoſe they cloſed, and ſeized each other by the hand or any part of the body, as opportunity offered; thus grappling till he who had the beſt hold, or was the moſt powerful man, threw his antagoniſt. If this could be done by either party, in about the ſpace of a minute, the conqueror received the plaudits of the old men, and three huzzas; if not, they generally parted, either by the intervention of their friends or by mutual conſent, and in this manner one engagement ſucceeded another. A man who was provided with a ſtick, and who had firſt made way for the Engliſh by exerciſing it pretty ſmartly, kept the ring, and preſerved order among the populace.

While this was going forward others performed a dance, but neither of theſe parties ſeemed at all diſpoſed to take notice of what was going forward elſewhere; their own ſport and the wiſhed applauſes of the audience, being all that engroſſed their attention. When it was known that this reconciliation had been brought to bear, and that Tubourai Tamaide was gone on board the Endeavour, proviſions, which had hitherto been with-held, were brought in great plenty.

But ſome more extraordinary ſpectacles than that of the wreſtling match were ſoon after exhibited before Mr. Banks and others, of which we have the following account.

"As the gentleman was ſitting in his chair, ſome ladies of the iſland, who were ſtrangers, advanced in proceſſion, the reſt of the Indians forming a lane to let them paſs in order. Coming up to Mr. Banks, they preſented him with ſome plants and parrots' feathers. Tupia, who officiated as maſter of the ceremonies, received ſeveral branches, brought at ſix different times, and laid them down in the boat. Nine bundles of cloth were alſo afterwards brought and divided into three parcels.—What followed, appeared the moſt extraordinary part of the ceremony, which was, that one of the women, called Ooratoo, who ſeemed to be the principal actreſs in the ceremony, ſtepped on one of the parcels, and pulled her clothes up as high as her waiſt, turning round three times with an air of unaffected ſimplicity. This ſhe repeated with the two other parcels; and then theſe females advancing, ſaluted Mr. Banks, who made them ſuitable preſents. And on the Sunday following, (after divine ſervice had been performed) the day was concluded with an act of open lewdneſs between a young fellow and a girl about twelve years of age, of which Oberea and ſome females of the firſt rank thought fit not only to be ſpectators, but alſo to give it their countenance and applauſe."

It was ſomewhat extraordinary that an inclination to theft prevailed ſo ſtrongly among the natives of Otaheite, as to taint their chiefs and perſons ſuppoſed to be of the greateſt integrity among them. Tubourai Tamaide, of whom Mr. Banks had entertained a high opinion, could not reſiſt the temptation offered by a baſket of nails being left in the corner of his tent. On being taxed, he confeſſed that he had ſtolen four of them, but he was much more inclined to frame excuſes, than to make reſtitution. He ſaid, the things ſtolen were at Eparre; however he produced one of the nails, and, on reſtoring the reſt, was to be forgiven; but, inſtead of doing this, he withdrew, and when he was ſeen about ten days afterwards, it was in vain that all perſuaſions were uſed to induce him return this apparently trifling portion of property; and perceiving himſelf treated with reſerve, he again withdrew in his uſual manner.

A viſit was determined on by Captain Cook, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander, to Tootahah, who had lately twice changed his place of reſidence, and now lived about ſix miles diſtant from his former dwelling. He was found ſitting under a tree, with a number of people round him, as was his uſual cuſtom; and when the gueſts had made their preſents, they were invited to paſs the night there. But there was a proſpect of ſome inconvenience, as more people were aſſembled than the houſes and canoe could contain. Oberea, however, being there with her train of attendants, Mr. Banks accepted of a place in her canoe, where he retired to reſt accordingly. But, though Oberea herſelf had the charge of that gentleman's clothes, yet he loſt them together with his piſtols, his powder horn, and other articles. She got up, indeed, and Tootahah being rouſed, who lay in the next canoe, they went in ſearch of the thief; but their endeavours proved fruitleſs. Mr. Banks being a ſecond time rouſed by ſome muſic, as he afterwards obſerved lights at a ſmall diſtance, roſe, and went to ſeek for his companions. Accordingly he found where Captain Cook and the reſt of the gentlemen lay, to whom he related his misfortune; but they had a ſtory in ſome meaſure to match his: for they informed him that they had loſt their ſtockings and jackets, and it appeared that Dr. Solander was the only one who was not robbed among them. Mr. Banks, who had at firſt been left in his waiſtcoat and breeches, had made a temporary ſhift with ſome garments which he borrowed of Oberea, in which he cut an odd figure; but the clothes, and other matters that had been ſtolen from him, were never afterwards heard of.

Preparations having been made for viewing the tranſit of Venus, two parties were ſent out to make obſervations from different ſpots. The parties ſent out had good ſucceſs in the purſuit of their undertaking, though they differed as to the time of the contact. The following was Mr. Green's account of that phænomenon.

	Morning.		
The firſt external contact - -	9	25	4
The firſt internal contact, or total immerſion - - - -	9	44	4
	Afternoon.		
The ſecond internal contact, or beginning of the emerſion - -	3	14	8
The ſecond external contact, or total emerſion - - - - -	3	32	10

The latitude of the obſervatory, was 170 deg. 29 min. 13 ſec. ſouth; long. 149 deg. 32 min. 30 ſec. weſt from Greenwich.

We have already obſerved, that there were two parties. Thoſe who went towards the Iſland of Emayo, after rowing the greater part of the night previous to the tranſit, hailed a canoe, and were informed by the Indians of a place that they judged proper for an obſervatory.

Mr. Banks left them as ſoon as it was light, and ſaw the ſun emerge from an unclouded horizon, whence he drew favourable prognoſtics for the buſineſs of the day. He went to obtain freſh proviſions on the iſland; and the following is an account of this ſhort expedition:

"As he was trading with the natives, Tarrao, who was the king of the place, came to viſit him, bringing his ſiſter Nuna with him. As it was cuſtomary for the people of thoſe places, at their conferences, to be ſeated, Mr. Banks ſpread his turban of Indian cloth, on which they all ſat down. Then ſome bread-fruit and cocoa-nuts, together with a hog and a dog were brought as the king's preſent; and his gueſt, in return, ſent for a ſhirt, an adze, and ſome beads, which the ſovereign of Emayo received with apparent ſatisfaction. Tubourai Tamaide, and Tomio (ſaid to be related to Tarrao) alſo gave him a long nail, and left a ſhirt as a preſent for Nuna. The king, his ſiſter, and three beautiful young women, their attendants, afterwards went with Mr. Banks to the obſervatory, where he ſhewed them the planet Venus paſſing over the ſun's diſk; at the ſame time acquainting them, that to view it in this ſituation, was the cauſe of his undertaking a voyage to thoſe remoter parts."

The people at Emayo ſeemed to reſemble thoſe of Otaheite, and appeared to be acquainted with the nature of trading articles.

Some of the ſhip's company having broke into the ſtore room while the officers and gentlemen were employed in viewing the tranſit, a number of ſpike-nails were ſtolen from thence. The perſon who was found out in this theft, had but few in poſſeſſion; however, he was ordered to receive two dozen of laſhes. Some examples of this kind were neceſſary, becauſe the ſeamen knowing what value was put on ſuch commodities on ſhore, where the property of men, and the favours of women were alike to be purchaſed with them; if theſe thoughtleſs beings had not been reſtrained, it is probable, and indeed partly appeared from their conduct, that they would have left but few nails, and little iron-work that they could poſſibly remove in or about the veſſel.

CHAP. XII.

Celebration of King George's Birth-Day at Otaheite. Mr. Banks acts a Part in an extraordinary Funeral Solemnity. Various Diſputes amicably ſettled. Journey to a different Part of the Iſland. Tupia, an Indian, reſolves to embark with Captain Cook. Two Mariners are brought back. The Veſſels depart from the Iſland.

THE two parties that went out to obſerve the tranſit of Venus on the 3d of June, being ſtill abſent on the 4th, it was reſolved to defer the celebration of his Majeſty's birth-day till the 5th of June. It was then kept, many of the Indian chiefs being invited to the entertainment provided, and drinking the King of Great-Britain's health by the name of *Kihiargo* (their beſt imitation of *King George*) upon the occaſion.

An old female of ſome diſtinction dying about this time, gave the Engliſh an opportunity of obſerving the manner in which the iſlanders diſpoſe of a corpſe, which they do not bury directly, but place on a bier, till it is corrupted, and then the ceremony of interment is uſed with the bones. The morais were alſo found at length to ſerve as places of religious worſhip; but of theſe we ſhall treat at large hereafter. We ſhall here only give an account of the funeral rites, as performed after the deceaſe of the perſon above-mentioned, in which Mr. Banks bore a principal part, becauſe he was informed that he could not be admitted as a ſpectator on any other condition. The ceremony was thus conducted:

"This gentleman went in the evening where the body was depoſited, and was there met by the relations of the deceaſed, and joined by ſeveral other perſons. Tubourai Tamaide was the principal mourner, dreſſed in a whimſical, though, as ſome thought, not an ungraceful manner. To conform to the Indian cuſtom, he was obliged for the time to quit his uſual dreſs, and wear nothing but a ſmall piece of cloth tied round his middle, and ſuffer his fleſh to be blacked over with charcoal and water, as were the bodies of ſeveral others, among whom were ſome females that were not any more covered than himſelf. The proceſſion having begun, the chief mourner repeated ſomething that was ſuppoſed to be a prayer, when he came up to the body, and repeated the ſame when he came to his own houſe. They afterwards went on by permiſſion towards the fort. It is uſual for the reſt of the Indians, as much as poſſible, to ſhun theſe proceſſions. Paſſing on from the fort along the ſhore, they croſſed the river, paſſing ſeveral houſes which, for the time, were deſerted; and, during the reſt of the proceſſion, which laſted for half an hour, not an Indian was to be ſeen. The office which Mr. Banks filled called *Niniveh*, and there were two others in the ſame character. Theſe approached the chief mourners, when none of the reſt of the natives were to be ſeen, exclaiming "Imatata!" Then thoſe who had aſſiſted at the ceremony reſumed their former dreſs, after having firſt performed ablution in the river."

Mr. Banks, who certainly underwent no ſmall inconvenience in adapting himſelf for theſe rites, received great applauſe from Tubourai Tamaide, for the propriety wherewith, it ſeems, he ſupported his part in a ceremony of which he muſt be ſuppoſed to entertain but an imperfect conception.

Tubourai Tamaide and Mr. Gore having challenged each other to a ſhooting match, the Indian brought his bow and arrows to decide the matter; but, before they were prepared for the conteſt, it was diſcovered that each had miſtaken his antagoniſt's meaning; for the Indian meant only to try who could ſhoot furtheſt, but Mr. Gore deſigned to level at a mark. As ſoon as this was found out, the challenge conſequently came to nothing. Nevertheleſs, for the honour of Otaheite, and to ſhew how ſkilful he was, Tubourai kneeled down and ſhot an unfeathered arrow (dropping the bow as ſoon as it was diſcharged) which held its courſe for near the ſixth part of a mile.

As many things had ſtill continued to be conveyed away by ſome of the light-fingered iſlanders, an iron coal-rake for the oven being ſtolen in the night of the 14th of June; and as the centinels had received orders not to fire on the natives, even if they ſhould be detected in theft, Captain Cook reſolved in his mind what expedient it would be beſt to adopt, in order, if poſſible, entirely to ſuppreſs theſe practices; and,

and, in conſequence, he tried the following expedient. Twenty of their double canoes containing cargoes of fiſh, being juſt arrived, he ſeized them, and cauſed notice to be given, that unleſs, not only the coal-rake, but alſo all the other articles that had been taken away, were returned, theſe veſſels, ſo valuable to them, ſhould certainly be burnt.

All the effect produced by this menace, was the reſtitution of the coal-rake; but the other things were kept by thoſe who ſtole them: and as captain Cook's humanity would not permit him to let the innocent ſuffer for the guilty, in the end he gave up the cargoes of the veſſels.

But there was another circumſtance which was near raiſing a moſt ſerious diſpute between the Engliſh and the iſlanders, as originating from a matter of which the former were moſt tenacious. A boat being ſent out to procure ballaſt, as the officer could not immediately find what he wanted, he began to pull down one of the ſepulchral monuments. This action was looked upon as ſuch a piece of ſacrilege, that the people, enraged, roſe in oppoſition. But happily Mr. Banks, receiving intelligence of the circumſtance, repaired to the ſpot, and brought about a reconciliation, and ſettled the matter in diſpute, by ſending the boats to the river ſide, where there were plenty of ſtones to be had without any hazard of offending.

Captain Cook and Mr. Banks having formed a deſign of ſailing round the iſland, ſet out on the morning of the 16th of June for this purpoſe. When they came to a large bay, their deſign of croſſing it was mentioned to their Indian guide, whoſe name was Tilubaola: he at firſt refuſed to croſs it, and likewiſe endeavoured to perſuade the Engliſh gentlemen to lay aſide their intention, ſaying, "That country was inhabited by people that were not ſubjects to Tootahah, and who would deſtroy them all." Nevertheleſs, when he found them reſolved to proceed, he at laſt ventured to accompany them.

After ſpending the night at the houſe of Oratora, a friendly lady, they departed, and landed the next day in the diſtrict of a chief, named Mairatata, and whoſe father was called Pahuirede. There was ſomething which might be thought not very promiſing in thoſe appellations, the former ſignifying, "The burying-place of men," and the latter, "The ſtealer of boats," in the language of the iſlanders.

It may not be amiſs here to obſerve, that the inhabitants of that part of the country which had become familiar to the Engliſh, though very backward in learning to pronounce the names of their gueſts, were yet ready enough in giving them others. They called captain Cook, Toote; Mr. Hicks, Hate; and the Maſter, Bobo; Mr. Gore they named Toarro; Dr. Solander, Torano; Mr. Banks, Taſſane; Mr. Green, Eterree; Mr. Parkinſon, Patani; Mr. Sporing, Polini, &c. Now three or four at moſt of theſe names may be allowed imitations of the Engliſh ones, but the others ſeem ſo different, that they may be ſet down as appellations of ſignificance, and occaſioned by ſomething relative to the perſon, ſituation, or actions of the party. What ſeems to ſupport this conjecture, is its having been particularly remarked, that they called Mr. Monkhouſe, who commanded the guard that ſhot the man for taking the muſket, as before related, by a name which ſignifies *dead* or *deadly*, in their language, as having cauſed the death of one of their countrymen.

Amongſt a crowd of the natives that came round them, the Engliſh gentlemen recognized only two perſons; the reſt being abſolute ſtrangers to them. However, they proceeded (the whole party conſiſting of four only) till they came to a part of the country governed by one Waheatua; and met that chief, together with an agreeable woman, about twenty-two, called Toudidde, who appeared to fill the ſame rank here as Oberea did in another quarter of the iſland. Their journey here lay chiefly through a country fertile enough, as it appeared, in every thing but bread-fruit, and where there were numbers of morais, or burying places, neat, and adorned with various carvings. Being fatigued, they went on board their boat, and in the evening of this day they landed on an iſland which was called Ootareite, and got ſome refreſhment at the only houſe they could then diſcover. But they found a good harbour in the ſouthern part of the iſland, and, after landing again in different places, were met by Mathiabo, the chief, of whom they purchaſed a hog, for a glaſs bottle. Here they remarked ſeveral human jaw-bones, ſeemingly freſh (and which had not loſt any of the teeth) faſtened on a board of a ſemicircular figure, but could not obtain any ſatisfactory account concerning them.

Having been piloted over certain ſhoals, and turning to the N. W. ſide of Otaheite, where a bay anſwering to that on the S. E. forms the iſthmus, they were invited on ſhore by ſeveral beautiful women, and, accepting the invitation, ſupped at the houſe of a chief, named Wiverou, in company with Mathiabo, which latter, on retiring to reſt, borrowed Mr. Banks's cloak, to ſerve as a coverlet, and made no ſcruple of taking it away with him the next morning. But this mean action being diſcovered, when he heard that the injured party was coming in ſearch of him, he ſent a perſon back with the property. However, the gentlemen at their return, finding the houſe deſerted, and their boat miſſing, which it appeared had been driven away by the tide, conſidering the ſmallneſs of their party, and that they had not a ſpare ball, or charge of powder, they were not without apprehenſions leſt the Indians might take ſome undue advantage of their ſituation; but were agreeably diſappointed to find themſelves treated in the moſt civil and friendly manner.

A chief named Omae was building a houſe at Tiarrabou, the laſt diſtrict in which the travellers landed, and would have given a hog in exchange for a hatchet, but as they had not one left, he would not trade for nails; however, at laſt, both a hatchet and a nail were promiſed on his ſending the beaſt to the port. At this place they ſaw one of the Indian Eutuas, a figure reſembling a man, made of wicker work, near ſeven feet high, covered with black and white feathers, and which had protuberances that they called Tata Ete, or little men, on his head.

Being come to the diſtrict called Paporra, where Oberea governed, they landed there, but finding that ſhe was gone with intent to viſit them at the fort, they ſlept at her houſe, where they were entertained by her father. In this neighbourhood, Mr. Banks ſaw a vaſt pyramid of ſtone work, with a flight of ſteps on each ſide. It appeared to be near fifty feet high, was about 270 feet in length, and about one third as wide, and they found it was intended for the morai of Oamo and Oberea. The foundation was of rock ſtones, the ſteps were of coral, and the upper part conſiſted of round pebbles, all of the ſame ſize, and ſquared with the greateſt exactneſs, which muſt have been an almoſt immenſe labour for the builders, who were deſtitute of the proper implements, when this fabric was raiſed. At the top, in the centre, was a bird carved in wood, and near it a fiſh in ſtone. Part of one ſide of a court or ſquare was conſtituted by this pyramid, the ſides of which were almoſt equal. The whole was encloſed with a wall, and paved with flat ſtones, and exhibited the appearance of a firm and compact building. Another paved ſquare was ſeen at a little diſtance, in which were ſeveral ewattas or altars, on which it appeared that they placed their offerings, when ceremony or inclination led them to acts of devotion. Returning to Port Royal harbour, after an accurate ſurvey, they determined the circumference of Otaheite to be about 100 miles, both peninſulas included.

While

While captain Cook was preparing for his departure, two young marines thought proper to depart from the fort, and were not to be found the next morning; and notice was then given, that the veſſel would ſail on that or the enſuing day. However, the captain, rather than he would come to a rupture with the Indians juſt on quitting them, was willing to ſtay a little longer. But having waited in vain, when an enquiry was made, he was plainly given to underſtand, that theſe men had fled to the mountains, and did not intend ever to come back again, as they had choſen wives for themſelves on the iſland. But as it was not reaſonable to ſuppoſe the commander would loſe his men in ſuch a manner, he intimated to thoſe chiefs who were then in the fort with the women (among which latter were Oberea and Fornia) that they muſt all be conſidered as priſoners, till the fugitives, whom it had been repreſented as impoſſible to take, ſhould be returned. An officer being ſent for Tootahah, brought him without any alarm on board the ſhip, whither when night came on, thoſe who had been confined in the fort were alſo conveyed; a circumſtance that excited ſome diſagreeable apprehenſions among them, eſpecially the women, whom captain Cook eſcorted with others to the veſſel.

When one of the deſerters was brought back, he related, that the partner of his flight, and two of thoſe that had been ſent to recover them, would be detained till Tootahah was ſet at liberty; who was immediately informed of this, and told, that it was expected he ſhould ſend proper orders, and ſome of his people, to aſſiſt a party diſpatched in the long boat to effect a reſcue. To this the Indian chief made no objections.

The deſign ſucceeded, and the men returned, though at firſt without the arms they had with them when they ſet out; but theſe alſo being afterwards reſtored, the captain ſet his hoſtages at liberty.

Tupia, an Indian, who was frequent in his intercourſe with the Engliſh, had often expreſſed a ſtrong deſire of going with them whenever they ſhould leave the iſland. He ſtill perſiſted in his reſolution; and as he was a prieſt, had ſome ideas of navigation, and was once a ſort of miniſter to Oberea, it was thought proper to admit him on board, as alſo his ſervant Taiijota, at his earneſt requeſt.

When the time for departure approached, captain Cook going to obtain a drawing of the morai which Tootahah had at Eparre, was met there by Oberea and Others, and all in good humour. Tupia, who had taken leave of his friends, and given them ſome tokens of remembrance, came back with the captain and his train; the principal perſons came likewiſe on board, the veſſel was ſurrounded with canoes full of the common people, and all animoſities being forgotten, the good-natured people of Otaheite ſhed tears at the departure of their gueſts. Tupia was much moved; but he uſed every effort to ſuppreſs the feelings natural to ſuch a one on leaving his country. He went with Mr. Banks to the maſt-head, from whence, waving his hand, he took his laſt farewel, and departed with captain Cook, who had ſtaid three months at this iſland.

CHAP. XIII.

State of Otaheite on Captain Cook's ſecond Viſit. Revolution there. Otoo, a timid Prince, King of the whole Iſland. Friendly Conference with Waheatow. The King viſited on ſhore, and entertained on Board. Stratagem of one of the Natives defeated. Ships depart. Omai, a native of Bolabola, ſails with Captain Furneaux for England.

AFTER having narrowly eſcaped the danger of ſhipwreck on a tremendous rock, captain Cook, in his ſecond voyage of diſcovery, in the Reſolution, having alſo with him the Adventure, captain Furneaux, came to Otaheite, and anchored in Oaitipiha Bay on the 18th of Auguſt, 1773. Several of the natives were about, and even on board the ſhips, while they were in the utmoſt peril of deſtruction, yet they appeared quite inſenſible of the ſituation of the voyagers, and came and went without any ſeeming concern, a circumſtance which was thought not a little ſingular. It was evening before they aſked after Tupia, and they were ſatisfied when they heard the cauſe of his death.

There was now ſome difficulty in obtaining hogs, though theſe animals were ſeen on ſhore in great numbers, it being aſſerted, that they belonged to the chief Waheatow.

At this time a man, ſuppoſed to be a principal perſon, came on board with many of his friends, and received ſome preſents; but both he and they being detected in ſeveral thefts, they were all turned out of the ſhip, and the captain ordered two muſkets to be fired over his canoe after he had embarked, which affrighted the pretended chief ſo much, that he quitted it and jumped into the water. A boat being diſpatched for the canoe, the crew were pelted with ſtones from the ſhore. A cannon, loaded with ball, was therefore fired along the coaſt; and the captain going off in another boat, they ſoon obtained the object in queſtion. However, the Engliſh and the Indians becoming friends again, the captured veſſel was ſoon reſtored.

Mr. Banks and ſeveral people were now aſked for, who had been at Otaheite on captain Cook's firſt voyage; and the natives alſo informed their gueſts, that there had been a battle ſince the Endeavour's departure, in which both Tubourai Tamaide, and Tootahah, the regent, were ſlain. That a prince, named Otoo, now governed in his ſtead, and peace was fully eſtabliſhed on the iſland.

When Waheatow came into the neighbourhood, being deſirous to ſee captain Cook, the latter went accordingly, accompanied by captain Furneaux, ſome gentlemen, and ſeveral of the natives, and met him advancing, with a numerous train, at the diſtance of about a mile from the landing-place, who halted, when he perceived the company. He well recollected the captain, whom he placed on the ſame ſeat with himſelf, and enquired after ſome of the Engliſh that he had ſeen at Otaheite in 1769, at which time this chief was called Teraee, he having aſſumed his father's name after his deceaſe. He received many preſents from the captain, ſeemed concerned when he was told the veſſel would ſail the next day, and promiſed that the Engliſh ſhould be ſupplied with plenty of hogs, if they would ſtay longer. He could not be gratified in this particular, but his gueſts remained with him all the morning. This chief gave them two hogs at parting, and more were got at the trading places; ſo that freſh pork was ſerved up to the crews of both the ſhips; beſides that a lieutenant who was left on ſhore for the purpoſe, followed and brought eight pigs on board the veſſels, after they had departed (being plentifully ſupplied by the canoes attending them with fruits, which relieved the ſick) for Matavai-Bay in the ſame iſland.

Arriving there on the 25th of the month, the deck was preſently crowded with natives (moſt of whom knew captain Cook) before the ſhips could come to an anchor; and the new king, Otoo, waited with a great crowd on ſhore; but when the captain was going to pay him a viſit, he underſtood that this timid prince had ſuddenly retired to Oparree in a fort of panic. It was not poſſible to aſſign or gueſs at any rational grounds for ſuch a behaviour, ſince the people in general were happy in ſeeing this gallant officer; and as they well knew he never attempted to exert his force againſt them without ſufficient provocation. Notwithſtanding this, the captain ſet out for

for Oparree, accompanied by captain Furneaux, Marituta, his wife, and other perſons; and they were all conducted to the king, who ſat, attended by numbers, in the old patriarchal faſhion common here, under the ſpreading branches of a tree. Several preſents being made him and his attendants, ſome pieces of cloth were offered on their part; but they were given to underſtand, that as all they had received was intended only in token of friendſhip, nothing would be accepted in return. Otoo was well made, of an agreeable perſon, ſix feet high, and about 30 years of age. All his ſubjects were uncovered before him. He promiſed to ſend ſome hogs, but ſeemed backward in engaging himſelf to come on board one of the ſhips, becauſe, as he acknowledged, he was afraid of what he would have had more reaſon to fear at a diſtance, the great guns; but in uncultivated minds there is no accounting for prejudices.

However, he got the better of his fears ſo far as to pay the Engliſh a viſit, after much perſuaſion, coming on board, accompanied by his younger brother, his ſiſters, and attendants, all of whom received preſents, which they carried back to Oparree, after they had breakfaſted. When captain Cook landed with his company, the mother of Tootahah laid hold of his hand, and burſt into a flood of tears, exclaiming, that her ſon, his friend Tootahah, was no more; and this humane man muſt have melted in ſympathetic ſorrow, had not the king ſeparated them; and it was not without difficulty he was prevailed on to give his conſent that they ſhould meet again.

This prince, to whom captain Furneaux gave a he and ſhe-goat, having found that the great guns were not likely to do him any harm, took courage, and honoured the Engliſh a ſecond time with his preſence, bringing a hog, ſome fruits, and cloth to captain Cook; and then going on board the Adventure, complimented captain Furneaux with ſimilar preſents, for all which he received a ſuitable return; and his ſiſter was dreſſed out by captain Cook in a very agreeable manner. When he thought proper to depart, he was entertained with bagpipes and dancing, which latter was pretty cloſely imitated by ſome of his own attendants. His majeſty of Otaheite promiſed alſo to pay his Engliſh friends a third viſit; but as this was only on condition that they ſhould firſt wait on him, both the captains made an excurſion to Oparree, and preſented him with ſome articles which he had never ſeen before. One of the gifts was a broad ſword, which ſo much affrighted him, that at firſt he had deſired it might be taken away. With much perſuaſion, however, he was prevailed on for a little time to wear it by his ſide. After this, they repaired to the theatre, where they were entertained with a piece, conſiſting of comedy and dance. The ſubject they could not well find out; though they heard frequent mention of captain Cook's name during the performance.

When this diverſion was over, the king deſired his gueſts to depart, and loaded them with fruit and fiſh. He ſent more fruit and fiſh the next morning. Captain Cook preſented him with three Cape ſheep, as it was his laſt viſit. With this preſent he was well pleaſed, though he had not much reaſon to be ſo, as they were all weathers; this he was made acquainted with. Tootahah's mother again preſented herſelf to captain Cook; but could not look upon him without ſhedding many tears. Having determined to leave the iſland, the king ſeemed much affected when captain Cook told him of his reſolution. They embraced each other ſeveral times and departed. The lieutenant returning, who had been ſent for the hogs promiſed, there came with him Pottatou (the chief of the diſtrict of Attahounou) with his wife, to pay captain Cook a viſit, and made him a preſent of two hogs and ſome fiſh. The lieutenant got likewiſe two more hogs. As the wind was weſterly, they were obliged to diſmiſs their friends ſooner than they wiſhed; but they were well ſatisfied with their reception.

Captain Wallis had planted ſeveral ſorts of garden-ſeed and divers kinds of fruits, of which there were no remains when captain Cook left the iſland on the former voyage. On his arrival in 1773, he found none of the various ſeeds, that had been ſown by Europeans, had ſucceeded except pumpkins, and for theſe the natives had not, as may be well ſuppoſed, the leaſt eſteem. While the ſhips ſtaid at Otaheite, Tervah, a ſenſible old chief, invited two of the gentlemen into his canoe, in which they accompanied him and his wife to the place of their reſidence. In their paſſage the old man aſked a variety of queſtions relative to the nature and conſtitution of the country, from whence theſe wonderful ſtrangers came. He concluded that Mr. Banks, whom he had ſeen a few years before, could be no leſs than the king's brother, and that captain Cook was high admiral. The information that was given him, was received with the greateſt marks of ſurpriſe and attention; but when he was told, that in England there were neither bread-fruit nor cocoa-nut trees, he ſeemed to think meanly of it, notwithſtanding all its other advantages.

A ſhort time before the ſhips got under ſail, a young man, whoſe name was Pores, came on board the Reſolution, and requeſted the commander to take him with him, which, as it was apprehended he might be of occaſional ſervice, was complied with. Many others offered themſelves, but were refuſed. The only terms propoſed by this youth were an axe and a ſpike-nail for his father, who was then on board. He had them accordingly, and they parted juſt as the veſſel was getting under ſail, without the leaſt apparent natural affection. This raiſed a doubt as to their conſanguinity; which was confirmed by a canoe conducted by two more coming alongſide as they were ſtanding out of the bay, and demanding the young man in the name of Otoo, who was not then in that neighbourhood.

As the perſon in queſtion ſeemed at firſt undetermined in his own choice, whether he ſhould go or ſtay, an offer was made to ſend him back, if the axe and ſpike-nail were returned; but the man who demanded him, declared they were not on ſhore, and, waving their claim, departed.

In the year 1767 and 1768, the iſland of Otaheite, as it were, ſwarmed with hogs and fowls; but at this time it was ſo ill ſupplied with theſe animals, that hardly any thing would tempt the owners to part with them; and the little ſtock they had, ſeemed to be at the diſpoſal of their kings. When the veſſels lay at Oaitipiha-Bay, in the kingdom of Tiarrabou, or leſſer Peninſula, our people were given to underſtand, as we have obſerved, that every hog and fowl belonged to Waheatow; and that all the kingdom of Opoureonu, or the greater Peninſula, belonged to Otoo.

While at this iſland, they got only twenty-four hogs in ſeventeen days, half of which came from the kings themſelves, and the other half they were inclined to think were ſold by their permiſſion. They attributed the ſcarcity of hogs to two cauſes; firſt, to the great number of theſe animals which had been conſumed, and carried away for ſtock, by the ſhips that had touched here of late years; ſecondly, to the frequent wars between the two kingdoms. Two, they knew, had commenced ſince the year 1767; but now peace reigned among them, though they did not ſeem to entertain a cordial friendſhip for each other. Our people could not learn the occaſion of the late war, nor who were victorious in the conflict; but they learnt, that in the laſt battle, which terminated the diſpute, numbers were killed on both ſides. On the part of Opoureonu, Tootahah, their very good friend, was killed, and ſeveral other chiefs.

Captain Furneaux, in September 1773, agreed to receive on board his ſhip a young man named Omai, a native of Ulietea, one of the Society Iſlands, where he had ſome property, of which he was diſpoſſeſſed by the people of Bolabola. The two ſhips ſeparating in a ſtorm a few months afterwards, the voyage of the Adventure was brought to a much earlier concluſion than that of the Reſolution; for ſhe arrived at Spithead in July following.

Captain Cook did not at firſt think Omai a proper perſon to bring to England; but, upon his arrival, he changed his opinion, and declared, that he much doubted whether any others of the natives would have given more general ſatisfaction by his behaviour amongſt our people; being of opinion that the qualities of his head and heart did honour to human nature; and he was deſcribed, perhaps rather too partially, as being endued with a great ſhare of underſtanding, quick parts, and honeſt principles, which rendered him acceptable to the beſt company, and a proper degree of pride, which induced him to avoid the company of perſons of inferior rank; and it was ſaid, that though, doubtleſs, he had paſſions in common with others of the ſame age, he had judgment enough not to indulge them to an exceſs. His principal patrons whilſt in England were the earl of Sandwich, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander. His noble patron, then firſt lord of the admiralty, introduced him to his majeſty at Kew, and during his ſtay in England he received many favours; and his taſte for pleaſure, whatever ſhare he poſſeſſed of it, was certainly amply gratified; though perhaps more care was taken to ſatisfy him, and alſo render him pleaſing to others, than to cultivate more ſolid talents, and thoroughly enlighten his mind. Something of this kind appears likely, at leaſt, from the ſequel of his adventures, as far as they have come to our knowledge.

CHAP. XIV.

Captain Cook on his third and laſt Voyage, arrives with Omai at Otaheite. Viſited by the Natives. Account of the Spaniards having landed on the Iſland. Great Joy there on the Captain's Arrival, who introduces Omai to the King. A Banquet and dramatic Entertainment. Manner of embalming the Bodies of Perſons of Diſtinction. Deſcription of the Houſe built by the Spaniards. Departure of the Veſſels. Obſervations on Omai's Conduct at Otaheite.

CAPTAIN COOK, ſailing on his third and laſt voyage, for diſcoveries in the Pacific Ocean, &c. with Omai on board, came to Otaheite, and ſteered for Oaitipiha-Bay, on the 12th of Auguſt, 1777.

On approaching the land, the veſſels were attended by ſeveral canoes, but as theſe did not appear to contain any perſons of diſtinction, no notice was taken of them; nor did thoſe on board ſeem to know that Omai was their countryman; but at length a chief, called Ootee, whom the captain had known before, with ſome others, recognized Omai; among theſe was his brother-in-law. There was nothing ſtriking, however, in the meeting of theſe two perſons, till Omai, conducting his relation into the cabin, made him a preſent of ſome red feathers. As ſoon as this was known, Ootee, who before ſcarcely thought it worth while to ſpeak to him, now deſired they might exchange names, and become friends (which was confirmed by a preſent) according to the cuſtom of the country. This might ſerve as a ſpecimen of what was to be expected; and it was a pity that the traveller, thus happily returned, who wanted not for proper advice, did not conduct himſelf accordingly.

The Reſolution and Diſcovery ſtanding for the bay, where they did not come to an anchor till the 13th, at nine in the morning, were ſurrounded by a number of canoes, the news of Omai's being on board, and of the red feathers, having been ſufficiently circulated; but as numbers on board were poſſeſſed of this article, it appeared, that ſo precarious and fluctuating was the ſtate of traffic and barter, that a quantity of feathers, which might be taken from the body of a tom-tit, would, early in the morning, have purchaſed a hog of forty or fifty pounds weight; they decreaſed above five hundred per cent. in value in a few hours: however, the balance, even then, was conſiderably in favour of our people, and red feathers ſtill preſerved a ſuperiority over every other commodity.

The officers were now informed by the natives who came off to them, that ſince captain Cook had been at this iſland in 1774, two ſhips had been twice in this bay, and had left animals there reſembling thoſe they had on board; but on a minute enquiry into particulars, they were found to conſiſt only of hogs, dogs, goats, a bull, and the male of another animal, which the natives ſo imperfectly deſcribed, that they could not conjecture what it was. Theſe ſhips, they ſaid, had come from a place called Reema, which was ſuppoſed to be Lima, the capital of Peru, and that theſe late viſitors were conſequently Spaniards. They added, that the firſt time they arrived, they built a houſe, and left behind them two prieſts, a boy or ſervant, and a fourth perſon whom they called Mateema, much ſpoken of at this time, taking away with them, when they ſailed, four of the natives: that about ten months after, the ſame ſhips returned, bringing back only two of the natives, the other two having died at Lima; and that, after a ſhort ſtay, they took away the people they had left, but that the houſe they had erected was then ſtanding.

Not long after the ſhips had anchored in the bay, Omai's ſiſter came on board, in order to congratulate him on his return. It was pleaſing to obſerve, that their meeting was marked with expreſſions of the tendereſt affection, more eaſily conceived than deſcribed.

Captain Cook having received a meſſage from Waheiadooa, Prince of Tiarraboo, notifying his arrival, and requeſting he would come aſhore to meet him, Omai and the captain prepared to make him a viſit in form. Omai, on this occaſion, took ſome pains to dreſs himſelf, not after the manner of the Engliſh, nor that of Otaheite, or Tongataboo, or in the dreſs of any other country; but in a ſtrange medley of all the habiliments and ornaments of which he was poſſeſſed. Thus equipped, on landing, they firſt paid a viſit to Etary, an old chief, who being carried on an hand-barrow, accompanied them to a large building, where he was ſet down. Omai ſeated himſelf on one ſide, and the captain on the other. The young chief ſoon after arrived, attended by his mother and ſeveral principal men, who all ſeated themſelves oppoſite to their viſitors. One who ſat near the captain made a ſhort ſpeech, conſiſting of ſeparate ſentences, part of which was dictated by thoſe about him. Another, on the oppoſite ſide, near the chief, ſpoke next; Etary after him, and then Omai. The ſubjects of theſe orations were, captain Cook's arrival. The Reſolution took her old ſtation in Matavai-Bay.

The moſt extravagant ſigns of joy were diſplayed by the natives of Otaheite on the arrival of the Engliſh, ſome of the ceremonies attending which, namely, women's beating their breaſts, and people's wounding themſelves with ſhark's teeth, could not but appear ſtrange, and even diſguſting to Europeans. In the mean time, there was ſcarcely a child that could liſp the word Toote (captain Cook's appella-

tion

tion among them) who was ſilent, or did not give ſome tokens of ſharing in the general ſatisfaction; yet in their ſubſequent dealings, they ſhewed ſufficiently, as uſual, that a mercenary diſpoſition prevailed among them.

Otoo, the king of the iſland, accompanied by a great number of the natives, in their canoes, came from Oparree ſoon after the arrival of the Engliſh; and having landed on Matavai-Point, ſent a meſſenger on board, intimating his deſire to ſee captain Cook there. The captain accordingly went on ſhore, attended by Omai, and ſome of the officers. They found a vaſt multitude of people aſſembled on this occaſion, in the midſt of whom was the king, with his father, his two brothers, and three ſiſters. The captain ſaluted Otoo, and was followed by Omai, who kneeled and embraced his legs. Though Omai had prepared himſelf for this ceremony, by dreſſing himſelf in his beſt apparel, and behaved with great reſpect and modeſty, yet very little notice was taken of him. He made the king a preſent of two yards of gold cloth, and a large taſſel of red feathers; and the captain gave him a gold-laced hat, a ſuit of fine linen, ſome tools, a quantity of red feathers, and one of the bonnets worn at the Friendly Iſlands.

Afterwards the king and all the royal family accompanied captain Cook on board, followed by ſeveral canoes plentifully laden with all kinds of proviſions. Each family owned a part, ſo that the captain had a preſent from every one of them; and each received from him a ſeparate preſent in return. Not long after the king's mother came on board, bringing with her ſome proviſions and cloth, which ſhe divided between the captain and Omai. Though the latter was but little noticed at firſt by his countrymen, they no ſooner gained information of his wealth, than they began to court his friendſhip. Captain Cook encouraged this as far as lay in his power, being deſirous of fixing him with Otoo, and intended to leave all the European animals at this iſland, as he thought Omai would be able to give the natives ſome inſtructions with regard to their uſe and management.

Soon after the ſhips were moored, captain Cook, with Omai, took an airing on horſeback, to the great aſtoniſhment of the inhabitants, many hundreds of whom followed him with loud acclamations. Omai, to excite their admiration the more, was dreſſed capa-pee in a ſuit of armour, and was mounted and capariſoned with his ſword and pike, like St. George going to kill the dragon, whom he very nearly repreſented; only that Omai had piſtols in his holſters, of which the bold ſaint knew not the uſe. Omai, however, made good uſe of his arms; for when the crowd became clamorous and troubleſome, he every now and then pulled out a piſtol, and fired it over them, which never failed to diſperſe them.

While the veſſels lay in Matavai-Harbour, the commanders, with the principal officers and gentlemen, embarked on board the pinnaces, which, on this occaſion, were decked in all the magnificence that ſilken ſtreamers, embroidered enſigns, and other gorgeous decorations could diſplay, to pay a viſit to the king at Oparree. Omai, to ſurpriſe them the more, was cloathed in a captain's uniform, and could hardly be diſtinguiſhed from a Britiſh officer.

From Matavai to Oparree, is about ſix miles. When the party arrived at the landing-place, they were received by the marines then under arms. As ſoon as the company were diſembarked, the whole band of muſic ſtruck up a military march, and the proceſſion began. The road from the beach to the entrance of the palace (about half a mile) was lined on both ſides with natives from all parts, expecting to ſee Omai on horſeback, as the account of his appearance on the other ſide of the iſland had already reached the inhabitants on this. The whole court were likewiſe aſſembled, and the king, with his ſiſters, on the approach of captain Cook, came forth to meet him. As he was perfectly known by them, their firſt ſalutations were friendly, according to their known cuſtoms; and when theſe were over, proper attention was paid to every gentleman in company, and that too with a politeneſs quite unexpected by thoſe who had never before been on this iſland.

As ſoon as the company had entered the palace, and were ſeated, ſome diſcourſe paſſed between the king and captain Cook; after which Omai was preſented to his majeſty, and paid him the uſual homage of a ſubject to a ſovereign of that country, which conſiſts of little more than being uncovered before him, and then entered into a familiar converſation on the ſubject of his travels.

Otoo, impatient to hear his ſtory, aſked him many queſtions before he gave him time to anſwer one. He inquired about the King of England, his place of reſidence, his court, his attendants, his warriors, his ſhips of war, his morai, the extent of his poſſeſſions, &c. &c. Omai did not fail to magnify the grandeur of the great king. He repreſented the ſplendor of his court, by the brilliancy of the ſtars in the firmament; the extent of his dominions, by the vaſt expanſe of heaven; the greatneſs of his power, by the thunder that ſhakes the earth. He ſaid, this monarch had three hundred thouſand warriors every day at his command, and more than double that number of ſailors. That his ſhips of war exceeded thoſe at Matavai in magnitude, in the ſame proportion as thoſe exceeded the ſmall canoes at Oparree.

The king, aſtoniſhed, interrupted him: he aſked where people could be had to navigate ſo many ſhips? and if there were, how could proviſions be got for ſuch a multitude? Omai aſſured him, that in one city only there were more people than were contained in the whole group of iſlands; that the country was full of large populous cities; notwithſtanding which, proviſions were ſo plentiful, that for a few pieces of yellow metal, like thoſe of which he had ſeen many (meaning the medals given by captain Cook to the chiefs) the Great King could purchaſe a quantity of proviſions ſufficient for the maintenance of a ſailor for a whole year. That in the country of the Great King, there were more than an hundred different kings of four-footed animals, from the ſize of a rat, to that of a ſtage erected on an ordinary canoe; and that all theſe propagated very faſt.

He added, that the ſhips of war, in Pretanne, were furniſhed with poo-poos (guns) each of which would receive the largeſt poo-poo his majeſty had yet ſeen, within it; that ſome carried a hundred and more of thoſe poo-poos, with ſuitable accommodations for a thouſand fighting men, and ſtowage for all kinds of cordage and warlike ſtores, beſides proviſions and water for a thouſand days; that they were ſometimes abroad as long, fighting with the enemies of the Great King; that they carried with them frequently, in theſe expeditions, poo-poos that would hold a ſmall hog, and which threw hollow globes of iron, of vaſt bigneſs, filled with fire and all manner of combuſtibles, and implements of deſtruction, to a great diſtance; a few of which, were they to be thrown among the fleet of Otaheite, would ſet them on fire, and deſtroy the whole navy, were they ever ſo numerous.

The king ſeemed more aſtoniſhed than delighted at this narration, and ſuddenly left Omai, to join the company that were in converſation with captain Cook. By this time dinner was nearly ready, and, as ſoon as the company were properly ſeated, was brought in by as many tow-tows as there were perſons to dine; beſides theſe, the king, the two commanders, and Omai, had each of them ſeveral perſons of ſuperior rank to attend them. The dinner conſiſted of fiſh and fowl of various kinds, dreſſed after their manner; barbecued pigs, ſtewed yams, and fruit of the

the moſt delicious flavour, all ſerved with eaſe and regularity.

The gueſts were conducted to the theatre, where a company of players were in readineſs to perform a dramatical entertainment.

The drama was regularly divided into three acts: the firſt conſiſted of dancing and dumb-ſhew; the ſecond of comedy, which, to thoſe who underſtood the language, was very laughable; for Omai, and the natives, appeared highly diverted the whole time; the laſt was a muſical piece, in which the young princeſſes were the ſole performers. Between the acts, ſome feats of arms were exhibited, by combatants with lances and clubs. One made the attack, the other ſtood upon the defenſive. He who made the attack, brandiſhed his lance, and either threw, puſhed, or uſed it inſtead of his club. He who was upon the defenſive, ſtuck the point of his lance in the ground, in an oblique direction, ſo that the upper part roſe above his head; and by obſerving the eye of his evemy, parried his blows, or his ſtrokes, by the motion of his lance, and it was rare that he was hurt by the club. If his antagoniſt ſtruck at his legs, he ſhewed his agility by jumping over the club; and if at his head, he was no leſs nimble in crouching under it. Their dexterity conſiſted chiefly in the defence, otherwiſe the combat might have been fatal, which always ended in good humour.

Theſe entertainments, which generally laſted about four hours, were really diverting. In the hornpipe, they excelled the Europeans, for they added contortions of the face and muſcles to the nimbleneſs of the foot, that were inimitable. Their comedy ſeemed to conſiſt of ſome ſimple ſtory, made laughable by the manner of delivery, ſomewhat in the ſtyle of the merry-andrews formerly at the fairs in England.

As night came on, the commanders took their leave, after inviting the king and his attendants to dine on board the Reſolution. They were conducted to the water-ſide, in the ſame manner as they approached the palace, and were attended by the king and royal family. The next morning Omai's mother, and ſeveral of his relations arrived; but their interview was not like that between him and his ſiſter, for the old lady wounded herſelf with ſhark's teeth, which appeared but an odd idea of joy to the voyagers.

Our people had brought from the other iſlands ſeveral ſhaddock-trees, which they planted here, and there appeared to them a probability of their ſucceeding, unleſs their growth ſhould be checked by the ſame idle curioſity which deſtroyed a vine planted at Oaitipiha by the Spaniards. Many of the natives aſſembled to taſte the firſt fruits it produced; but being ſtill ſour, they conſidered it little better than poiſon, and trod it under foot.

The captain attending Otoo to his father's, he ſaw ſeveral people employed in dreſſing two girls with fine cloth, after a very ſingular faſhion. There were ſeveral pieces, one end of each was held over the heads of the girls, while the remainder was wrapped round their bodies under the arm-pits. The upper ends were then let fall, and hung in folds to the ground, over the other, ſo as to bear ſome reſemblance to a circular hoop-petticoat: laſtly, round the ſides of all were wrapped ſeveral pieces of cloth, of various colours, which conſiderably increaſed the ſize, it being five or ſix yards in circuit; and the weight of this ſingular attire was as much as the poor girls could ſupport. To each were hung two taames, or breaſt-plates, in order to eſtabliſh the whole, and give it a pictureſque appearance. Thus equipped, they were taken on board, together with ſeveral hogs, and a quantity of fruit, the whole being a preſent to the Engliſh commander from Otoo's father.

Thoſe who are dreſſed in this manner, are called atee; but this ceremony is never performed, except when large preſents of cloth are to be made. It never was ſeen practiſed upon any other occaſion; but both captain Cook and captain Clerke, who ſailed under his command, had cloth preſented to them afterwards wrapped round the bearers in the ſame manner.

Captain Cook, going to ſee an embalmed corpſe, near the reſidence of Otoo; on inquiry, it was found to be the remains of Tee, a chief well known to him, when he laſt viſited this iſland. It was lying in an elegant toopapaoo, in all reſpects ſimilar to that at Oaitipiha, in which the remains of Waheiatow, the elder, were depoſited. The body was found uncovered within the toopapaoo, and wrapped up in cloth. At the captain's deſire, the perſon who had the care of it, brought it out and placed it upon a kind of bier, ſo as to exhibit a perfect view of it. The attendants then ornamented the place with mats and cloth, diſpoſed in ſuch a manner as to produce a pleaſing effect. The body was entire in every part; putrefaction ſeemed hardly to be begun, and not the leaſt diſagreeable ſmell proceeded from it, though this was one of the hotteſt climates, and Tee had been dead above four months. There was, indeed, a ſhrinking of the muſcular parts and eyes, but the hair and nails were in their original ſtate, and the ſeveral joints were pliable. The deceaſed are thus preſerved, by drawing out the inteſtines, and other viſcera, after which the whole cavity is ſtuffed with cloth; that when any moiſture appeared, it was immediately dried up, and the body rubbed all over with perfumed cocoa-nut oil, which, frequently repeated, preſerved them ſeveral months; after which they mouldered away gradually. Omai told them, that the bodies of all their great men, who die a natural death, are thus preſerved, and expoſed to public inſpection.

We muſt not omit to mention here, that captain Cook having heard ſo much of the ſtrangers who viſited Otaheite, and the houſe they had erected, was reſolved to ſurvey this edifice, of which the reader will take the following deſcription:

"It ſtood near the beach, and was compriſed of wooden materials, ſuch as ſeemed to have been brought thither ready prepared, the planks being all numbered; and it conſiſted of two ſmall rooms, in the innermoſt of which were a bedſtead, a table, and a bench: ſome old hats and other trifles were alſo left there; and of theſe the natives appeared particularly careful, as well as of the building itſelf, which was preſerved from the injuries of the weather by a ſort of ſhed they had erected over it. Around it were a number of ſcuttles, as if intended for air-holes, though there might be a deſign of rendering them ſerviceable for firing muſkets from, if occaſion required it; and the whole ſtructure ſeemed to captain Cook to indicate a deeper plan than the natives were aware of. At a little diſtance ſtood a wooden croſs, on the tranſverſe part of which was inſcribed, *Chriſtus vincit*, and on the perpendicular, *Carolus III. imperat*, 1774. This latter circumſtance being noticed by the captain, he preſerved the memory of the viſits of the Engliſh, by inſcribing *Georgius Tertius, rex, annis* 1767, 1769, 1773, 1774, & 1777. Near the foot of the croſs, was the Spaniſh commodore's grave, who died on the iſland."

As it appeared, that whatever might be the views of the Spaniards, they had ſpared no pains in endeavouring to gain the friendſhip of the iſlanders, who ſpoke of them with the greateſt-reſpect; ſo captain Cook thought proper to caution them how they truſted their new friends, if ever they ſhould pay them another viſit. And he afterwards heard, in the courſe of a conference with the natives, that the Spaniards had deſired, the Engliſh ſhould never more be admitted into Oaitipiha-Harbour, as they aſſerted, that all was *their* property. But the iſlanders added, in a ſoothing manner, "that they were ſo far from entertaining

entertaining a thought of complying with this injunction, that they came to ſurrender to the Engliſh the province of Tiaraboo, and every thing in it."

Many of the ſailors being very deſirous to ſtay at Otaheite, Otoo intereſted himſelf in their behalf, and endeavoured to prevail on captain Cook to grant their requeſt; but he rejected peremptorily every application of that kind, though often repeated; nor would he ſuffer any of the natives to enter on board, though many would have gladly accompanied the Europeans wherever they intended to ſail, and that too after they were aſſured, that they never intended to viſit their country any more. Some of the women alſo would have followed their Ehoonoas, or Britiſh huſbands, could they have been permitted; but the commander was equally averſe to the taking any of the natives away, as to the leaving his own people behind.

When the king found he could not obtain his wiſhes in this reſpect, he applied to captain Cook for another favour, which was, to allow our carpenters to make him a cheſt, or preſs, to ſecure the treaſures he had accumulated in preſents: he even begged that a bed might be placed in it, where he intended to ſleep. This requeſt the captain readily granted; and while the workmen were employed in making this uncommon piece of furniture, they were plentifully ſupplied with barbecued hog, and ſuch dainties as the country afforded, ſo that they thought themſelves amply compenſated for their pains. Captain Cook accompanied Otoo to Oparree; and before he left it took a ſurvey of the cattle and poultry which he had conſigned to his friend's care. Every thing was in a promiſing way, and properly attended to. Two of the geeſe, and two of the ducks, were ſitting; but the pea-hen and turkey-hen had neither of them begun to lay. He took four goats from Otoo, two of which he intended to leave at Ulietea, and to reſerve two for the uſe of any other iſlands he might touch at in his paſſage to the north. The captain was informed by Otoo, that he had a canoe, which he deſired he would take with him as a preſent from the Earee of Otaheite, to the Eareerahie of Pretanne. The captain was highly pleaſed with Otoo for this mark of his gratitude. At firſt, he ſuppoſed it to be a model of one of their veſſels of war, but it proved to be a ſmall ivahah, about ſixteen feet long. It was double, and probably had been built for the purpoſe, and was decorated with carved work, like their canoes in general. It being inconvenient to take it on board, the captain could only thank him for his good intention; but the king would have been much better pleaſed if his preſent could have been accepted.

By the following manœuvre of this prince, it will appear, that the people of this iſland do not want for addreſs in bringing about their purpoſes. Among other things which the captain had at different times given Otoo, was a ſpying-glaſs: having been two or three days poſſeſſed of this glaſs, he, perhaps, grew tired of it, or diſcovered that it could not be of any uſe to him; he therefore carried it privately to captain Clerke, telling him, that he had got a preſent for him, in return for his friendſhip, which he ſuppoſed would be agreeable: "But, ſays Otoo, Toote muſt not be informed of this, becauſe he wanted it, and I refuſed to let him have it." Accordingly he put the glaſs into captain Clerke's hands, aſſuring him, at the ſame time, that he came honeſtly by it. Captain Clerke, at firſt, wiſhed to be excuſed from accepting it; but Otoo inſiſted that he ſhould, and left it with him. A few days after, he reminded captain Clerke of the glaſs; who, though he did not wiſh to have it, was yet deſirous of obliging Otoo; and thinking a few axes would be more acceptable, produced four, and offered them in exchange. Otoo immediately exclaimed, "Toote offered me five for it." Well, ſays captain Clerke, if that be the caſe, you ſhall not be a loſer by your friendſhip for me; there are ſix axes for you. He readily accepted them, but again artfully deſired that captain Cook might not be made acquainted with the tranſaction, which he knew could not redound to his own honour.

The Engliſh were detained here ſome time longer than they expected, during which the ſhips were crowded with friends, and ſurrounded with canoes, for none of them would quit the place till they departed. At length, the wind came round to the eaſt, and they weighed anchor. When the Reſolution and Diſcovery were under ſail, to oblige Otoo, and to gratify the curioſity of his people, ſeveral guns were fired, after which all friends, except his majeſty, and two or three more, took leave of their viſitors with ſuch lively marks of ſorrow and affection, as ſufficiently teſtified how much they regretted their departure. Otoo being deſirous of ſeeing the Reſolution ſail, ſhe made a ſtretch out to ſea, and then in again immediately, when the king took his laſt farewel, and went aſhore in his canoe. It was ſtrictly enjoined the captain by Otoo, to requeſt, in his name, the Eareerahie of Pretanne (meaning the King of England) to ſend him by the next ſhip ſome red feathers, and the birds which produced them; alſo axes, half a dozen muſkets, powder and ſhot, and by no means to forget horſes. Before the Engliſh left the iſland, captain Cook was much preſſed to join Otoo's forces in an expedition againſt Emayo, where ſome years ſince, they ſaid, a chief had been murdered, whom the inhabitants of the laſt-mentioned place had deſired thoſe of Otaheite to ſend them for a king. A fleet indeed had ſailed before againſt theſe people, but had returned without achieving any thing; and and therefore another attack was reſolved on. The captain anſwered, that he could not think of engaging in hoſtilities againſt thoſe who had not given him any offence, and predicted the miſcarriage of the expedition, on account of their offering a human ſacrifice to inſure its ſucceſs.

Otoo left the moſt valuable preſents he had received, in the captain's poſſeſſion, till the day before they ſailed, the king declaring that they could be no where ſo ſafe. From the acquiſition of new riches, the inducements to pilfering muſt certainly have increaſed, and the chiefs were ſenſible of this, from their being ſo exceeding deſirous of having cheſts. The few that the Spaniards had left among them were highly prized, and they were continually aſking for others from our people. Locks and bolts were not conſidered as a ſufficient ſecurity, ſo that a cheſt muſt be large enough for two people to ſleep upon, and conſequently guard it in the night. Yet, in the midſt of all this inſecurity of property, it is no leſs ſtrange than true, that no laws were made, or even ſuggeſted, to ſuppreſs ſuch a growing evil; no reaſon for which can be aſſigned, but the weak one, that cuſtom had appeared to authoriſe theſe ſhameful depredations.

On account of the incapacity of theſe people to calculate the time of paſt events, it could never be learned, to a certainty, when the Spaniards landed on the iſland. The live ſtock they left here, conſiſted of one bull, ſome goats, hogs, and dogs, and the male of another animal, which, according to information, was a ram, at that time at Bolabola. The hogs being large, had already much improved the breed originally found upon the iſland. Goats were alſo plentiful, there being hardly a chief without them.

The dogs that the Spaniards put aſhore, were of two or three ſorts: had they all been hanged, inſtead of being left upon the iſland, it would have been better for the natives. A young ram fell a victim to one of theſe animals.

Four Spaniards remained on ſhore when their ſhips left the iſland, two of whom were prieſts, one a ſervant, and the other was much careſſed among the natives, who diſtinguiſhed him by the name of Ma-

teema. He ſeemed to have ſo far ſtudied their language, as to have been able to ſpeak it, and to have been indefatigable in impreſſing on the minds of the Otaheiteans exalted ideas of the greatneſs of the Spaniſh nation, and inducing them to think meanly of the Engliſh.

It is hard to conceive, what were the views of the prieſts; they could not relate to religion; for the natives ſaid, they never converſed with them, either on this or any other ſubject. The prieſts reſided the whole time at Oaitipiha; but Mateema roved about continually, viſiting many parts of the iſland. After he and his companions had ſtaid ten months, two ſhips arriving at Otaheite, took them on board, and ſailed in five days. Whatever deſigns the Spaniards might have on this iſland, their haſty departure ſhewed they had now laid them aſide. However, they endeavoured to make the natives believe, that they intended to return, and would bring them all kinds of animals, and men and women, who were to ſettle on the iſland.

As captain Cook had received a viſit from one of the two natives of this iſland who had been taken to Lima by the Spaniards, it is ſomewhat remarkable that he never ſaw him afterwards, eſpecially as the captain received him with uncommon civility. It was imagined that Omai, from motives of jealouſy, had kept him from the captain, he being a traveller, who, in ſome degree, might vie with himſelf. Captain Clerke, who had ſeen the other man, ſpoke of him as an inconſiderable character; and his own countrymen entertained the ſame opinion of him. In ſhort, thoſe two adventurers ſeemed to be held in little or no eſteem.

In the mean time, Omai himſelf, who had been fortunate enough to return with ſo many more advantages, was far from improving them as might have been expected. He exhibited little indeed of dignity, but much of a puerile vanity: ſlighting the advice of his beſt friends, he, like many Europeans, ſeemed to delight only in that ſort of ſociety where he expected to be deemed the head of the company. By ſuch means, he loſt the friendſhip of all the principal perſons in the country, who preſently found, that they could not get from any perſon in either of the ſhips ſuch gifts as Omai beſtowed on the lower orders of the people. This conduct naturally loſt him the favour of Otoo, and of thoſe with whom he ſhould have been careful to cultivate an acquaintance. His ſiſter and his brother-in-law likewiſe very unkindly joined a ſelect body, that ſeemed to have laid a ſcheme for plundering him, which they would have done completely, but for the interference of captain Cook, who took the moſt uſeful articles this traveller had under his care, and forbad theſe greedy relations to appear at Huaheine all the time he continued at the Society-Iſlands, whither he intended directing his courſe after leaving Otaheite, according to the plan of his voyage.

But before we purſue the captain's track any further, we ſhall here preſent the reader with a ſummary view of the moſt remarkable cuſtoms and manners of the natives of Otaheite, and ſuch other particulars as we could not have introduced ſo properly before, without breaking in upon the thread of our narrative.

CHAP. XV.

Soil, Perſons, Dwellings, Habits, Diſpoſition, and various Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants of Otaheite. Their Food and Manner of Eating. Birds and Beaſts peculiar to the Iſland.

THE inhabitants of Otaheite have the happineſs to be ſituate on an iſland, which, though within the tropics, may be reckoned as one of the moſt healthy in the world. M. Bougainville, who viſited this place, as we have already mentioned, takes notice, that the greateſt part of his ſailors who were ſent on ſhore for the cure of diſorders occaſioned by heat, ſalt proviſions, and other cauſes incidental to long voyages, here regained their ſtrength, finding the land fertile, and the warmth of the ſea tempered with the pureſt air.

The ſoil, which is of a blackiſh colour, is watered by a number of rivulets. On the borders of the valley through which the river flows, there are ſeveral houſes with walled gardens, and plenty of fowls and hogs. Channels are cut in many places to conduct the water from the hills to the plantations. Streams meander through various windings, and ſtupendous mountains overhang the vallies. Towards the ſea, the view is delightful, the ſides of the hills being covered with trees, and the vallies with graſs. No under-wood was found beneath the trees, neither on the ſides or bottoms of the hills, but there was plenty of good graſs. Many fine ſprings guſh from the borders of the mountains, all of which are covered with wood on the ſides, and fern on the ſummits. Sugar-cane grows without cultivation on the high land, as alſo turmeric and ginger.

This iſland, known by the general name of OTAHEITE, forms two diſtinct kingdoms, which are united by a narrow neck of land. The largeſt of theſe is called by the natives *Tiarrabou*, or *Otaheite-Nue*; the ſmaller *Opoureonu*, or *Otaheite-Ete*.

It is ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, forming ſeveral bays, among which the principal is Port-Royal, called by the natives Matavai. The country affords a beautiful proſpect. It riſes in ridges, forming mountains in the middle of the iſland, that may be ſeen at the diſtance of ſixty miles. Towards the ſea, it is level, and covered with fruit-trees of divers kinds, but particularly the cocoa-nut. In this part are the houſes of the inhabitants, which do not form villages, being ranged along the whole border, at about fifty yards diſtance from each other.

The vegetable productions of this iſland are as various as numerous in their reſpective ſpecies. There are bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, bananas of many ſorts, ſweet potatoes, plantains, yams, a delicious fruit known here by the name of *jambu*, ſugar-cane, the paper-mulberry, ginger, turmeric, and ſeveral ſorts of figs, all of which the ſoil produces ſpontaneouſly, or with very little culture. They have the *ava-ava*, from which they extract the intoxicating liquor already deſcribed in the other iſlands. A moſt extraordinary tree here received the name of *Barringtonia*. The leaves are of a moſt beautiful white, tipped with a bright crimſon. It is called *huddoo* by the natives, who affirm, that its fruit, which is a large nut, being bruiſed, mixed with ſhell-fiſh, and ſtrewed in the ſea, has an effect ſo intoxicating upon the fiſh, that they will come to the ſurface of the water, and ſuffer themſelves to be taken with hands. There are other plants of a ſimilar quality in theſe climates, particularly one called *tubbe*, which grows on another iſland, and intoxicates fiſh in the ſame manner as the *barringtonia* or *huddoo*. It is remarked from obſervation, that the fiſh caught by means of theſe intoxicating plants, were neither nauſeous or unwholeſome. There are alſo the *wharra*, *pandanus*, and a ſort of ſhady trees, covered with a dark green foliage, bearing what they call golden apples, which reſemble, in flavour and juicineſs, the anana, or pine.

The people of Otaheite are robuſt, well proportioned, comely, and alert. With reſpect to ſtature, the men in general are from five feet ſeven to five feet ten inches. The talleſt man ſeen by captain Wallis, meaſured ſix feet three inches and an half; and Otoo, King of Otaheite, is deſcribed by captain Cook as reaching that ſtature. Monſieur de Bougainville ſays, they would, in point of form, be moſt excellent

excellent models for painting an Hercules or a Mars. The ſtandard of the women in general is near three inches ſhorter. Their noſes are generally rather flat, though in other reſpects they are handſome and agreeable, having delicate ſkins, eyes fully expreſſive, and teeth beautifully white and even. Their hair is for the moſt part black, though ſome, in contradiſtinction from the natives of Aſia, Africa, and America, in general, have it brown, red, or flaxen; the children of both ſexes in particular have that of the latter colour. The complexion of the men is tawny, though that of thoſe who go upon the water is reddiſh. The women are of a fine clear olive colour, or what we call a brunette. The men wear their beards in various forms, plucking out a great part. Contrary to the cuſtom of moſt other nations, the women of this country cut their hair ſhort, whereas the men wear it long, ſometimes hanging looſe upon their ſhoulders, and at other times, tied in a knot on the crown of the head, in which they ſtick the feathers of birds of various colours. Like the Chineſe, the principal men of the iſland ſuffer the nails of their fingers to grow very long as a badge of honour, and as an indication of their not being ſubject to any ſervile employment. The nail of the middle-finger on the right-hand, was obſerved to be ſhort; but the reaſon of that peculiarity could not be learned. Their mien and deportment are perfectly graceful.

Tattowing or puncturing is in general practiſed here with both ſexes, and performed in the ſame manner as at the other iſlands in theſe ſeas already deſcribed. They uſually undergo this operation at the age of about ten or twelve years, and in different parts of the body; but thoſe which ſuffer moſt ſeverely, are the breech and the loins, which are marked with arches, carried one above another a conſiderable way up the back.

Mr. Banks, who accompanied captain Cook, was preſent at the operation of tattowing performed on the poſteriors of a girl between twelve and thirteen years of age. The inſtrument uſed had twenty teeth, and at each ſtroke, which was repeated every moment, iſſued an ichor or ſerum tinged with blood. The girl bore the pain with great reſolution for ſome minutes, till at length it became ſo intolerable, that ſhe burſt out into violent exclamations; but the operator, notwithſtanding the moſt earneſt entreaties to deſiſt, was inexorable, whilſt two women who attended upon the occaſion, both chid and beat her for ſtruggling. The operator had continued for the ſpace of a quarter of an hour, in which only one ſide was tattowed, the other having undergone the ſame ceremony ſome time before, and the arches upon the loins, which they deem the moſt ornamental, was yet to be made.

Their dreſs conſiſts of cloth and matting of various kinds; the firſt they wear in fine, the latter in foul weather. Two pieces of this cloth or matting compoſe the dreſs; one of them having a hole in the middle to put the head through, the long ends hang before and behind; the other pieces, which are between four and five yards long, and about one broad, they wrap round the body in an eaſy manner. The men's dreſs differs from the women's in this inſtance, that in one part of the garment, inſtead of falling below the knees, it is brought between the legs. This dreſs is worn by all ranks of people; but that of the better ſort of women, conſiſts of a great quantity of materials. In the heat of the day, both ſexes wear only a piece of cloth tied round the waiſt. They have ſmall bonnets made of cocoa-nut leaves or matting, conſtructed, in a few minutes, to ſhade their faces from the ſun. The ornaments of both ſexes conſiſt of feathers, flowers, ſhells, and pearls, but the latter are more worn by the women. Boys and girls go naked, the former till they are ſeven or eight years old, and the latter till they are five or ſix. Their clothes are in general ſtrongly perfumed. They have a cuſtom in many hot countries of anointing their hair with cocoa-nut oil, the ſmell of which is very agreeable.

The chief uſes for which the houſes of the inhabitants of Otaheite are deſigned, are to ſleep in, or to avoid rain; as in fair weather, they eat in the open air, under the ſhade of trees. They are at beſt but ſheds, and in general without diviſion or apartments. The roof reſembles our thatched houſes, and conſiſts of two flat ſides, inclining to each other. The floor is covered with hay, over which they ſpread mats. The ſize of the houſes is proportioned to the number of the family, and the ſeveral departments adapted for the convenience of the different ranks. The maſter and his wife repoſe in the middle; round them the married people; next the unmarried females; then, at ſome diſtance, the unmarried men; then the ſervants at the extremity of the ſhed, but, in fair weather, in the open air. The houſes of the chiefs differ in ſome particulars, having more convenient apartments conſtructed for privacy. Some are ſo formed as to be carried in canoes; they are very ſmall, and encloſed with leaves of the cocoa-nut, but the air nevertheleſs penetrates; theſe are deſigned only for the accommodation of the great.

With reſpect to the diſpoſition and temper of theſe iſlanders, it has been remarked, that their paſſions are violent, and ſubject to frequent tranſitions from one extreme to another, eſpecially after the ſucceſſion of grief and rapture. As they ſeem abſorbed in luxury, it is natural to ſuppoſe them unable to endure pain in an acute degree; but it will appear otherwiſe, when obſerved, that the women undergo the moſt excruciating tortures from their own hands on the death of relations, as will hereafter be deſcribed. They point out particular friends, by taking off a part of their clothing and putting it on them. Their treatment of our countrymen, after prejudices ariſing from novelty had ſubſided, was generous and courteous. If an engaging look from a native was returned by a ſmile from any of our countrymen, they would avail themſelves of the opportunity to prefer the requeſt of a bead, or ſome other bauble; but maintained an evenneſs of temper whether granted or denied. When the frequency and importunity of their ſolicitations became ſubjects for the diſplay of ſarcaſm amongſt our people, they would only carry it off with an hearty laugh. Novelty was the leading topic of their converſation; their intercourſe with ſtrangers, and the information they derived, and obſervations they made, were ſubjects reſerved for the entertainment and diverſion of each other. Though they always expreſſed emotions at the exploſion of gunpowder, they overcame, by degrees, their former dread and apprehenſion.

Their mode of paying obeiſance to ſtrangers or ſuperiors, at a firſt meeting, is by uncovering themſelves to the middle; and they have a common phraſe when any one ſneezes, implying, "May the Good Genius awake you!" or, "May not the Evil Genius lull you aſleep!"

Though they poſſeſs many good qualities, they partake, as we have ſeen, of the propenſity to theft, that characteriſes the inhabitants of the South-Sea iſlands in general. The terrible apprehenſions of the effects of fire-arms, as upon every occaſion, ſeldom failed of producing reſtitution.

One of the natives having the dexterity to croſs the river unperceived, and ſteal a hatchet, the gunner of the Dolphin, who was commanding officer of a watering party on ſhore, ſignified by ſigns to an old man who was appointed to ſuperintend commerce on the part of the Indians, the offence committed, and drew out ſome of his people, as if he would have gone into the woods in queſt of the delinquent. The old man, intimidated by this ſpecious preparation, gave the officer to underſtand he would prevent the execution of his deſign, by reſtoring the article miſſed;

and

and ſetting off immediately, returned in a very ſhort time with the article ſtolen. The gunner inſiſting on the thief being produced, it was complied with, though with apparent reluctance; and being known to be an old offender, he was ſent priſoner on board. The captain, however, only puniſhed him with apprehenſion, and then diſmiſſed and ſent him on ſhore. He was received on his return by his countrymen with loudeſt acclamations, and carried off in triumph by them into the woods. Conſcious, however, of the lenity of the gunner, he expreſſed his gratitude by preſenting him with a roaſted hog, and ſome bread-fruit.

Another trait of the diſpoſition of theſe people is, that they have not an idea of any thing being indecent, and tranſgreſs the rules of modeſty, without the leaſt ſenſe of ſhame, or notion of impropriety. Notwithſtanding this diſpoſition, the wives here owe their huſbands a blind ſubmiſſion, nor does the paſſion of jealouſy prevail amongſt them in the leaſt degree.

The ſagacity of theſe people in foretelling the weather, particularly the quarter from whence the wind will blow, is very extraordinary. In their long voyages, they ſteer by the ſun in the day, and in the night by the ſtars, all of which they diſtinguiſh ſeparately by names, and know in what part of the heavens they will appear in any of the months during which they are viſible in their horizon. They can alſo determine with preciſion the times of their annual appearing or diſappearing.

Vegetables compoſe the chief part of the diet of the common people of this iſland, whilſt thoſe of exalted rank feed on the fleſh of hogs, dogs, and fowls, and gormandize to an exceſs. Amongſt the articles of vegetable food, are the bread-fruit, bananas, plantains, yams, apples, and a ſour fruit, which though not pleaſant in itſelf, affords an agreeable reliſh to roaſted bread-fruit, with which it is frequently beaten up. The bread-fruit, which is the chief ſupport of theſe people, is attended with no other trouble after the tree is planted, than that of climbing to gather its produce. When the fruit is not in ſeaſon, its deficiency is ſupplied with cocoa-nuts, bananas, and plantains.

A very common diſh, is a pudding compoſed of bread-fruit, plantains, taro, and pandanus-nuts, each raſped, ſcraped, or beat up very fine, and baked by itſelf. A quantity of the juice of cocoa-nut kernels is put into a large tray or wooden veſſel, in which the other articles from the oven are put, together with ſome hot ſtones, in order to make the contents ſimmer. Three or four perſons are employed in ſtirring up the ſeveral ingredients, till they are perfectly incorporated, and the juice of the cocoa-nut turns to oil; and, at laſt, the whole maſs is nearly of the conſiſtency of a haſty-pudding. Some of theſe puddings are excellent, and few that we make in England eqal to them.

They ſubſtitute, inſtead of the bread-fruit, a kind of paſte made of cocoa-nuts, bananas, and plantains, which they gather before the bread-fruit is perfectly ripe, and lay in heaps, covering it cloſely with leaves. It then ferments, after which the core is extracted, and the fruit put into a hole dug in the earth, which is lined with graſs. This is alſo covered with leaves, and preſſed down with a weight of ſtones. This occaſions a great fermentation; when the fruit becomes ſour, it is then baked and eaten. It will keep a conſiderable time before it is baked, and afterwards. The paſte ſo made, is called Maline. Different diſhes are made of the bread-fruit itſelf.

Their method of killing ſuch animals as are intended for food, is by ſuffocation; ſtopping the mouth and noſe with their hands. This done, they ſinge off the hair, by holding the animal over a fire, and ſcraping him with a ſhell. They then cut him up with the ſame inſtrument, take out, waſh the entrails, and put them into cocoa-nut ſhells, together with the blood. Such dogs as are deſigned for food, are fed wholly upon vegetables; and ſome of our countrymen who have taſted the fleſh of that animal thus fed, have declared it to be little inferior to lamb.

In dreſſing their food, they obſerve the following proceſs. Firſt, the fire is kindled by rubbing one piece of dry wood upon the ſide of another. Then digging a pit about half a foot deep, and two or three yards in circumference, they pave the bottom with large pebble-ſtones, which they lay down very ſmooth and even, and kindle a fire in it with dry wood, leaves, and the huſks of cocoa-nuts. They take out the embers when the ſtones are ſufficiently heated, and, after raking up the aſhes on every ſide, cover the ſtones with a layer of cocoa-nut leaves, and wrap up the animal that is to be dreſſed in the leaves of the plantain. If it is a large hog, they ſplit it; but if a ſmall one, they wrap it up whole. Having placed it in the pit, and covered it with hot embers, they lay upon them bread-fruit and yams, which are alſo wrapped in the leaves of the plantain. Over theſe they frequently ſpread the remainder of the embers, mixing among them ſome of the hot ſtones, with more cocoa-nuts among them, and then cloſe up all with earth, ſo that the heat is kept in. The oven is kept thus cloſed a longer or ſhorter time, according to the ſize of the meat that is dreſſing.

The uſual ſauce to their food is ſalt-water: thoſe who live near the ſea, have it furniſhed as it is wanted; thoſe at a diſtance keep it in large bamboos. The kernels of the cocoa-nut furniſh them with another ſauce, which, made into paſte, ſomething of the conſiſtence of butter, are beaten up with ſalt water, that has a very ſtrong flavour, and, at firſt, ſeems nauſeous, but after being uſed ſome time, is much reliſhed. Till viſited by the Engliſh, they were quite unacquainted with the method of boiling, having no veſſels that will bear fire.

The females here are totally excluded from men's ſociety whilſt at their meals. Such indeed was their prejudice in favour of this cuſtom, that they expreſſed their diſguſt even at their viſitants eating in the ſociety of women, and of the ſame food. And the women were ſo accuſtomed to this mode of ſeparation, that the Europeans could never prevail with them to partake with them at their table when they were dining in company. When any of them has been occaſionally alone with a woman, ſhe has ſometimes eaten; but not only expreſſed the greateſt reluctance, but extorted the ſtrongeſt promiſes of ſecrecy. Even brothers and ſiſters among them have their ſeparate baſkets of proviſions, and ſeparate apparatus for their meals. The women have their food ſeparately prepared by boys for this purpoſe.

They uſually eat under the ſhade of a ſpreading tree; their table-cloth is compoſed of broad canvas, ſpread in great abundance. If a perſon of rank, he is attended by a number of ſervants, who ſeat themſelves round him. Before he begins his meal, he waſhes his mouth and hands very clean, and repeats this practice ſeveral times while he is eating. He peels off the rind of the bread-fruit with his fingers and nails. He never eats apples before they are pared, to do which, a ſmall ſhell, of a kind that is to be picked up every where, is toſſed to him by one of the attendants. Whilſt he is eating, he frequently drinks a ſmall quantity of ſalt-water, either out of a cocoa-nut ſhell which is placed by him, or out of the hand. If he eats fiſh, it is dreſſed and wrapped up in canvas; the fiſh being broken into a cocoa-nut of ſalt-water, he feeds himſelf by taking up a piece with the fingers of one hand, and bringing with it as much of the ſalt-water as he can retain in the hollow of his palm. When he dines on fleſh, a piece of bamboo is toſſed to him to ſerve as a knife; having ſplit it tranſverſely with his nail, it becomes fit for uſe, and with this he divides the fleſh. He crams a great

quantity

quantity into his mouth at a time, and ends his repaſt by ſipping ſome bread-fruit pounded and mixed with water, till it is brought to the conſiſtency of an unbaked cuſtard. He then waſhes his mouth and hands; at the ſame time, the attendants cloſe the cocoa-nut ſhells that have been uſed, and place every thing that is left in a kind of baſket.

Such is their averſion to feeding themſelves, that one of the chiefs, on a viſit on board an European veſſel, would have gone without his dinner, if one of the ſervants had not fed him. Some of the Engliſh had an opportunity of obſerving a ſingular inſtance of gluttony. Arriving, upon an excurſion, at a neat houſe, they ſaw a very corpulent man, who ſeemed to be a chief of the diſtrict, lolling at his eaſe, while two ſervants were preparing his deſert, by beating up with water ſome bread-fruit and bananas in a large wooden bowl, and mixing with them a quantity of fermented ſour paſte; while this was doing, a woman who ſat near him, crammed into his throat, by handfuls, the remains of a large baked fiſh and ſome bread-fruit, which he ſwallowed moſt voraciouſly. He had a heavy phlegmatic countenance, which ſeemed to indicate, that all his enjoyment centered in the gratification of his appetite, or, in other words, that he wiſhed to live merely to gormandize.

The people of Otaheite appear to have an averſion to ſtrong liquors, their chief drink being water, or milk of the cocoa-nut. If any of them had drank too freely with the ſeamen, they ever after refuſed the liquor which had produced that effect. They have the intoxicating plant called *ava-ava*, but they uſe the liquor from it with great moderation.—Sometimes they chew the root, and ſometimes eat it wholly.

One of our people made particular enquiry concerning the nature of the perfume-root, with which the natives perfume their clothes and oils. An Indian, more communicative than the reſt, pointed out to him ſeveral plants, which are ſometimes uſed as ſubſtitutes; but he would not, or could not point out the real plants. According to the accounts received afterwards, there are no leſs than fourteen different plants uſed in the preparation of perfume, from which it appears, that theſe people were particularly fond of a compound of ſmells.

Diſeaſes in general do not prevail ſo much in this iſland as in many others. The natives, however, are ſubject to leprous complaints, which appear in cutaneous eruptions. Some had ulcers in different parts of their bodies, but they were ſo little regarded, that no application was made to cure them. They are ſometimes afflicted with cholics and coughs, and thoſe who live luxurioufly are liable to the attack of a diſorder ſimilar to the gout. It is affirmed by Monſieur de Bougainville's ſurgeon, that many had evident marks of the ſmall-pox.

The crew of the French ſhip that viſited this iſland a ſhort time after captain Wallis had left it, are ſaid to have entailed the venereal diſeaſe upon the natives. Above half of captain Cook's people, in 1769, had contracted it during a ſtay of three months. The natives diſtinguiſhed it by a name implying rottenneſs, but of a more extenſive ſignification. They deſcribed the ſufferings which the firſt victims to its rage endured in the moſt moving terms; and aſſured our people, that it cauſed the hair and nails to rot off, and the fleſh to rot from the bones; that it excited ſuch dread and horror among the inhabitants, that, fearing infection, the afflicted were abandoned by their neareſt relations, and ſuffered to periſh in extreme miſery. But they ſeem ſince to have found out a ſpecific remedy for it, as none were ſeen labouring under the dreadful ſymptoms before mentioned upon future viſits.

The management of the ſick belongs to the prieſts, whoſe method of cure generally conſiſts in pronouncing a ſet form of words, after which the leaves of the cocoa-tree plant are applied to the fingers and toes of the ſick; ſo that nature is left to conflict with the diſeaſe without the aſſiſtance of art.—Without medical knowledge, they appear to poſſeſs conſiderable ſkill in ſurgery, which they diſplayed while the Dolphin lay in Port Royal harbour. One of the crew, who, on ſhore, happened to run a large ſplinter into his foot, and the ſurgeon not being at hand, one of his comrades endeavoured to take it out with a pen-knife; but, after giving the man great pain, he was obliged to deſiſt. An old native, of a friendly, ſocial diſpoſition, happening to be preſent, called a man of his country from the other ſide of the river, who, having examined the lacerated foot, fetched a ſhell from the beach, which he broke to a point with his teeth, and with this inſtrument laid open the wound, and extracted the ſplinter.—While this operation was performing, the old man went a little way into a wood, and returned with ſome gum, which he applied to the wound with a piece of clean cloth that was wrapped round him, and in the ſpace of two days it was perfectly healed. The ſurgeon of the ſhip procured ſome of this gum, which was produced by the apple tree, and uſed it as a vulnerary balſam with great ſucceſs. Captain Cook ſaw many of the natives with dreadful ſcars, and, amongſt the reſt, one man, whoſe face was almoſt entirely deſtroyed, his noſe-bone included was quite flat, and one cheek and one eye were ſo beaten in, that the hollow would almoſt receive a man's fiſt, yet no ulcer remained.

Among the birds found on this iſland, are ſmall paroquets, very remarkable on account of the mixture of blue and red on their feathers. There is another ſort of a greeniſh colour, with a few red ſpots; theſe were frequently ſeen tame in the houſes of the natives, who valued them for their red feathers. Here is a king-fiſher, of a dark green, with a collar of the ſame hue round his white throat; a large cuckoo, and a blue heron. There are ſmall birds of various kinds, which harbour in the ſhade of the bread-fruit, and other trees. Contrary to the commonly-received notion, that birds in warm climates are not remarkable for their ſong, theſe have a very agreeable note.

The domeſtic poultry here are cocks and hens, exactly like thoſe in Europe. There are beſides wild ducks, alſo turtle-doves, and large pigeons, of a dark blue plumage, and excellent taſte.

The only quadrupeds in the iſland are hogs, dogs, and rats. The natives are ſaid to have a ſcrupulous regard for the latter, and that they will by no means kill them. But captain Cook, in 1773, turned a number of cats on the iſland, from which, it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, the number of theſe favoured vermin muſt be reduced.

On comparing various accounts, it appears, that muſquitos and flies infeſt the iſland; but this ſeems to be only at certain ſeaſons, and in particular places. Here we found neither frogs, toads, ſcorpions, centipedes, or any kind of ſerpent. The moſt troubleſome inſect was the ant, of which there were but few.

They have fiſh in great variety, and of excellent flavour. Their principal employment is to catch, and their principal luxury to eat, them.

They make ropes and lines, and thereby provide themſelves with fiſhing-nets, of the bark of a tree, which ſupplies the want of hemp: of the fibres of the cocoa-nut they make thread, with which they faſten the different parts of their canvas, and ſubſerve other purpoſes. Their fiſhing-lines are made from the bark of a nettle which grows on the mountains, and is called *crawa;* they are capable of holding any kind of fiſh. Their hooks are made of mother-of-pearl, to which they fix a tuft of hair made to reſemble a fiſh. Inſtead of being bearded, the point turns inwards. They have a kind of ſeine, made of a coarſe broad graſs, the blades of which are like flags. Theſe they twiſt

twiſt and tie together in a looſe manner, till the neck, which is about as wide as a large ſack, is from ſixty to eighty fathoms long. This ſeine they haul in ſhoal, ſmooth water, and its own weight keeps it ſo cloſe to the ground, that ſcarcely a ſingle fiſh can eſcape. They have harpoons made of cane, and pointed with hard wood, with which they can ſtrike fiſh more effectually than an European can with one loaded with iron. They have no method, however, of ſecuring a fiſh when they have only pierced it with their harpoon, as the inſtrument is not faſtened to a line. Pieces of coral are uſed as files to form mother-of-pearl and other hard ſhells into the ſhape required.

CHAP. XVI.

Language, Manufactures, Succeſſion, Manner of embalming the Dead, Dances, Muſical Inſtruments, Government, Cuſtoms, Human Sacrifices, and Manner of treating the Bodies of the Chiefs that fall in Battle at Otaheite.

WITH regard to the language of theſe iſlanders, we are not ſufficiently acquainted with it to ſpeak of its extent; however, by ſuch ſpecimens as have been ſeen, it appears to be rather expreſſive than copious; few wants commonly producing few words amongſt all the children of Adam; dialects of this language, however, are found to be uſed at moſt of the ſouthern iſlands.

The principal manufacture of Otaheite is cloth; of this there are three ſorts, all which are made out of the bark of different trees; namely, the mulberry, the bread-fruit, and a tree which bears ſome reſemblance to the Weſt Indian wild fig-tree. The firſt of theſe produces the fineſt, which is ſeldom worn but by thoſe of the firſt rank. The next ſort is made of the bread-fruit tree; and the laſt, of that which reſembles the wild fig-tree. But this laſt ſort, though the coarſeſt, is ſcarcer than either of the other two, which are manufactured only in ſmall quantities, as the ſame manner is uſed in manufacturing all theſe cloths in general.

They ſoak the bark of the tree for two or three days in water; then take it out, and ſeparate the inner from the external coat, by ſcraping it with a ſhell, after which it is ſpread out on plantain-leaves, placing two or three layers over one another, care being taken to make it of an equal thickneſs in every part. In this ſtate it continues till it is almoſt dry, when it adheres ſo firmly, that it may be taken from the ground without breaking. After this proceſs, it is laid on a ſmooth board, and beaten with an inſtrument made for the purpoſe, of the compact heavy wood called Etoa. The inſtrument is about fourteen inches long, and about ſeven in circumference; it is of a quadrangular ſhape, and each of the four ſides is marked with longitudinal grooves or furrows, differing in this inſtance, that there is a regular gradation in the width and depth of the grooves on each of the ſides; the coarſer ſide not containing more than ten of theſe furrows, while the fineſt is furniſhed with above fifty. It is with that ſide of the mallet, where the grooves are deepeſt and wideſt, that they begin to beat their cloth, and, proceeding regularly, finiſh with that which has the greateſt number. By this beating, the cloth is extended in a manner ſimilar to the gold that is formed into leaves by the hammer; and it is alſo marked with ſmall channels, reſembling thoſe which are viſible on paper, but rather deeper; it is in general beat very thin, but when they want it thicker than common, they take two or three pieces, and paſte them together with a kind of glue, prepared from the root called Pea. This cloth becomes exceeding white by bleaching, and is dyed of a red, yellow, brown, or black colour; the firſt is exceeding beautiful, and equal, if not ſuperior, to any in Europe. They make the red colour from the mixture of the juices of two vegetables, neither of which uſed ſeparately has this effect.

The whole proceſs of making cloth is performed by women, who are dreſſed in old dirty rags of this cloth, and have very hard hands. They prepare a red dye, which is made by mixing the yellow juice of a ſmall ſpecies of fig, called by the natives *mattee*, with the greeniſh juice of a ſort of fern, or of ſeveral plants which produce a bright crimſon, and this the women rub with their hands if the whole piece is to be uniformly of the ſame colour; or they make uſe of a bamboo-reed, if it is to be marked or ſprinkled with different patterns. This colour fades very ſoon, and becomes of a dirty red, beſides being liable to be ſpoiled by rain, or other accidents. The cloth, however, which is dyed, or rather ſtained with it, is highly valued by the natives, and worn only by perſons of rank among them. Their matting manufacture is alſo very conſiderable: it conſtitutes a great part of their employment, and may be ſaid, in its produce, to excel any in Europe. The materials they work up for this purpoſe are ruſhes, graſs, the bark of trees, and the leaves of a plant they call *wharraw*. The uſes to which they apply their matting are various: on that of the canvas kind, they ſleep in the night, and ſit in the day. The fine ſort they convert into upper garments in rainy weather, as their cloth is ſoon wetted through.

They are very dextrous at baſket and wicker-work; both men and women are employed at it, and they make them of many different patterns.

A dramatic haiva, or play, conſiſts of dancing, and a kind of comedy, or rather farce. The performers are of both ſexes. The muſic on this occaſion conſiſts of drums only: it laſts about two hours, ſometimes longer, and upon the whole is generally well conducted.

One of their dances is called *Timoredee*, which is performed by eight or ten young girls, and conſiſts of looſe attitudes and geſtures, in which they are trained from their infancy. Their motions are ſo very regular, as ſcarcely to be excelled by the beſt performers upon any of the ſtages of Europe.

Their principal muſical inſtruments are the flute and the drum. Their flutes have only two ſtops, and therefore ſound no more than four notes by half-tones. They are ſounded like our German-flute, only the performer, inſtead of applying it to the mouth, blows it with one noſtril, ſtopping the other with his thumb. They are made of a hollow bamboo, about a foot long. To the ſtops they apply the fore-finger of the left-hand, and the middle-finger of the right. While theſe inſtruments are ſounding, others ſing and keep time to them. The drum is made of a hollow block of wood, of a cylindrical form, ſolid at one end, and covered at the other with a ſhark's ſkin. They are beaten with their hands inſtead of ſticks. Their ſkill extends to turning of two drums of different notes into concord: they can likewiſe bring their flutes into uniſon. Their ſongs are generally extemporary, and in rhime.

They have the exerciſe of throwing the lance, not at a mark, but for diſtance. The weapon is about nine feet long; the mark is the bowl of the plantain, and the diſtance about twenty yards.

The form of government in Otaheite, though rather unſettled, and in ſome degree apparently uncertain, bears a reſemblance, in point of ſubordination, to the early ſtate of all the nations in Europe when under the feudal ſyſtem. The people are divided into four ranks or claſſes, viz. *Earee Rahie*, ſignifying king, or ſuperior governor; *Earee*, anſwering to the title of baron, *Manahouni*, to that of vaſſal: and *Towtow*, to that of villain, according to the old law term amongſt us. Under the latter is included the loweſt order of the people.

The

The iſland is divided into what our countrymen termed the Greater and Leſſer Peninſula, generally governed by two independent kings: but captain Cook, however, left Otoo in the ſituation of monarch of the whole iſland; yet there was a dependent prince of the ſmaller Peninſula. *Earierahie*, great king, or emperor, is their higheſt title. *Earie*, is applied to a petty king, or a conſiderable chief, though ſometimes the monarch is content with that title.

As children in this country ſucceed to the title and authority of their fathers as ſoon as they are born, the ſovereignty of the king of courſe ceaſes as ſoon as he has a ſon born. It is ſo likewiſe with the *Earee*, or baron, as the ſon ſucceeds to the titles and honours of his father as ſoon as he is born. He is indeed reduced to the rank of a private man, all marks of reſpect being transferred to the ſon. But here it is proper to obſerve, with reſpect to the former, that a regent is choſen, and the father generally retains his power under that title, till the ſon becomes of age; and as to the latter, that the eſtates remain in his poſſeſſion, and under the management of the father, to the ſame period.

The ſubordination of the Towtows, or lower claſs, deſerves attention. Though employed in feeding the animals for their luxurious chiefs, they are not ſuffered to taſte a morſel of their food. They undergo, without daring to repine, the ſevereſt chaſtiſements, if through the unavoidable means of a concourſe, they preſs upon or incommode the king, or any chief, in his progreſs; and this ſubordination is preſerved without any formal power veſted in the king to enforce it. He does not appear to have any military force, either to awe his ſubjects into obedience, or ſuppreſs a ſpecies of rebellion. He has no body or life-guard; the barons who attend his perſon do not go armed; ſo that the diſtinction of rank that is maintained here, muſt be attributed to the placid and complacent diſpoſition of the people in general.

Notwithſtanding this diſtinction of rank, and its conſequent ſubordination, the neceſſaries of life are within the reach of every individual, at the expence of very moderate labour; and if the higher claſs poſſeſs excluſively ſome articles of luxury, as pork, fiſh, fowls, and cloth, there are no objects here ſo extremely deſtitute and wretched, as thoſe which too often ſhock the humane beholder in more civilized ſtates.

The conduct of theſe people does not appear to be under the reſtriction of any ſtated form of government. From divers cauſes, very few actions among them are deemed criminal. They have no idea of the uſe of money; though adultery is held criminal, yet as concubinage with unmarried women is exempt from that imputation, it takes off from the temptation to it. Beſides, in a country where there is very little, or none at all of that delicacy prevalent in more enlightened or civilized parts of the world, a predilection for any one woman is not liable to be attended with any ſerious conſequences.

Adultery, however, is ſometimes puniſhed with death from the hands of the injured party, when under the influence of a paſſion naturally excited by ſuch a cauſe; though in general the women, if detected, only undergo a ſevere beating, and the gallant paſſes unnoticed.

The chief defect here, is truſting executive juſtice to the lawleſs bounds of the injured party, who inflicts puniſhment as judge and executioner on the delinquent at his own will, without any reſtriction. The chiefs, however, in acts of flagrant violation of juſtice and humanity, ſometimes interpoſe.

A ſort of liveries diſtinguiſh the ſervants of the higher claſs. They wear their ſaſhes higher or lower in proportion to the rank of their maſters. The ſervants of the chiefs are diſtinguiſhed by the ſaſh being faſtened cloſe under the arm; thoſe of the inferior rank of nobility by its going round the loins. One circumſtance which does honour to their ſyſtem of government is, the obtaining immediate information of any deſign that is formed. As a proof of this it is obſerved, that one of the water caſks being ſtolen from an European veſſel in the night; the tranſaction next morning was univerſally known among the Indians, though, it was evident, the theft was committed in a diſtant part of the iſland. By the ſame means the Europeans were appriſed of a ſimilar intent the following night; ſo that in conſequence of placing a centinel over the caſks, the thief who came accordingly was diſappointed of his booty.

Several parts of the iſland were private property, deſcending to the heir of the poſſeſſor at his death, and that deſcent appeared to fall indiſcriminately to man or woman.

The number of the inhabitants of one diſtrict of the iſland was eſtimated at 2400, women and children included.

Captain Cook, on a certain occaſion, receiving information from Otoo the king, that the war canoes of ſeveral of his diſtricts were about to undergo a general review, went in his boat to take a ſurvey of it. Their war canoes, which are with ſtages whereon they fight, amount to about 60 in number; and there are nearly as many more of a ſmaller ſize. The captain was ready to have attended them to Oparree; but the chiefs reſolved that they would not move till the next day. This happened to be a fortunate delay; as it afforded him an opportunity of getting ſome ſight into their manner of fighting. He therefore deſired Otoo to give orders, that ſome of them ſhould go through the neceſſary manœuvres. Two of them were accordingly ordered into the bay; in one of which were the king, captain Cook, and an officer, and one of the iſlanders went on board another.

As ſoon as they had got ſufficient ſea room, they faced and advanced, and retreated by turns as quick as their rowers could paddle. In the mean time, the warriors on the ſtages flouriſhed their weapons, and played a variety of antic tricks, which could anſwer no other purpoſe than that of rouſing their paſſions, to prepare them for the onſet. The king ſtood by the ſide of the ſtages, giving the neceſſary orders when to advance, and when to retreat. Great judgment and a quick eye ſeems to be neceſſary in this department, to ſeize every advantage, and to avoid every diſadvantage. At length the two canoes cloſed ſtage to ſtage; and after a ſevere though ſhort conflict, all the troops on Otoo's ſtage were ſuppoſed to be killed, and the oppoſite party boarded them; when inſtantly Otoo and the paddlers in the canoe, leaped into the ſea, as if reduced to the neceſſity of preſerving their lives by ſwimming. But they ſometimes laſh the two veſſels together head to head, and fight till all the warriors on one ſide or the other are killed; yet this cloſe combat is never practiſed, except when the contending parties are determined to conquer, or die. Indeed, in this inſtance, one or the other muſt infallibly happen; for they never give quarter unleſs it be to reſerve their priſoners for a more cruel death the following day. All the power and ſtrength of theſe iſlands lie in their navies.

A general encounter on land was never heard of; and all their deciſive actions are on the water. When the time and place of battle are fixed by both parties, the preceding day and night are ſpent in feaſting and diverſions. When the day dawns, they launch the canoes, make every neceſſary preparation, and with the day begin the battle; the fate of which, in general, decides the diſpute. The vanquiſhed endeavour to ſave themſelves by a precipitate flight; and thoſe who reach the ſhore fly with their friends to the mountains; for the victors, before their fury abates, ſpare neither the aged, women, or children. They aſſemble the next day at the morai, to return thanks

thanks to the Eatooa for the victory, and offer there the ſlain and the priſoners as ſacrifices. A treaty is then ſet on foot; and the conquerors obtain uſually their own terms; whereby large diſtricts of land, and even whole iſlands, ſometimes change their proprietors and maſters.

One of our moſt celebrated navigators acknowledged, that their naval armaments exceeded every idea he had formed of the power of this ſmall iſland. The ſame remark was made of their dock yards, in which were large canoes, ſome lately built, and others building; two of which were the largeſt ever ſeen in that ſea, or any where elſe under that name: and it muſt be confeſſed, that the power and conſequence of the iſland never appeared to ſuch advantage as when, upon another occaſion, the fleet of war canoes was aſſembled. The amount of thoſe collected was 159 of the largeſt, beſides 70 ſmaller ones. The concourſe of people was more ſurpriſing than the number of canoes; for, upon a moderate computation, they could not contain leſs than fifteen hundred warriors, and four thouſand rowers or paddlers. Our countrymen were given to underſtand, that this formidable fleet was only the naval force of a ſingle diſtrict, and that all the others could furniſh a naval armament in proportion to their number and ſize. The officers were dreſſed in their war habits, which conſiſted of a great quantity of cloth, turbans, breaſt-plates, and helmets, ſome of the latter were of ſuch a ſize as greatly to encumber the wearer. Their whole dreſs appeared rather calculated for ſhow than uſe, and not adapted to the purpoſe deſigned. The veſſels being decorated with flags, ſtreamers, &c. made upon the whole a noble appearance.

Two kinds of canoes are here in uſe, one they call Ivahahs, the other Pahies; the former ſerve for ſhort voyages at ſea, and the latter for long ones. Theſe boats do not differ either in ſhape or ſize, but they are in no degree proportionate, being from ſixty to ſeventy feet in length, and not more than the thirtieth part in breadth. Some are employed in going from one iſland to another, and others uſed for fiſhing. There is alſo the Ivahah, which ſerves for war; theſe are by far the longeſt, and the head and ſtern are conſiderably above the body. Theſe Ivahahs are faſtened together ſide by ſide when they go to ſea, at the diſtance of a few feet, by ſtrong wooden poles, which are laid acroſs them and joined to each ſide. A ſtage or platform is raiſed on the fore part, about ten or twelve feet long, upon which ſtand the fighting men, whoſe miſſile weapons are ſlings and ſpears. Beneath theſe ſtages the rowers ſit, who ſupply the place of thoſe who are wounded. The fiſhing Ivahahs are from thirty or forty to ten feet in length, and thoſe for travelling have a ſmall houſe fixed on board, which is faſtened upon the fore part, for the better accommodation of perſons of rank, who occupy them both day and night. The Pahies differ alſo in ſize, being from ſixty to ſeventy feet long, they are alſo very narrow, and are ſometimes uſed for fighting, but chiefly for long voyages. In going from one iſland to another they are out ſometimes a month, and often at ſea a fortnight or twenty days; and if they had convenience to ſtow more proviſions, they could ſtay out much longer. Theſe veſſels are very uſeful in landing, and putting off from the ſhore in a ſurf, for by their great length and high ſtern they landed dry, when the Engliſh boats could ſcarcely land at all.

The chief parts or pieces of theſe veſſels are formed ſeparately without either ſaw, chiſſel, or any other iron tool, which renders their fabrication more ſurpriſing and worthy obſervation. Theſe parts being prepared, the keel is fixed upon blocks, and the planks are ſupported with props, till they are ſewed or joined together with ſtrong plaited thongs, which are paſſed ſeveral times through holes bored with a chiſſel of bone, ſuch as they commonly make uſe of, and when finiſhed they are ſufficiently tight without calking.

Their inſtruments of war are clubs, ſpears, and ſtones. They uſe their ſlings with great dexterity. They have likewiſe bows and arrows; but the arrows are of no other uſe than merely to bring down a bird, being headed only with a ſtone, and none of them pointed. Their targets are of a ſemicircular form, made of wicker work and plaited ſtrings of the cocoa-nut fibres, covered with gloſſy bluiſh green feathers, and ornamented with ſharks' teeth curiouſly diſplayed.

The tools which theſe people make uſe of for building houſes, conſtructing canoes, hewing ſtones, and for cleaving, carving, and poliſhing timber, conſiſt of nothing more than an adze of ſtone, and a chiſſel of bone, moſt commonly that of a man's arm; and for a file or poliſher, they make uſe of a raſp of coral and coral ſand. The blades of their adzes are extremely rough, but not very hard; they make them of various ſizes, thoſe for felling wood weigh ſix or ſeven pounds, and others which are uſed for carving, only a few ounces; they are obliged every minute to ſharpen them on a ſtone, which is always kept near them for that purpoſe. The moſt difficult taſk they meet with in the uſe of theſe tools, is the felling of a tree, which employs a great number of hands for ſeveral days together. The tree which is in general uſe is called Aoi, the ſtem of which is ſtraight and tall. Some of the ſmaller boats are made of the bread-fruit tree, which is wrought without much difficulty, being of a light ſpongy nature. Inſtead of planes they uſe their adzes with great dexterity. Their canoes are all ſhaped with the hand, the Indians not being acquainted with the method of warping a plank.

They are remarkable ſwimmers. It is related that on a part of the ſhore where a tremendouſly high ſurf broke, inſomuch that no European boat could live, and the beſt ſwimmer in Europe could not preſerve himſelf from drowning, if by any accident he had been expoſed to its fury, ten or eleven Indians were ſwimming here for their amuſement. If a ſurf broke near them, they dived under it and roſe again on the other ſide. They availed themſelves greatly of the ſtern of an old canoe, which they took before them and ſwam out with it as far as the outermoſt beach, when two or three getting into it and turning the ſquare end to the breaking wave, were driven towards the ſhore with incredible rapidity, ſometimes almoſt to the beach; but generally the wave broke over them before they got half way, in which caſe they dived and roſe on the other ſide with the canoe in their hands, and ſwimming out with it again, were again driven back. During this arduous effort, none of the ſwimmers attempted to come on ſhore, but ſeemed to enjoy the ſport in the higheſt degree. A bead intended to have been dropped into a canoe, having accidentally fallen into the ſea, a little boy about ſix years old jumped immediately overboard, and, diving after it, recovered his jewel. Our officers, to encourage the child, dropped more beads, which excited the deſire of a number of both ſexes of the natives to amuſe the ſtrangers with their feats in the water; they dived, and not only brought up ſeveral beads ſcattered at once, but likewiſe large nails, which from their weight deſcended quickly to a conſiderable depth. Swimming ſeems to be familiar to both ſexes from the earlieſt childhood, and the pliancy of their limbs and eaſy poſitions in the water were moſt amazing, and ſeemed to indicate that they were a kind of amphibious creatures.

Among many articles of traffic, feathers became of the higheſt value with the women, and of courſe objects which attracted their particular attention. They ſtiled them *Oora*, and they ſeem to have been prized equal to jewels in Europe.

The

The moſt attractive were thoſe called *ooravine*, which grow on the hand of the green parroquet, and the natives ſoon became judges competent to diſtinguiſh the ſuperior from the inferior ſorts. Our people endeavoured to impoſe dyed feathers upon them for thoſe of a genuine colour; but all their arts of deception were abortive. The rage for the poſſeſſion of feathers became boundleſs, and they were the wages of the females favours in general; nor did even huſbands ſeem to diſcountenance them in throwing out allurements to our countrymen to obtain poſſeſſion of them. To ſuch a degree of phrenzy did their deſire for this article prevail, that a ſingle little feather was preferred to a bead or a nail, and a very ſmall piece of cloth cloſely covered with them was received with a rapture of delight equal to any that could be excited in the mind of an European on the preſentation of a diamond of the firſt magnitude. Their warriors exchanged their very helmets for red feathers, and the ſailors purchaſed targets innumerable with them.

Their curious and ſingular mourning dreſſes, which formerly had been prized ſo highly, were diſpoſed of when feathers became the objects of barter. Captain Cook preſented one of theſe mourning dreſſes to the Britiſh Muſeum.

The iſlanders alſo at this time diſcovered great inclination for baſkets, clubs, and painted cloth, and were exceſſively taken with the mats of Tongataboo, though, in general, they reſemble thoſe of their own manufacture. Our people, however, availed themſelves of this diſpoſition, and impoſed on them, under another name, the very mats they had formerly purchaſed at Otaheite, and they had more ſucceſs in this deception, than in the impoſition of dyed feathers.

The natives here live to an advanced age, without being much incommoded by infirmities, retain their intellectual powers, and preſerve their teeth to the laſt. Monſ. de Bougainville, the French navigator often referred to, deſcribes an old man, who had no other trait of age than that venerable one which is imprinted on a fine figure. Silver locks and a white beard adorned his head. His body was nervous and his fleſh ſolid. He had neither wrinkles or any other tokens of decrepitude. This man, however, ſo reſpectable in appearance, ſeemed averſe to the ſociety of ſtrangers: he was totally regardleſs of their careſſes, and gave no indications of fear, aſtoniſhment, or curioſity. Thoſe objects that excited the rapture of the multitude had no charms for him; he accounted them baubles: from which conſideration it appeared that his mind was as ſound and unimpaired as his body.

The ſame navigator relates, that his people found upon this iſland five or ſix men of moſt ſingular appearance. Their ſkins were of a dead white like the noſe of a white horſe, ſcurfy, covered with a kind of down, and of a hue that could not admit of being termed complexion. The hair on their heads, eyebrows, and beards, were of the ſame dead white: they had eyes reſembling thoſe of a ferret, and were remarkably near ſighted. They were, upon the whole, conſidered as being of no particular race of mankind, nor did they appear to propagate beings ſimilar to themſelves.

In this iſland marriages do not come under the cognizance or ſanction of the prieſts, being merely ſecular contracts, abſtracted from any ſolemn tie, or formal ceremony. But if the prieſts are deprived of the benefits that might reſult from marriages, if under the liſt of their functions, they are amply compenſated by an excluſive right to perform the ceremony of tattowing, which being univerſally adopted, muſt be very lucrative, and furniſh them with all the luxuries of life. The males in general undergo a kind of circumciſion, which they intimate as done from a principle of cleanlineſs: however, it is deemed a foul diſgrace not to ſubmit to it. The performance of this ceremony is likewiſe the excluſive right of the prieſts.

As to their religion, it is very myſterious; and as the language adapted to it was different from that which was ſpoken on other occaſions, our voyagers were not able to gain much knowledge of it. All the information they could obtain in regard to this particular was, that the natives imagined every thing in the creation to proceed from the conjunction of two perſons. One of theſe (which they conſider as the firſt) they call Taroataihetoomo, and the other Tapapa; and the year which they call Tettowmatatayo, they ſuppoſe to be the daughter of theſe two. They alſo imagine an inferior ſort of deities, known by the name of Eatooas, two of whom, they ſay, formerly inhabited the earth, and they ſuppoſe that the firſt man and woman deſcended from them. The Supreme Being they ſtyle, "The Cauſer of Earthquakes;" but more frequently addreſs their prayers to Tane, whom they conceive to be a ſon of the firſt progenitors of nature. They believe in the exiſtence of the ſoul in a ſeparate ſtate, and ſuppoſe that there are two ſituations differing in the degrees of happineſs, which they conſider as receptacles for different ranks, but not as places of rewards and puniſhments. Their notion is, that the chiefs and principal people will have the preference to thoſe of lower ranks; for as to their actions they cannot conceive them to influence their future ſtate, as they believe the deity takes no cognizance of them.

As Monſieur Bougainville had firmly aſſerted, on the teſtimony of a native, whom he took with him to France, that human ſacrifices conſtitute a part of the religious ceremonies of the people of Otaheite; therefore, captain Cook, deſirous of having further information concerning ſo intereſting a matter, went to a morai, or place of worſhip (which we ſhall deſcribe in courſe) accompanied by captain Furneaux of the Adventure, having with them a ſeaman who ſpoke the language tolerably well, and ſeveral of the natives. Obſerving in the morai a kind of bier with a ſhed erected over it, on which lay a corpſe and ſome proviſions, inquiry was made if the plantains were for the Eatooa or Divinity, and if they ſacrificed to him hogs, dogs, fowls, &c. To all this a native replied in the affirmative. On inquiry being made whether they ſacrificed men to the Eatooa, the anſwer was *taato eno*, "bad man," firſt *tiparrhy*, beating them till they were dead. When the queſtion was put, If good men were put to death in this manner? the reply was in the negative. Being aſked whether Towtows, that is, men of the loweſt claſs, were ever thus ſacrificed, if good men? a native replied in the negative, repeating the words *taato eno*, or bad men. It appeared, from what could be gathered upon this occaſion, that men, for certain crimes, were condemned to be ſacrificed to the Deity, provided they did not poſſeſs any property to purchaſe their redemption.

The following is a circumſtantial accout of the ſacrifice at which captain Cook was preſent. Having aſked permiſſion to be a ſpectator, which was readily granted, he repaired to Attahooroo, where the ceremony was to be performed. Being arrived there with many others, Otoo deſired that the ſailors might be ordered to continue in the boat; and that the perſons preſent would take off their hats as ſoon as they ſhould come to the morai. To this they immediately proceeded, followed by numbers of men and ſome boys; but not one woman was preſent. They found four prieſts with their aſſiſtants waiting for them, and on their arrival the ceremonies commenced. The dead body or ſacrifice was in a ſmall canoe that lay on the beach fronting the morai. Two of the prieſts, with ſeveral of their attendants, were ſitting by the canoe that lay on the beach; the others at the morai. The company ſtopped at the

 diſtance

diſtance of 20 or 30 paces from the prieſts. Here Otoo placed himſelf; the European viſitors and a few others ſtanding by him, while the bulk of the people were removed to a greater diſtance. The ceremonies now commenced. One of the aſſiſtants of the prieſts brought a young plantain tree, and laid it down before the king. Another approached, bearing a ſmall tuft of red feathers, twiſted on ſome fibres of the cocoa-nut huſk, with which he touched one of Otoo's feet, and afterwards retired with it to his companions. One of the prieſts who were ſeated at the morai then began a long prayer, and at particular times ſent down young plantain trees, which were placed upon the ſacrifice. During this prayer, one of the natives who ſtood by the officiating prieſt, held in his hands two bundles, in one of which, as was afterwards found, was the royal maro; and the other, if it may be allowed the expreſſion, the ark of the Eatooa. The prayer being finiſhed, the prieſts at the morai, with their aſſiſtants, went and ſat down by thoſe who were upon the beach, carrying the two bundles with them. They here renewed their prayers; during which the plantain-trees were taken, one by one, at various times, from off the dead body, which, being wrapped up in cocoa-leaves and ſmall branches, was now taken out of the canoe and laid upon the beach. The prieſts placed themſelves round it, ſome ſtanding, and others ſitting; and one or more of them repeated ſentences for about ten minutes. The body was now ſtripped of the leaves and branches, and placed parallel with the ſea-ſhore. Then one of the prieſts ſtanding at the feet of the corpſe, pronounced a long prayer, in which he was joined occaſionally by others, each of them holding a tuft of red feathers in his hand. While this prayer was repeating, ſome hair was pulled off the head of the intended ſacrifice, and the left eye was taken out; both which being wrapped in a green leaf, were preſented to the king, who, however, did not touch them, but gave to the man who brought them to him the tuft of red feathers which he had received from Towha, who was related to the king and chief of the diſtrict of Tettaha. This, with the eye and hair, were taken to the prieſts. Not long after this the king ſent them another bunch of feathers.

In the courſe of this laſt ceremony, a king-fiſher making a noiſe, Omai ſaid to captain Cook, "That is the Eatooa;" and he ſeemed to conſider it is a favourable prognoſtic. The corpſe was then carried a little way, and laid under a tree, near which were fixed three thin pieces of wood, neatly carved in various figures. The bundles of cloth were placed on a part of the morai; and the tufts of red feathers were laid at the feet of the dead body, round which the prieſts ſtationed themſelves; and our people were at this time permitted to go as near as they pleaſed. He who ſeemed to be the chief prieſt ſpoke for about a quarter of an hour, with different tones and geſtures; ſometimes appearing to expoſtulate with the deceaſed, at other times aſking ſeveral queſtions; then making various demands, as if the dead body had power himſelf, or intereſt with the deity, to engage him to grant ſuch requeſt; among which, he deſired him particularly to deliver Eimeo, Maheine its chief, the women, hogs, and other things of the iſland into their hands; which was, indeed, the expreſs object of the ſacrifice. He then prayed near half an hour, in a whining tone, and two other prieſts joined in the prayer, in the courſe of which one of them plucked ſome more hair from the head of the corpſe, and put it upon one of the bundles. The high prieſt now prayed alone, holding in his hand the feathers received from Towha. Having finiſhed, he gave them to another prieſt, who prayed in like manner: then all the tufts of feathers were placed upon the bundles of cloth, which concluded the ceremony at this place. The dead body was now carried to the moſt conſpicuous part of the morai, with the feathers, and the two bundles of cloth, while the drums beat ſlowly. The feathers and bundles were laid againſt a pile of ſtones, and the body at the foot of them. The prieſts having again ſeated themſelves round the corpſe, renewed their prayers, while ſome of their aſſiſtants dug a hole about the depth of two feet, into which they threw the victim, and covered it over with ſtones and earth. While they were depoſiting the body in the grave, a boy ſqueaked aloud, upon which Omai told the captain, it was the Eatooa. In the mean time, a fire having been made, a lean dog, half ſtarved, was produced, and killed by twiſting the neck. The hair was then ſinged off, and the entrails being taken out, they were thrown into the fire, and left there to be conſumed; but the kidney, heart, and liver, were baked on heated ſtones. The carcaſe, after having been rubbed over with the blood of the animal, was, with the liver, &c. laid down before the prieſts, who were ſeated round the grave praying. They, for ſome time, uttered ejaculations over the dog, while two men, at intervals, beat very loud on two drums; and a boy ſcreamed in a loud ſhrill voice three times. This, they ſaid, was to invite the Eatooa to feaſt on the banquet, that they had prepared for him. When the prieſts had finiſhed their prayers, the body, heart, liver, &c. of the dog, were placed on a whatta, or ſcaffold, about ſix feet in height, on which lay the remains of two other dogs, and of two pigs, that had been lately ſacrificed. The prieſts and their attendants now gave a ſhout, and this proclaimed the ceremonies ended for the preſent.

As it grew towards evening, the Engliſh were conducted to a houſe belonging to Patatou, where they were entertained and lodged for the night. Having been informed, that the religious rites were to be renewed the next day, they could not quit the place while any thing remained to be ſeen.

Early in the morning they repaired to the ſcene of action; and ſoon afterwards a pig was ſacrificed, and laid upon the ſame ſcaffold with the others. About eight o'clock Otoo took our party to the morai, where the prieſt and a great multitude of people were by this time aſſembled. The two bundles occupied the place where they had been depoſited the preceding evening; the two drums were in the front of the morai, and the prieſts were ſtationed beyond them. The king placed himſelf between the drums, and deſired captain Cook to ſtand by him. The ceremony commenced with bringing a young plantain tree, and laying it at the king's feet. A prayer was then repeated by the prieſts, holding in their hands ſeveral tufts of red, and a plume of oſtrich feathers; which the commodore had preſented to Otoo on his firſt arrival.

When the prieſts had ended the prayer, they changed their ſtation, and placed themſelves between our party and the morai. One of them, the ſame who had performed the principal part the preceding day, began another prayer, which continued near half an hour. During the prayer, the tufts of red feathers were put, one by one, upon the ark of the Eatooa. Not long after, four pigs were produced, one of which was killed immediately, and the three others were taken to a neighbouring ſtye.

The maro with which the natives inveſt their kings, was contained in one of the bundles. When taken out of the cloth, it was ſpread on the ground at full length before the prieſts. It is a girdle about fifteen feet in length, and one foot and a quarter in breadth, and is probably put on in the ſame manner as the common maro, or piece of cloth, uſed by theſe iſlanders to wrap round the waiſt. It was ornamented with yellow and red feathers; but principally with the former. One end of it was bordered with eight pieces, about the ſize and figure of a horſe-ſhoe, whoſe edges were fringed with black feathers; the

the other end was forked, having the points of various lengths. The feathers were ranged in two rows, in ſquare compartments, and produced a pleaſing effect. They had been firſt fixed upon ſome of the cloth of the iſland, and then ſewed to the upper part of the pendant, which captain Wallis had left flying on ſhore, the firſt time of his arrival at Matavai. The prieſts pronounced a long prayer, relative to this part of the ceremony; and after it was ended, the badge of royalty was folded up with great care, and put into the cloth. The other bundle, already mentioned under the name of the ark, was next opened at one end; but our party were not permitted to approach near enough to examine its myſterious contents. The intelligence they obtained reſpecting its contents was, that the Eatooa (or rather, what is ſuppoſed to repreſent him) was concealed therein.

The twiſted fibres of the huſk of the cocoa-nut compoſe the ſacred repoſitory, and its figure is nearly circular, with one end conſiderably thicker than the other. The pig that had been killed, was by this time cleaned, and its entrails taken out. Theſe happened to have many of thoſe convulſive motions which frequently appear, in different parts, when an animal is killed; and this was conſidered as a very favourable omen. After having been expoſed for ſome time, the entrails were carried and laid down before the prieſts, one of whom cloſely inſpected them, turning them for this purpoſe gently with a ſtick. Having been ſufficiently examined, they were thrown into the fire. The ſacrificed pig, and its liver, heart, &c. were now put upon the ſcaffold where the dog had been depoſited; and then all the feathers, except the oſtrich-plume, being encloſed in the ark, an end was put to the whole ſolemnity.

Four double canoes remained upon the beach all the time, before the place of ſacrifice. A ſmall platform, covered with palm leaves, faſtened in myſterious knots, was fixed on the fore-part of each of thoſe canoes; and this alſo is called a morai. Some plantains, cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, fiſh, and other articles, lay upon each of theſe naval morais. The natives ſaid, that they belonged to the Eatooa, and that they were to attend the fleet ſent out againſt Eumaio.

The unfortunate victim offered on this occaſion was, to appearance, a middle-aged man, and one of the loweſt claſs of the people; but it did not appear that they had fixed upon him on account of his having committed any particular crime that deſerved death. It is certain, however, that they uſually ſelect ſuch guilty perſons for ſacrifices, or elſe vagabonds, who have no viſible way of procuring an honeſt livelihood. Having examined the body of the unhappy ſufferer, now offered up as the object of theſe people's adoration, our party obſerved, that it was bloody about the head, and much bruiſed upon the right temple, which denoted the manner in which he had been killed; and they were informed, that he had been knocked on the head with a ſtone. The wretches who are devoted on theſe occaſions, are never previouſly appriſed of their fate. Whenever any one of the principal chiefs conceives a human ſacrifice neceſſary, on any great emergency, he fixes upon the victim, and then diſpatches ſome of his truſty ſervants, who fall upon him ſuddenly, and either ſtone him to death, or beat out his brains with a club. The king is then acquainted with it, whoſe preſence is ſaid to be abſolutely neceſſary at the ſolemn rites that follow; and, indeed, in the late performance, Otoo bore a capital part. The ſolemnity itſelf is called Poore Eree, or the prayer of the chief: and the victim is termed Taata-taboo, or conſecrated man. The morai, where the late ſacrifice was offered, is always appropriated for the burial of the king of the whole iſland, and likewiſe of his family, and ſome other perſons of diſtinguiſhed rank. It differs little, except in extent, from the common morais. Its principal part is a large oblong pile of ſtones, about thirteen feet in height, and contracted towards the top, with a quadrangular area on each ſide, looſely paved with pebbles, under which the bones of the chiefs are depoſited. Towards the end neareſt the ſea, is the place of ſacrifice, where is a very large whatta, or ſcaffold, on which the offerings of fruits and other vegetables are placed; but the animals are laid on a ſmaller one, and the human ſacrifices are interred under the pavement. There are ſeveral reliques ſcattered about this place; ſuch as ſmall ſtones raiſed in ſeveral parts of the pavement; ſome with bits of cloth faſtened round them; others entirely covered with it; and upon the ſide of the large pile fronting the area, are a great number of pieces of carved wood, in which their gods are ſuppoſed to reſide occaſionally.

There is an heap of ſtones at one end of the large ſcaffold, with a ſort of platform on one ſide. On this are depoſited all the ſkulls of the human ſacrifices, which are taken up after they have remained under ground for ſome months. Juſt above them many of the carved pieces of wood are placed; and here the Maro, and the other bundle, ſuppoſed to contain the god Ooro, were laid during the celebration of the late ſolemn rites.

This barbarous cuſtom of offering human ſacrifices moſt probably prevails in all or moſt of the iſlands of the Pacific Ocean, however diſtant from each other ſome of them may be. And though it may be ſuppoſed, that not more than one perſon is offered at one time, either at Otaheite, or other iſlands, yet theſe occaſions, in all probability, occur ſo frequently, as to make a terrible havock of the human ſpecies; for no leſs than forty-nine ſkulls of former victims, were counted lying before the morai at Attahooroo; and as none of thoſe ſkulls appeared to have ſuffered any conſiderable change or decay from the weather, it may be inferred, that only a ſhort time had elapſed ſince the victims to whom they belonged had been offered.

Yet this horrible ſolemnity appeared not to impreſs any awe for their deity, ſuch as they ſuppoſed him, nor any veneration for religion, upon the minds of the ſpectators; as this was far from being the caſe on the late occaſion; for though a vaſt multitude had aſſembled at the morai, they ſhewed very little reverence for what was tranſacting: and Omai happening to arrive after the ceremonies had begun, many of the iſlanders thronged round him, and were engaged for the remaining part of the time in making him recount ſome of his adventures; to which they liſtened with great eagerneſs of attention, regardleſs of the ſolemn offices which their prieſts were then performing. Indeed, the prieſts themſelves, except the one who ſuſtained the drincipal part, either from their being familiarized to ſuch objects, or from their repoſing no great degree of confidence in the efficacy of their religious inſtitutions, maintained very little of that ſolemnity, ſo neceſſary to give, even to acts of real devotion, their proper effect.

Their habit was but an ordinary one; they converſed together with great familiarity; and the only attempt they made to preſerve decorum, was by exerting their authority, to prevent the populace from encroaching on the ſpot, and to ſuffer our party, as ſtrangers, to come forward. They were, however, very candid in the anſwers which they gave to any interrogatories that were put to them, with regard to this inhuman inſtitution. Being aſked, what was the deſign of it? they replied, that it was an ancient cuſtom, and highly pleaſing to their god, who came and fed upon the ſacrifices; in conſequence of which, he granted their petitions. It was then objected, that he certainly did not feed on theſe, as he was neither ſeen to do it, nor were the bodies of the ſacrificed animals ſoon conſumed; and that as to the corpſe

corpſe of a human victim, they prevented his feeding on that by interring it. In anſwer to theſe objections, they obſerved, that he came in the night, inviſibly, and fed only on the ſoul, or immaterial part, which (as theſe people ſay) remains about the place of ſacrifice, till the carcaſe of the victim is wholly waſted by putrefaction.

Beſides this, among other ſavage cuſtoms, they adopt that of cutting out the jaw-bones of their enemies ſlain in battle, which they carry about with them as trophies; and they, in ſome meaſure, offer, up their bodies to the Eatooa: for after an engagement, in which they have come off victorious, they collect all the dead, and bring them to the morai, where, with great form and ceremony, they dig a large hole, and bury them all in it, as ſo many offerings to their divinities. But they treat in a different manner their own chiefs that fall in battle. A late king, Tootaha, Tubourai Tamaide, and another chief, who were ſlain in an engagement with thoſe of Tiaraboo, were brought to the morai at Attahooroo; at which place the prieſts cut out their bowels before the great altar; and their dead bodies were afterwards interred in three different places near the great pile of ſtones above-mentioned; and the common men who loſt their lives in the battle, were all buried in one hole, at the foot of the ſame pile. This was performed the day after the battle, with much pomp and formality, amidſt a numerous concourſe of people, as a thankſgiving offered to the deity, for the victory they had obtained the preceding day. The vanquiſhed, in the mean time, had taken refuge in the mountains, where they remained upwards of a week, till the fury of the victors began to abate. A treaty was then ſet on foot, by which it was agreed, that Otoo ſhould be proclaimed king of the whole iſland; and the ſolemnity of inveſting him with the maro, or badge of royalty, was performed at the ſame morai, with great magnificence.

As the natives call their places of interment Morais, ſo likewiſe they do their places of worſhip. They approach theſe morais with awe and reverence; not, as it ſhould ſeem, becauſe they eſteem any thing there ſacred, but becauſe they there worſhip an inviſible being, for whom they entertain the profoundeſt reſpect, although not excited by the hope of reward, or the dread of puniſhment. They hold theſe cemeteries, or places of worſhip, ſo venerable, that the chiefs themſelves, and their wives, on paſſing them, take their upper garments from their ſhoulders. The manner in which they bury their dead, and expreſs their ſorrow for the loſs of relatives and friends departed, is thus deſcribed by the lateſt and moſt intelligent obſervers.

The corpſe was placed in the open air, till the bones became quite dry. A ſhed was erected near the reſidence of the deceaſed; one end was left quite open; the other end and the two ſides were partly encloſed with a ſort of wicker-work. The bier was a frame of wood, like that on which the ſeamen's beds, called cots, are placed, with a matted bottom, and ſupported by four poſts, at the height of above four feet from the ground. The body was covered firſt with a mat, and then with white cloth. By the ſide of it lay a wooden mace, one of the implements of war, and near the head of it cocoa-nut ſhells; at the other end a bunch of green leaves with ſome dried twigs, all tied together, were ſtuck in the ground, by which lay a ſtone as big as a cocoa-nut. Near theſe lay one of the young plantain leaves that are uſed for emblems of peace, and cloſe by it a ſtone axe. At the open end of the ſhed alſo hung a great number of palm nuts, in ſeveral ſtrings; and without the ſhed was ſtuck up in the ground a ſtem of a plantain tree, about ſix feet high, upon the top of which was placed a cocoa-nut ſhell full of freſh water: againſt the ſide of one of theſe poſts hung a ſmall bag containing ſome bread-fruit ready roaſted. The food thus placed by the corpſe was deſigned as an offering to their deities.

Round about the ſpot where the body is placed they ſtrew ſmall pieces of cloth, on which the tears and blood of the mourners have been ſhed; for in their paroxyſms of grief, it is an univerſal cuſtom to wound themſelves with a ſhark's tooth.

The mourning that is worn here is an head-dreſs of feathers, the colour of which is conſecrated to death, and a veil over the face. The dreſs is called *Eeva*. The whole country is ſaid to appear thus on the death of their king. The mourning for fathers is very long. The women mourn for their huſbands; but not the huſbands for their wives.

The iſland producing no commodities that can be converted to the purpoſe of foreign traffic, the main benefit that can accrue from a knowledge of it is the ſupplying of ſhips with refreſhments in paſſing through the South-Seas: and certainly it might be rendered competently ſubſervient to that deſirable purpoſe, as ſuch European productions, both animal and vegetable, as are conducive to the ſame, might be abundantly cultivated in ſo favourable a climate, which muſt alike benefit the voyagers and the inhabitants of Otaheite.

CHAP. XVII.

SOCIETY-ISLANDS.

Situation, Number, and Extent. Their Soil and Productions. Various Incidents. Omai ſettled at Huaheine. Ship's Departure.

THE SOCIETY-ISLANDS, ſo called in honour of the Royal-Society, form a group of ſix in number, called Huaheine, Ulietea, Bolabola, Otaha, Tubai, and Morona. They are ſituate between 16 deg. 19 min. north, and 16 deg. 55 min. ſouth latitude, and between 150 deg. 57 min. and 152 deg. of weſt longitude, and were diſcovered by captain Cook, in the year 1769.

After the commander left Otaheite, in the Endeavour, having Tupia on board, he came in ſight of Huaheine, lying in latitude 160 deg. 43 min. ſouth, and 150 deg. 52 min. weſt longitude. It is divided into two peninſulas connected by an iſthmus, which however is overflowed at high water. The appearance of the country is ſomewhat like that of Otaheite; but it ſeems to have ſuffered ſome ſhocks from volcanoes.

Though ſeveral canoes made up towards the Endeavour, as ſhe approached, yet none of the Indians would come along-ſide, till they received encouragement from Tupia, in whom they placed ſo much confidence, and who ſo far removed their fear, that the king and queen came on board. Almoſt every thing theſe people ſaw in the veſſel, excited their aſtoniſhment; but it was remarked, that they made no inquiries after any other objects, than ſuch as immediately preſented themſelves to their view, appearing to be entirely ſatisfied with what was ſhewn them, though they might reaſonably have ſuppoſed that a building of ſuch utility and extent as the ſhip, muſt have afforded many curioſities. The ceremony of exchanging names, generally conſidered as a mark of friendſhip in theſe iſlands, paſſed between the king, whoſe name was Oree, and captain Cook.

Anchoring in a ſmall but fine harbour, captain Cook went on ſhore, accompanied by Mr. Banks and ſome other gentlemen, with Tupia and the king. Various ceremonies then paſſed between the king and our people, which were conſidered as a kind of ratification of a treaty between the Engliſh and the king of Huaheine.

The

The level part of this iſland is very fertile, and abounds with bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees; and its productions are more forward than thoſe at Otaheite. The mountains here, and in the Society-Iſlands in general, continually attract the vapours from the atmoſphere, and many rivulets deſcend from the broken rocks into the plain, ſo that they are ſupplied with plenty of water.

The iſlanders take great pains with the cultivation of their cloth-tree, having drains made through beds of earth to draw off the water, and the ſides neatly built up with ſtones; and in the drains they plant the *arum*, which yields the yam they call *tatoo*.

When the commander left this iſland, he preſented the king with a ſmall plate of pewter, on which was inſcribed, "His Britannic Majeſty's ſhip Endeavour, lieutenant Cook, commander, 16th July, 1769."

Many of the younger men of the natives, during the ſtay of the ſhip at this iſland, voluntarily offered to take their paſſage with the commander for England. From the whole he ſingled out one, called by ſome, Oedidee, by others, Mahine. This youth was a native of Bolabola, and a near relation of O-Poony, the king of that iſland, and conqueror of ſeveral adjacent ones. He is diſcribed as poſſeſſing mental and perſonal accompliſhments, which endeared him to the people in general on board the ſhip.

Arriving in 62 degrees ſouth latitude, Mahine expreſſed his ſurpriſe at ſeveral little ſnow and hail ſhowers on the preceding days, ſuch phænomena being utterly unknown in his country. The appearance of white ſtones, which melted in his hand, was altogether miraculous in his eyes; and though pains were taken to explain to him that cold was the cauſe of their formation, his ideas on that ſubject did not ſeem to be very clear. A very heavy fall of ſnow ſurpriſed him more than ever; and after long conſideration of its ſingular qualities, he ſaid he would call it white rain when he got back to his own country. In fine, it was with difficulty he was perſuaded to believe that ſnow and ice were only freſh water, till he was ſhewn ſome congealed in a caſk on the deck. He ſtill, however, declared that he would call this 'the white land,' by way of diſtinguiſhing it from all the reſt.

He had collected a number of little ſlender twigs, which he carefully tied in a bundle, and made uſe of inſtead of a journal: for every iſland he had ſeen and viſited after his departure from the Society-Iſlands, he had ſelected a little twig, ſo that his collection, by this time, amounted to about nine or ten, of which he remembered the names perfectly well, in the ſame order as he had ſeen them; and the white land, or *whennua teatea*, was the laſt. He inquired frequently how many other countries they ſhould meet with in their way to England, and formed a ſeparate bundle of them, which he ſtudied with equal care.

Having croſſed the antarctic circle, where the ſun ſcarce ſunk below the horizon, Mahine was ſtruck with the greateſt aſtoniſhment at this appearance, and could ſcarcely believe his ſenſes; all the endeavours uſed to explain it to him miſcarried, and he aſſured the gentlemen, that he deſpaired of finding belief among his countrymen, when he ſhould go back to recount the wonders of congealed rain, and of perpetual day.

The approach of winter led captain Cook once more to ſeek the refreſhments of milder climes, and therefore determining on a viſit to theſe iſlands, he made Otaheite in his paſſage, where Mahine met with ſeveral of his relations, and married the daughter of a chief of the diſtrict of Matavia. The ceremony performed on this occaſion was not obſerved by any of the ſhip's company, who could convey any kind of idea of it: only a petty officer, who was preſent, reported, that a number of ceremonies were performed which were extremely curious, but could not relate any one of them, ſo that this intereſting particular, reſpecting the manners of theſe people, remains entirely unknown. Mahine embarked with captain Cook, leaving, as ſuppoſed, his new-married wife behind him..

He would willingly have proceeded for England, had he had the leaſt hopes given him of ever returning to his native home; but, as captain Cook could not promiſe, or even ſuppoſe, that more Engliſh ſhips would be ſent to theſe iſlands, Mahine choſe to remain in his native country; but he left the ſhip with regret, fully demonſtrative of the eſteem he bore to the Engliſh.

The greateſt anguiſh appeared in this young man's breaſt when he went away. He looked up at the ſhip, burſt into tears, and then ſunk down into the canoe. Juſt as he was going out of the ſhip, he made a requeſt to captain Cook, with which he complied, and then gave him a certificate of the time he had been on board, and recommended him to the notice of thoſe who might touch there after him.

When captain Cook viſited this iſland on his ſecond voyage with the Reſolution and Adventure under his command, the former anchored in twenty-four fathoms water, but the latter got on ſhore on the north ſide of the channel, though ſhe was happily got off again without receiving any damage. The natives received our people with the utmoſt cordiality.

Captain Cook was informed that Oree was ſtill alive, and waited to ſee him. The commanders, with others, went to the place appointed for the interview. The chief had carefully preſerved the piece of pewter, with an inſcription on it, which captain Cook had preſented him with in 1769, together with a piece of counterfeit Engliſh coin, which, with a few beads, were all in the ſame bag the captain made for them; theſe the chief ſent on board. This part of the ceremony being over, our party were deſired by their guide to decorate three young plantain trees with nails, looking-glaſſes, beads, medals, &c. With theſe in their hands they landed, and were conducted through the multitude. They were directed to ſit down a few paces before the chief, and the plantains were laid one by one before him. They were told that one was for the Deity, another for the king, and a third for friendſhip. This being done, the king came to captain Cook, fell on his neck, and kiſſed him. A great effuſion of tears fell down the venerable cheeks of this old man, which appeared ſuch as ſpoke the language of the heart. Preſents were made to all his attendants and friends. Captain Cook regarded him as a father, and therefore preſented him with the moſt valuable articles he had.

Going on ſhore after breakfaſt, the commander heard that one of the inhabitants had been very inſolent and troubleſome. The man was ſhewn to him, equipped in his war habit, with a club in each hand. The captain took theſe from him, as he perceived him bent on miſchief, broke them before his face, and obliged him to retire. Being informed that this man was a chief, he became a little ſuſpicious of him, and ſent for a guard. About this time a gentleman had gone out to collect plants alone; two men aſſaulted him, and ſtripped him of every thing but his trowſers; luckily they did him no harm, though they ſtruck him ſeveral times with his own hanger. They made off when they had done this, and another of the natives brought a piece of cloth to cover him. This gentleman preſently appeared at the trading-place, where a number of the natives were aſſembled, who fled at ſeeing him. Captain Cook perſuaded ſome of them to return, aſſuring them that none ſhould ſuffer who were innocent.

When the king heard this complaint, he and his companions wept bitterly; and as ſoon as his grief was aſſuaged, he made a long harangue to the people that had returned, telling them the baſeneſs of ſuch actions, when the captain and his crew had always behaved ſo well to them. He then took a very particular account of all the things the gentleman had loſt, and promiſed they ſhould be returned, if it was in his power to find them. After this, he deſired captain Cook to follow him to the boat, but the people being apprehenſive of his ſafety, uſed every argument to diſſuade him from it. It is impoſſible to deſcribe the grief they expreſſed in the entreaties they uſed; every face wes bedewed with tears, and every mouth was filled with the moſt diſſuaſive arguments. Oree was deaf to them all, and inſiſted on going with the captain; when they both were in the boat, he deſired it might be put off. The only perſon who did not oppoſe his going, was his ſiſter, and ſhe ſhewed a magnanimity of ſpirit equal to her brother.

Peace was now perfectly re-eſtabliſhed, proviſions poured in from all quarters, the gentleman's coat and hanger were returned, and thus ended theſe troubleſome tranſactions.

The captains Cook and Furneaux went to pay their farewel to Oree, and preſented him with things both valuable and uſeful. They alſo left him a copper-plate with this inſcription, "Anchored here his Britannic Majeſty's ſhips Reſolution and Adventure, September, 1773." Having traded for ſuch things as were wanted, they took their leave, which was very affectionate. On returning to the ſhips, they were crowded with canoes filled with hogs, fowls, &c. Soon after they were on board, the king came and informed them that the robbers were taken, and deſired them to go on ſhore in order to behold their exemplary puniſhment. This they would have done, but were prevented by the Adventure's being out of the harbour, and the Reſolution under ſail. Oree ſtaid with them till they were near two miles out at ſea, and then, after taking another affectionate leave, parted. During their ſhort ſtay at the ſmall but fertile iſland of Huaheine, they procured upwards of 300 hogs, beſides fowls and fruit in great abundance.

The Reſolution and Diſcovery, on captain Cook's third voyage, anchored on the 12th of October, 1777, at the northern entrance of Owharre harbour, ſituated on the weſt ſide of this iſland. Omai, in his canoe, entered the harbour juſt before them, but did not land; and though many of his countrymen crowded to ſee him, he did not take much notice of them. Great numbers alſo came off to the ſhips, inſomuch that they were greatly incommoded by them.

The next morning, all the principal people of the iſland repaired to the European ſhips, agreeable to the wiſhes of the commodore, as it was now time to ſettle Omai, and he ſuppoſed that the preſence of theſe chiefs would enable him to effect it in a ſatisfactory manner. But Omai now ſeemed inclined to eſtabliſh himſelf at Ulietea; and if he and captain Cook could have agreed with reſpect to the mode of accompliſhing that deſign, the latter would have conſented to adopt it. His father had been deprived by the inhabitants of Bolabola, when they ſubdued Ulietea, of ſome land in that iſland; and the captain hoped he ſhould be able to get it reſtored to the ſon without difficulty. For this purpoſe, it was neceſſary that Omai ſhould be upon friendly terms with thoſe who had become maſters of the iſland; but he would not liſten to any ſuch propoſal, and imagined that the captain would make uſe of force to reinſtate him in his forfeited lands.

This prepoſſeſſion preventing his being fixed at Ulietea, the captain began to conſider Huaheine as the more proper place, and therefore determined to avail himſelf of the preſence of the chief men of that iſland, and propoſe the affair to them.

The ſhips were no leſs crowded with hogs, than with chiefs, the former being poured in faſter than the butchers and ſalters could diſpatch them. Indeed, for ſeveral days after arrival, ſome hundreds, great and ſmall, were brought on board; and, if any were refuſed, they were thrown into the boats and left behind.

The captain prepared to make a viſit in form to Taireetareea, the Earee rahie, or then reigning king of the iſland. Omai, who was to accompany him, dreſſed himſelf very properly on the occaſion, and provided a handſome preſent, for the chief himſelf, and another for his Eatooa. Their landing drew moſt of the viſitors from the ſhips, ſo that the concourſe of people became very great.

When the king appeared, his preſence might have been diſpenſed with, as his age did not exceed ten years. Omai, who ſtood at a little diſtance from the circle of great men, began with making his offerings to the gods, which conſiſted of cloth, red feathers, &c. Another offering ſucceeded, which was to be given to the gods by the young chief; and after that, ſeveral other tufts of red feathers were preſented. The different articles were laid before the prieſt, being each of them delivered with a kind of prayer, which was ſpoken by one of Omai's friends, though in a great meaſure dictated by himſelf. In theſe prayers he did not forget his friends in England, nor thoſe who had conducted him ſafe back to his native country. The Earee rahie of Pretanne (king of Great-Britain) the Earl of Sandwich, Toote (captain Cook) Tatee (captain Clerke) were mentioned in every one of them. Theſe offerings and prayers being ended, the prieſt took each of the articles in order, and, after repeating a concluding prayer, ſent every one of them to the morai.

After the performance of theſe religious rites, Omai ſeated himſelf by the captain, who beſtowed a preſent on the young prince, and received another in return. Some arrangements were then agreed upon, relative to the mode of carrying on the intercourſe between our people and the natives. The eſtabliſhment of Omai was then propoſed to this aſſembly of chiefs. They were informed, that the Engliſh had conveyed him into their country, where he was well received by the great king of Pretanne, and his Earees; and had been treated, during his whole ſtay, with all the marks of regard and affection; that he had been brought back again, enriched with a variety of articles, which, it was hoped, would be highly beneficial to his countrymen; and that, beſides the two horſes which were to continue with him, many other new and uſeful animals had been left at Otaheite, which would ſpeedily multiply, and furniſh a ſufficient number for the uſe of all the neighbouring iſlands. They were then given to underſtand, it was the commodore's earneſt requeſt, that they would give his friend Omai, a piece of land, upon which he might build a houſe, and raiſe proviſions for himſelf and family; adding, that if he could not obtain this at Huaheine, either by donation or purchaſe, he was reſolved to carry him to Ulietea, and ſettle him there.

This concluſion ſeemed moſt to gain the approbation of all the chiefs; and the reaſon was obvious. Omai had flattered himſelf, that the captain would uſe force in reſtoring him to his father's poſſeſſions in Ulietea; and he had vaunted himſelf on this ſubject among ſome chiefs, at this meeting, who now expected that they ſhould be aſſiſted by our people in an invaſion of Ulietea, and driving the Bolabolans out of that iſland.

But as it was proper that they ſhould be undeceived in this particular, the captain, with this view, ſignified to them, in the moſt deciſive manner, that he would neither give them any aſſiſtance in ſuch an enterprize,

enterprize, nor even ſuffer it to be put in execution, while he remained in their ſeas; and that, if Omai eſtabliſhed himſelf in Ulietea, he ſhould be introduced as a friend, and not forced upon the people of Bolabola as their conqueror. This declaration gave a new turn to the ſentiments of the council; one of whom expreſſed himſelf to this effect: that the whole iſland of Huaheine, and whatever it contained, were captain Cook's, and therefore he might diſpoſe of what portion he pleaſed to his friend: but, though Omai ſeemed much pleaſed at hearing this, he deſired them to mark out the ſpot, and likewiſe the exact quantity of land, which they intended to grant for the ſettlement. Upon this, ſome chiefs, who had retired from the aſſembly, were ſent for, and after a ſhort conſultation the commodore's requeſt was unanimouſly complied with, and the ground immediately fixed upon, adjoining to the houſe where the preſent meeting was held. It extended along the ſhore of the arbour near two hundred yards; its depth, to the bottom of the hill, was ſomewhat more; and a proportionate part of the hill was comprehended in the grant.

Captain Cook rode with Omai on horſeback, to give him an air of conſequence, followed by the natives, who, attracted by the novelty of the ſight, flocked from the moſt remote parts of the iſland to be ſpectators.

The affair being ſettled between the commodore and the chief, the carpenters and calkers were ordered on ſhore to erect a houſe for Omai, wherein he might ſecure the various European commodities that he had in his poſſeſſion: at the ſame time others of our people were employed in making a garden for his uſe, planting vines, ſhaddocks, melons, pine-apples, and the ſeeds of various kinds of vegetables; all which were in a flouriſhing ſtate before their departure from the iſland.

Omai began now to pay a ſerious attention to his own affairs, and heartily repented of his ill-judged prodigality at Otaheite. He was now the only rich man in the kingdom; and maſter of an accumulated quantity of a ſpecies of treaſure, which his countrymen could not create by any art or induſtry of their own. It was natural, therefore, to imagine, that while all were deſirous of ſharing this envied wealth, all would be ready to join in attempts to ſtrip its ſole proprietor. As the moſt likely means of preventing this, captain Cook adviſed him to diſtribute ſome of his moveables among two or three of the principal chiefs; who, on being thus gratified, might be induced to favour him with their patronage, and ſhield him from the injuries of others. Omai promiſed to follow this advice, and before our people ſailed, this prudent ſtep was taken. The captain, however, not confiding wholly in the operations of gratitude, had recourſe to the more forcible and effectual motive of intimidation, taking every opportunity of notifying to the inhabitants that it was his intention to make another viſit to their iſland, after having been abſent the uſual time; and that if he did not find his friend in the ſame ſtate of ſecurity in which he ſhould leave him at preſent, all thoſe who had been his enemies might expect to become the objects of his reſentment.

The intercourſe of trade and friendly offices between the Engliſh and the inhabitants of Huaheine was interrupted; for, in the evening, one of them found means to get into Mr. Bayley's obſervatory, and carry off a ſextant unobſerved. Captain Cook was no ſooner informed of this theft, than he went aſhore, and deſired Omai to apply to the chiefs to procure reſtitution. He accordingly made application to them, but they took no ſteps towards recovering the inſtrument, being more attentive to a beeva that was then exhibiting, till the captain ordered the performers to deſiſt. Being now convinced he was in earneſt, they began to make ſome inquiry after the delinquent, who was ſitting in the midſt of them, with ſuch marks of unconcern, that the captain was in great doubt of his being guilty, particularly as he denied it. Omai aſſuring him this was the perſon, he was ſent on board the Reſolution, and put in irons. This raiſed a great diſturbance among the iſlanders, and the whole body fled with precipitation. The priſoner being examined by Omai, was with ſome difficulty brought to confeſs where he had concealed the ſextant, and it was brought back unhurt the next morning. After this, the natives recovered from their conſternation, and began to gather about the Engliſh as uſual.

As the thief appeared to be a ſhameleſs villain, the commodore puniſhed him with greater ſeverity than he had ever done any former culprit; for, beſides having his head and beard ſhaved, he ordered both his ears to be cut off, and his eye-brows to be flayed, than which no puniſhment could have ſubjected him to greater diſgrace. In this bleeding condition he was ſent on ſhore, and expoſed as a ſpectacle to intimidate the people from meddling with what was not their own. The natives looked with horror upon the man, and it was eaſy to perceive that this act gave them general diſguſt: even Omai was affected, though he endeavoured to juſtify it, by telling his friends, that if ſuch a crime had been committed in the country where he had been, the thief would have been ſentenced to loſe his life. But, how well ſoever he might carry off the matter, he dreaded the conſequences to himſelf, which, in part, appeared a few days afterwards.

A report being ſpread that one of our goats had been ſtolen by the before-mentioned thief; and though, upon examination, every thing was found ſafe in that quarter, yet it appeared that he had deſtroyed and carried off from the grounds of Omai ſeveral vines and cabbage plants; that he had publicly threatened to put him to death, and to ſet fire to his houſe as ſoon as his European friends ſhould quit this place. To prevent his doing any further miſchief, the captain ordered him to be ſeized, and confined again on board the ſhip, with a view of carrying him off the iſland; and this intention ſeemed to give general ſatisfaction to all the chiefs. He was a native of Bolabola; but there were too many of the people here ready to co-operate with him in all his deſigns.

Their Earee rahie was but a child; and it was not obſerved that there was an individual, or any ſet of men, who held the reins of government for him; ſo that whenever any miſunderſtanding occurred between the Engliſh and the natives, they never knew properly to whom it was neceſſary to apply, in order to effect an accommodation, or procure redreſs. Early in the morning, five days after his impriſonment, the Bolabola-man found means to eſcape from his confinement, and out of the ſhip, carrying with him the ſhackle of the bilboo-bolt that had been put about his leg, which was taken from him as ſoon as he arrived on ſhore, by one of the chiefs, and given to Omai, who went with all expedition on board the ſhip, to inform the captain, that his mortal enemy was again let looſe upon him.

Indeed our people were pleaſed at hearing that the delinquent who eſcaped had gone over to Ulietea; but it was thought by ſome he only intended to conceal himſelf till their departure, when he would revenge the ſuppoſed indignity by open or ſecret attacks upon Omai, whoſe houſe being nearly finiſhed, many of his moveables were carried on ſhore. Among other articles was a box of toys, which greatly pleaſed the gazing multitude; but as to his plates, diſhes, drinking mugs, glaſſes, &c. ſcarce one of his countrymen would even look at them. Omai himſelf began to think, that they would be of no ſervice to him; that a baked hog was more ſavory than a boiled one; that a plantain leaf made as good a diſh or

plate

plate as pewter; that a cocoa-nut ſhell was as convenient a goblet as one of our mugs. He therefore diſpoſed of moſt of thoſe articles of Engliſh furniture among the crew of the ſhips; and received from them in return, hatchets, and other implements, which had a more intrinſic value in this part of the world. Among the numerous preſents beſtowed upon him in England, fireworks had not been omitted; ſome of which were now exhibited, before a great number of people, who beheld them with a mixture of pleaſure and fear. Thoſe that remained were put in order, and left with Omai, on the iſland.

Preparations were now made for departure from Huaheine, and every thing taken off from the ſhore except a goat big with kid, a horſe and a mare, which were left in the poſſeſſion of Omai, who was now to be finally ſeparated from his Engliſh friends. They gave him alſo a boar and two ſows of the Engliſh breed; and he had two ſows of his own. The horſe had covered the mare at Otaheite; ſo that the introduction of a breed of horſes into theſe iſlands has probably ſucceeded by this valuable preſent.

Omai's European weapons conſiſted of a fowling-piece, two pair of piſtols, ſeveral ſwords, cutlaſſes, a muſket, bayonet, and a cartouch box. After he had got on ſhore whatever belonged to him, he frequently invited the two captains, and moſt of the officers of both ſhips, to dine with him; on which occaſions his table was plentifully ſpread with the beſt proviſions that the iſland could afford. He went through the fatigues of the day better than could have been expected from the deſpondency that appeared in his countenance, when firſt the company began to aſſemble. Perhaps his awkward ſituation, between half Indian and half European preparation, might contribute not a little to embarraſs him; for having never before made an entertainment himſelf, though he had been a partaker at many, both in England and in the iſlands, he was yet at a loſs to conduct himſelf properly to ſo many gueſts, all of them ſuperior to himſelf in point of rank, though he might be ſaid to be ſuperior, in point of fortune, to moſt of the chiefs at his table.

Nothing, however, was wanting to impreſs the inhabitants with an opinion of his conſequence. The drums, trumpets, bagpipes, hautboys, flutes, violins, in ſhort, the whole band of muſic attended, and took it by turns to play while dinner was getting ready; and when the company were ſeated, the whole band joined in full concert, to the admiration of crowds of the inhabitants, who were aſſembled round the houſe on this occaſion.

The dinner conſiſted, as uſual, of the various productions of the iſland, barbecued hogs, fowls dreſſed, ſome after the manner of the country, and ſome after the Engliſh faſhion, with plenty of wine and other liquors, with which two or three of the chiefs made very free. When the dinner was over, heivas and fire-works ſucceeded; and when night approached, the multitudes that attended as ſpectators, diſperſed without the leaſt diſorder.

Before they ſet ſail, the commodore cauſed the following inſcription to be cut in the front of Omai's houſe:

Georgius tertius, Rex, 2 Novembris, 1777.
Naves { *Reſolution, Jac. Cook, Pr.*
{ *Diſcovery, Car. Clerke, Pr.*

Having thus executed his main deſign, he took advantage of an eaſterly breeze, and ſailed out of Owharre harbour. Our people had procured more than 400 hogs on this iſland.

It was agreed upon, that immediately after the departure of the ſhips, Omai ſhould erect a ſpacious houſe, after the faſhion of his own country; and the chiefs of the iſland promiſed to contribute their aſſiſtance. Many of the natives continued on board till the veſſels were under ſail; when the captain, to gratify their curioſity, ordered five of the great guns to be fired. They then all departed except Omai, who remained till the ſhips went out to ſea.

He then went on ſhore in a boat, and took a very affectionate and final leave of the captain, never to ſee him more. On this occaſion he gave him his laſt inſtructions how to act, directing him to ſend his boat to Ulietea, to acquaint him with the behaviour of the chiefs in the abſence of the ſhips, which he was to ſignify by particular and private tokens. He had endeavoured to prevail on captain Cook to let him return to England, which made his parting with him and our officers the more affecting. If tears could have prevailed on the commander to let him return, Omai's eyes were never dry; and if the tendereſt ſupplications of a dutiful ſon to an obdurate father could have made any impreſſions, Omai hung round his neck in all the ſeeming agony of a child trying to melt the heart of a reluctant parent. He twined his arms round him with the ardour of inviolable friendſhip, till captain Cook, unable any longer to contain himſelf, broke from and retired to his cabin, to indulge that natural ſympathy which he could not reſiſt, leaving Omai to dry up his tears, and compoſe himſelf on the quarter deck.

Having then bid farewel, he was accompanied by lieutenant King in the boat, who informed captain Cook he had wept all the time he was going on ſhore. It was hoped that he would exert his endeavours to bring to perfection the various fruits and vegetables that were planted by his Engliſh friends. Indeed the principal advantage theſe iſlands are likely to receive from the travels of Omai, will probably ariſe from the animals that have been left upon them; which, perhaps, they never would have obtained, if he had not come over to England. When theſe multiply, Otaheite, and the Society-Iſles, will equal any places in the known world, with reſpect to proviſions. Omai's return, and the ſubſtantial proofs he had diſplayed of Britiſh liberality, encouraged many to offer themſelves as volunteers on an expedition to England.

ULIETEA, which we come next to treat of, is about 20 leagues in circumference. When captain Cook, Mr. Banks, and others went on ſhore, accompanied by Tupia, they were received by the natives in the moſt courteous manner; reports concerning them having been tranſmitted from Otaheite. After ſome ceremonies had paſſed, captain Cook took poſſeſſion of this and the adjacent iſlands, in the name of the king of Great-Britain.

The country has extenſive plains and high hills, the ſoil on the top of which was found to be a kind of ſtone marle. On the ſides were ſome ſcattered flints, and a few pieces of a ſpongy ſtone *lava*, of a whitiſh colour, which ſeemed to contain ſome remains of iron; it was conjectured that great quantities of that metal might be lodged in the mountainous parts of the iſland. Its vegetable productions are chiefly plantains, cocoa-nuts, and yams: thoſe of the animal kind, hogs and fowls; but the latter articles do not abound.

There is great ſimilarity in perſon, manners, and cuſtoms between the natives of this and the iſlands adjacent. Ulietea, however, was diſtinguiſhed from the reſt, by a remarkable morai, which the natives called Tapodeloatea. The walls, which were about eight feet, were raiſed of coral ſtones, ſome extremely large. The whole encloſed an area, of about 25 yards ſquare, which was filled up with ſmaller ſtones. Upon an altar, at a ſmall diſtance from this encloſure, was depoſited as a ſacrifice, a hog, very nicely waſhed, weighing about fourſcore pounds.

Several ſtructures dedicated to the deities were placed about here. Theſe ſtructures are a kind of cheſt or ark, the lid of which is fixed on with art,

and

and neatly thatched with palm-nut leaves. Each of them was fixed on two poles, the uſe of which ſeemed to be to remove it from place to place.

On the firſt arrival of captain Cook here, he received a preſent of conſiderable value from Opooney, the king of Bolabola, who was then at the iſland of Otaha. In return for the compliment, the commander, principal officers, &c. determined to pay him a viſit; when, behold, to their aſtoniſhment, this triumphant conqueror appeared to be nothing more than a man, tottering with the decrepitude of age, incapable of the common functions of life, and in a word a mere lumpiſh maſs.

Three extraordinary perſons were ſeen at this iſland; two of them were as brother and ſiſter: the former meaſured ſix feet four inches, and the ſiſter younger than him, five feet ten inches and an half. The third was a chief named Herea, a native of Bolabola. He was the moſt corpulent man in any of the South-Sea iſlands. He meaſured round the waiſt no leſs than 54 inches; one of his thighs was 31 inches and 3-quarters in girth. His hair was likewiſe remarkable; for it hung down in long black wavey treſſes to the ſmall of his back, and in ſuch quantities, that it increaſed the apparent bulk of his head conſiderably.

When captain Cook anchored here, on his ſecond voyage, he was viſited by Oreo, the chief, who brought with him a handſome preſent. A party of them went on ſhore to make him a return, and as they entered the houſe, were met by five old women, who were lamenting on ſome incident, and had cut their faces in a ſhocking manner. This was not the worſt part of the ſtory, for they were obliged to ſubmit to their embraces, and got themſelves covered with blood. After the ceremony was over, they waſhed themſelves, and appeared as cheerful as any other perſon.

Soon after, intelligence was received, that two of the Diſcovery's people, a midſhipman and a gunner's mate, had made their eſcape in a canoe, and landed on an adjoining iſland, with a view to continue their courſe to Otaheite, as ſoon as they had furniſhed themſelves with proviſions for the voyage. They were no ſooner miſſed, and report made to captain Cook, than he ordered all the boats to be manned, and a purſuit to commence with all poſſible expedition; at the ſame time confining the king, his two ſons, and two of the principal chiefs of the iſland, on board the Diſcovery, till the fugitives ſhould be taken and reſtored.

This he did, no doubt, to intereſt the people of the iſland in the purſuit, and to prevent their aſſiſting the deſerters in making their eſcape. He alſo promiſed a reward of large axes, looking-glaſſes, and other articles of conſiderable value, to any of the natives, who ſhould be inſtrumental in apprehending and bringing them back. To enforce his orders he cauſed all the veſſels to be ſeized, and threatened deſtruction to the country if his men ſhould be withheld. He even menaced the king and the young princes with death, if they were not brought back within a certain time. This might ſeem hard uſage, yet it had its effect: as without this ſteady reſolute proceeding, the deſerters would never have been recovered.

The ſhip's boats went day after day to all the adjoining iſlands, without being able to learn the leaſt trace of them; and this they continued, till having ſearched every iſland within the diſtance of two days' ſail, they were at length obliged to give over any further ſearch as fruitleſs.

At length, after fourteen days abſence, ſome Indians came on board, and acquainted captain Cook that the fugitives were found, and that in a few days they would be brought back; deſiring, at the ſame time, the releaſe of the priſoners, as a condition without which they would again be ſet at large. But captain Cook paid no regard to this information. On the contrary, he renewed his threatenings, which he ſaid he would inſtantly order to be carried into execution, if the men were not delivered up.

The very day following, about five in the evening, a number of canoes were ſeen at a diſtance, making towards the ſhips, and as they approached nearer, they were heard to ſing and rejoice as if they had ſucceeded in finding what they went in ſearch of. About ſix they came ſo nigh, that they could diſcern, with glaſſes, the deſerters faſtened together. They were no ſooner brought on board, than the royal priſoners were releaſed, to the unſpeakable joy of all but the two fugitives, who were under great apprehenſions for their lives; their puniſhment, however, was not ſo ſevere as might have been expected.

When captain Cook, on his third voyage, entered the harbour of Ulietea, in the Reſolution, having the Diſcovery, captain Clerke, under his command, the natives ſurrounded the ſhips in their canoes, for the purpoſe of exchanging their commodities for thoſe of our people.

A few days after their arrival, a centinel on ſhore, named John Harriſon, deſerted, taking with him his muſket and accoutrements. As ſoon as intelligence was gained which way he was gone, a party was detached in ſearch of him; but they returned in the evening without ſucceſs. The next day the captain applied to the chief concerning this affair, who promiſed to ſend a party of the iſlanders after the fugitive, and gave hopes that he ſhould be brought back in the courſe of that day. This, however, did not happen; and there was reaſon to imagine, that Oreo the chief had taken no ſteps to find him.

A conſiderable number of the natives were at this time about the ſhips, and ſeveral thefts committed, the conſequences of which being apprehended by them, very few came on board the next morning. Oreo himſelf caught the alarm, and fled with his whole family. Captain Cook conſidered this as a good opportunity to inſiſt upon their delivering up the deſerter; and having heard he was at a place called Hamoa, ſituate on the other ſide of the iſland, he repaired thither with two armed boats, attended by a native. In their way, they met with the chief, who embarked with them. The captain, with a few of his men, landing about a mile from the ſpot, marched up to it with great expedition, leſt the ſight of the boats ſhould give the alarm, and allow the offender ſufficient time to eſcape to the mountains. This precaution was found unneceſſary; for the natives of that part of the iſland having obtained information of the captain's approach, were prepared to deliver the deſerter. He was found with his muſket lying before him, ſeated between two women, who, the inſtant that the captain entered the houſe, roſe up to plead in his vindication.

As ſuch proceedings deſerved to be diſcouraged, the captain, with a ſtern look, bid them be gone; upon which they burſt into tears, and retired. Paha, the chief of the diſtrict, now came with a ſucking pig, and a plantain-tree, which he was on the point of preſenting to capt. Cook, as a peace-offering, who rejected it; and having ordered the chief to quit his preſence, embarked with the deſerter in one of the boats, and returned to the ſhips. After this, harmony was ſpeedily reſtored. The delinquent made no other excuſe for his conduct, than that the natives had enticed him away; which, perhaps, was in a great meaſure true, as Paha, and the two women above-mentioned, had been at the ſhip the day before his deſertion. As he had remained on his poſt till within a few minutes of the time in which he was to have been relieved by another, the puniſhment he received was not very ſevere.

About a fortnight after they arrived at Ulietea, Omai, according to inſtruction given him by captain Cook, diſpatched two of his people in a canoe, with intelligence,

intelligence; that he continued undiſturbed at Huaheine, and that every thing ſucceeded with him, except that his goat had died in kidding. This information was accompanied with a requeſt, that the captain would ſend him another, and alſo two axes. Pleaſed with this additional opportunity of ſerving him, the captain ſent back the meſſengers to Huaheine, with the two axes, and a male and female kid to his friend.

The circumſtance attending the deſertion of theſe people, and particularly the confinement of the chiefs, induced the natives to meditate an attempt for their relief, which had it not been prevented, might have involved our people in ſtill greater diſtreſs. Captain Cook being on ſhore, abreaſt of the ſhip, obſerved all their canoes, in and about the harbour, began to move off. He inquired, in vain, for the cauſe of this; till information was received from the Diſcovery, that a body of the iſlanders had ſeized captain Clerke and lieutenant Gore, as they were walking at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhips.

The commodore, ſtruck with the boldneſs of this ſcheme of retaliation, which ſeemed to counteract him in his own way, inſtantly commanded his people to arm; and in a few minutes, a ſtrong party, under the conduct of Mr. King, was ſent to the reſcue of the two gentlemen. At the ſame time, two armed boats were diſpatched to intercept the flying canoes in their retreat to the ſhore. Theſe detachments had ſcarcely gone out of ſight, when intelligence arrived, which proved the information erroneous, ſo that they were immediately, in conſequence of this, called in. However, it appeared from ſeveral corroborating particulars, that the natives had actually formed the deſign of ſeizing captain Clerke; and the following day it became no ſecret.

But the principal part, at firſt, of the plan of their operations was, to have ſecured the perſon of captain Cook. He was accuſtomed to bathe every morning in the freſh water; on which occaſions he frequently went alone, unarmed. Expecting him to go this evening, as uſual, they had reſolved upon ſeizing him, and captain Clerke likewiſe, if he had accompanied him. But the commander, after confining the chief's family, had taken care not to put himſelf in their power; and had cautioned captain Clerke and the officers not to go any conſiderable diſtance from the ſhips.

In the courſe of the afternoon, Oreo aſked the commodore, three or four times, if he would not go to the bathing place; till at length finding that he could not be prevailed upon, he retired, with his people, notwithſtanding many entreaties to the contrary. Having no ſuſpicion at this time of their deſign, captain Cook imagined that a ſudden panic had ſeized them, which would be ſoon over. Being diſappointed with reſpect to him, they fixed upon thoſe whom they thought more in their power.

It was a fortunate circumſtance that they did not ſucceed in their deſign, and that no miſchief was done on the occaſion; no muſkets being fired except two or three to ſtop the canoes; to which firing, perhaps, captain Clerke and Mr. Gore owed their ſafety; but Mr. King aſcribed this to the captain's walking with a piſtol in his hand, which, he ſays, he once fired; at which time a party of the iſlanders, armed with clubs, were marching towards them, but diſperſed on hearing the report of the muſkets. This conſpiracy was firſt diſcovered by a girl, who had been brought from Huaheine by one of our officers. Happening to overhear ſome of the Ulieteans ſay, they would ſeize captain Clerke and Mr. Gore, ſhe immediately ran to acquaint the firſt of our people that ſhe met with of the deſign. Thoſe who had been truſted with the execution of the plan threatened to put her to death, as ſoon as the ſhips ſhould quit Ulietea, for diſappointing them. Being aware of this, it was ſo contrived, that the girl's friends ſhould come a day or two afterwards, and take her out of the ſhip, to convey her to a place where ſhe might remain concealed till an opportunity ſhould offer for her eſcaping to Huaheine.

This iſland of Ulietea differs eſſentially from the reſt of the Society-Iſlands in one particular inſtance, which is, that the women have more liberty here, and are not reſtrained from eating in company with the men.

Bolabola is ſituated about four leagues diſtant from Otaha; ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, and ſeveral ſmall iſlands, in compaſs together about eight leagues, and made up of one forked peak, with ſeven low iſlands round it.

The harbour of Bolabola, called Oteevanooa, on the weſt ſide of the iſland, is very capacious, and though our countrymen did not enter it, they had the ſatisfaction of being informed, by perſons employed for that purpoſe, that it was a very proper place for the reception of ſhips. There are many iſlets or ſmall iſlands that ſurround it, which add to the number of its inhabitants, and the amount of its vegetable productions.

The principal reaſon that induced captain Cook to touch at this iſland on his voyage was, to procure one of the anchors which had been loſt at Otaheite by Monſieur de Bougainville, which, he was informed, had been afterwards found by the natives there, and ſent by them to Opoony, the chief of Bolabola. It was not on account of the want of anchors that he was anxious to get poſſeſſion of it; but the people having parted with all the hatchets and other iron tools and implements, in purchaſing refreſhments, they were now obliged to create a freſh aſſortment of trading articles, by making them out of the ſpare iron they could find on board, and even the greateſt part of that had been already expended. Captain Cook, therefore, ſuppoſed Monſ. de Bougainville's anchor would, in a great meaſure, ſupply the want of that uſeful material, and he did not entertain a doubt but Opoony might be induced to part with it.

Oreo, accompanied by ſix or eight others from Ulietea, attended the commodore to Bolabola; and, indeed, moſt of the natives, except the chief, would gladly have taken their paſſage to England.

On his landing, the commodore was introduced to Opoony, ſurrounded by a vaſt concourſe of people. The neceſſary formality of compliments being over, he requeſted the chief to give him the anchor; and by way of inducement produced the preſent he intended for him. It conſiſted of a linen night-gown, ſome gauze handkerchiefs, a ſhirt, a looking-glaſs, ſome beads and toys, and ſix axes. Opoony, however, refuſed to accept the preſent till the commodore had received the anchor; and ordered three perſons to go and deliver it to him, with directions to receive from him what he thought proper in return. With theſe meſſengers perſons deputed ſet out in boats for a neighbouring iſland, where the anchor had been depoſited; but it was neither ſo large or ſo perfect as was expected. By the mark that was upon it, it appeared to have originally weighed 700 pounds; but it now wanted the two palms, the ring, and part of the ſhank. The reaſon of Opoony's refuſing captain Cook's preſent was now apparent; he, doubtleſs, ſuppoſed that the anchor, in its then ſtate, was ſo much inferior to its former value, that, when he ſaw it he would be diſpleaſed. The commodore, notwithſtanding, took the anchor as he found it, and ſent the whole of the preſent which he at firſt intended.

It might at firſt ſeem ſurpriſing that Bolabola ſhould become ſo reſponſible. The reaſon will be ſeen by the following ſhort narrative.

Ulietea and Otaha had long been friendly; or, as the natives emphatically expreſs it, they were conſidered

ſidered as two brothers, whoſe views and intereſts were the ſame. The iſland of Huaheine was alſo admitted as a friend, but not in ſo eminent a degree. Like a traitor, Otaha leagued with Bolabola, jointly to attack Ulietea, whoſe people required the aſſiſtance of their friends in Huaheine againſt theſe united powers. The inhabitants of Bolabola were encouraged by a pretended propheteſs, who predicted their ſucceſs. The canoes of Bolabola attacked thoſe of Ulietea and Huaheine: the encounter laſted long, they being laſhed ſtrongly together with ropes; and, notwithſtanding the prediction, the Bolabola fleet would have been vanquiſhed, had not that of Otaha arrived at the critical moment. The fortune of the day was now turned; victory declared in favour of the Bolabolans; and their enemies were totally defeated. Two days after the conquerors invaded Huaheine, which they ſubdued, it being weakly defended, as moſt of its warriors were then abſent. Many of its fugitives, however, having got to Otaheite, there related their melancholy tale. This ſo affected thoſe of their own country and of Ulietea, whom they found in that iſland, that they obtained their aſſiſtance. They were furniſhed with only ten fighting canoes; with which inconſiderable force they effected a landing at Huaheine in the night; and, taking the Bolabola men by ſurprize, killed many of them, and diſperſed the reſt. Thus were they again, by one bold effort, poſſeſſed of their own iſland, which at this day remains independent, and is governed by its own chiefs. When the combined fleets of Ulietea and Huaheine were defeated, the men of Bolabola were applied to by their new allies of Otaha to be allowed an equal ſhare of the conqueſts. This being refuſed, the alliance broke; and, during the ſubſequent war, Otaha was conquered as well as Ulietea, both of which remain ſubject to Bolabola; the chiefs by whom they are governed being only deputies to Opoony the king of the iſland. In the reduction of the two iſlands five battles were fought at different places, and great numbers fell in the conteſt.

Since the conqueſt of Ulietea and Otaha, the Bolabola men are conſidered as invincible; and their fame is ſo far extended, that, even at Otaheite, if not dreaded, they are reſpected for their valour. It is aſſerted, they never fly from an enemy, and that they are victorious againſt an equal number of the other iſlanders. Indeed, the eſtimation in which the people of Bolabola are held at Otaheite may be gathered from M. de Bouganville's anchor having been ſent to their ſovereign. The intention of tranſporting the Spaniſh bull to their iſland muſt be aſcribed to the ſame cauſe. They alſo had a third European curioſity brought to Otaheite by the Spaniards. This animal had been ſo imperfectly deſcribed by the natives, that our voyagers had been much puzzled to conjecture what it could be. When captain Clerke's deſerters, however, were brought back from Bolabola, they ſaid the animal had been ſhewn to them, and that it was a ram. In conſequence of this intelligence, captain Cook, when he landed to meet Opoony, took an ewe with him in the boat, of the Cape of Good-Hope breed, whereby a foundation might be laid for a breed of ſheep at Bolabola. He alſo left with Oreo, at Ulietea, two goats, and an Engliſh boar and ſow: ſo that the race of hogs will be conſiderably improved, in a few years, not only at Otaheite, but alſo at all the neighbouring iſlands; and they will, perhaps, be ſtocked with many valuable European animals. When this is really the caſe, theſe iſlands will be unrivalled in abundance and variety of refreſhments for the ſupply of future navigators. Even in their preſent ſtate they are hardly to be excelled. When the inhabitants are not diſturbed by inteſtine broils, which had been the caſe for ſeveral years paſt, their productions are numerous and plentiful.

The following is the mode of ſalting pork, uſed by captain Cook in his voyages.

In the evening the hogs were killed, and, when cleanſed, were cut up, after which the bones were taken out. The meat was ſalted while hot, and laid in ſuch a manner as to permit the juices to drain from it, till the next morning: it was then ſalted again, put into a caſk, and covered with pickle. It remained in this ſituation four or five days, when it was taken out, and carefully examined; and if any of it appeared to be in the leaſt tainted, which ſometimes happened, it was ſeparated from the reſt, which was repacked, headed up, and filled with good pickle. It was again examined in about eight or ten days time, but there appeared no neceſſity for it, as it was generally found to be all thoroughly cured. Bay and white ſalt mixed together anſwers the beſt, though either of them will do alone. Great care was taken that none of the large blood-veſſels remained in the meat; and that not too much ſhould be packed together at the firſt ſalting, leſt thoſe pieces which are in the middle ſhould heat, and hinder the ſalt from penetrating them. In tropical climates, meat ought not to be ſalted in rainy and ſultry weather.

Otaha bears a ſtrong reſemblance to thoſe iſlands adjacent. It is not populous. The harbour on the eaſt ſide was found ſafe and convenient, with good anchorage. This iſland is ſituated within about two miles of Ulietea; but as both are encloſed in one reef of coral rocks, there is no paſſage for ſhipping between them.

Like the inhabitants of every part of this ſpot, they received our countrymen who landed from the boat on their coaſt with all tokens of courteſy, and uſed the ſame honorary compliments to them as they did to their kings, to Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander.

The iſland of Tubai produces nothing but cocoa-nuts, and is ſaid to be inhabited only by three families. But as the coaſt abounds with fiſh, the ſhore is frequently viſited by the people of the adjacent iſlands.

Moroua, or Mawrua, is a ſmall iſland ſurrounded with a reef of rocks, and has no harbour for ſhipping. It has ſome few inhabitants, and produces the ſame articles with thoſe adjacent. In the midſt of it is an high round hill, which may be ſeen at the diſtance of ten leagues, for which only it is remarkable.

The people of the Society-Iſlands are in general ſtout and well made, and many of them tall. They are not of ſo dark a complexion as thoſe of Otaheite, and the women are in general as handſome, and nearly of the ſame colour as Europeans.

They are exceeding indolent, and have very little curioſity. Dogs, in ſpite of their ſtupidity, are in great favour with all the women. Here was ſeen a middle aged woman, whoſe breaſts were full of milk, offering them to a little puppy that had been trained up to ſuck them: the ſight diſguſted thoſe who ſaw it to ſuch a degree that they could not forbear expreſſing their diſlike of it; but the woman only ſmiled at them, and ſaid, that ſhe ſuffered little pigs to do the ſame: it appeared afterwards that this woman had loſt her child.

The veneration of the inhabitants for certain kinds of birds is evident from the following circumſtance. On a ſhooting party our people happened to kill ſeveral king-fiſhers; and juſt as they had brought down one of thoſe birds, they met Oreo and his family walking with captain Cook; the chief juſt then took no notice of the bird, but his fair daughter lamented the death of her Eatooa; her mother, and moſt of the women, ſeemed alſo grieved at its fate; and on ſtepping into the boat, Oreo himſelf deſired them, with a very ſerious air, not to kill the king-fiſhers and the herons, allowing them at the ſame time,

time, the liberty of killing any other ſorts of birds. It is to be remembered that Omai, at the ſacrifice, called the king-fiſher an *Eatooa;* ſo that bird appears to be thought ſacred.

Great quantities of the root called *ava ava* are cultivated in theſe iſlands, with which the natives make their intoxicating liquor. This is no other than the pepper plant. It ſeems, however, that drunkenneſs here is puniſhed, like all other exceſſes, with diſeaſes; the old men who make a practice of hard-drinking are lean, and covered with a ſcaly or ſcabby ſkin, have red eyes, and red blotches on all parts of their bodies: they acknowledge theſe evils to ariſe from intemperance, and perhaps thoſe leprous diſorders that ſome were ſeen to be afflicted with at Otaheite are produced by taking large potions of this liquor.

Their entertainments of a public nature conſiſt of dancing, and a kind of dramatic exhibition; which dramatic exhibitions, as well as feſtive entertainments, from their ſingularity, are worthy of attention.

A party of our people were preſent at Ulietea, where a performance was exhibited, called by the natives *Mididdij Marramy;* which ſignifies, "the child is coming." It concluded with a repreſentation of a woman in labour, acted by a ſet of great brawny fellows, one of whom ſeemed to bring forth a great ſtrapping boy about ſix feet high, who ran about the ſtage, dragging after him a large wiſp of ſtraw, which hung by a ſtring from his middle. Captain Cook obſerved, that the moment they got hold of the fellow, they flattened or preſſed his noſe, from whence he concludes, that their new born infants are ſo treated, which accounts for the natives in general having flat noſes.

The only actreſs at Oreo's theatre was his daughter Poyadua, a pretty brown girl, at whoſe ſhrine many offerings were made by her numerous votaries on theſe occaſions.

Another dramatic exhibition was preſented to our people at Huaheine: the piece repreſented a girl running away from her parents, and ſeemed to be levelled at a female paſſenger whom they had brought from Otaheite, who happened to be preſent at the repreſentation. It had ſuch an impreſſion upon the girl, that ſhe could ſcarcely be perſuaded to ſee the piece out, or to refrain from tears while acting. It concluded with the reception ſhe was ſuppoſed to meet with from her friends at her return, which was made out to be unfavourable. Thus it appears that theſe people introduce extempore pieces on occaſion, and it is moſt probable, that this was meant as a ſatire upon the girl, and to diſcourage others from acting in the ſame manner.

Oreo likewiſe gave a public dinner to the captains Cook and Furneaux, ſeveral of the officers of both ſhips, and the paſſengers. On this occaſion a great part of the ſpacious houſe was ſpread with large quantities of leaves, which ſerved for a table cloth, round which the viſitants ſeated themſelves, together with the principal people of the iſland. Soon after, one of the ſervants, or towtows, brought a hog ſmoking on his ſhoulders, which was roaſted whole, and wrapped in a large bundle of plantain leaves; this he threw upon the floor, round which the company was ſeated. Another ſmaller hog was carried in the ſame manner, and both ſo hot as hardly to be touched: the table, or rather floor, was garniſhed about with hot bread-fruit and plantains, with a quantity of cocoa-nuts for drink. Each man being ready with his knife in his hand, the hogs were preſently cut to pieces, and the European part of the company agreed, that they taſted better than an Engliſh barbecue: the equal degree of heat with which it ſtews under ground, had preſerved and concentrated all its juices; the fat was not luſcious and ſurfeiting, and the ſkin, inſtead of being very hard, which is the caſe of roaſted pork with us, was as tender as any other part. One of theſe hogs weighed between 50 and 60 pounds, and the other about half as much, yet all the parts were equally done. The chief, his ſon, and ſome others of his male friends, partook of this repaſt with their gueſts: the men ate with great liking; but all the women were ſtationed behind, and were not admitted as ſharers in the feaſt.

It is the cuſtom in theſe iſlands for the chiefs to have burial places erected while they are yet alive, which doubtleſs occaſioned Oreo's inquiring of captain Cook (when he could not obtain his promiſe to return in departing from Ulietea in his ſecond voyage) the name of his morai, or burying-place. Hence it appears that theſe people could not give a greater proof of their affection to their Engliſh friends, than in expreſſing a deſire to remember them even beyond the period of their lives.

The religion of the inhabitants of the Society-Iſlands appeared to conſiſt in having a diverſity of gods peculiar to each iſland. But they believe, in general, every man to have a ſeparate being within himſelf, named *Tee*, which acts in conſequence of the impreſſion of the ſenſes, and combines ideas into thoughts, which they call *parou no te oboo*, which literally ſignifies "words in the belly." This mind they ſuppoſe to have an exiſtence after the diſſolution of the body, and that the man in that ſtate feaſts on bread-fruit and pork, which need no preparation from the fire.

Beſides their greater divinities, they have a number of inferior ones, ſome of whom they ſuppoſe to be inimical to mankind. The high prieſt of the iſland is called Tahowarahai; to him the Eatooa, or god, is ſuppoſed to deſcend, and hold converſe with him, whilſt he remains inviſible to the people that ſurround him. Offerings are made to the greater deities, of hogs and poultry roaſted, and of all kinds of eatables; but the inferior, and particularly the malevolent ſpirits, are only revered by a kind of hiſſing.

In theſe iſlands the prieſts continue in office for life, and the dignity is hereditary. The high prieſt is always an Earee, who has the higheſt rank next to the king. They are conſulted upon many important occaſions; partake largely of the good things of the country, and, in ſhort, have found means to make themſelves neceſſary. Beſides the prieſts, there are in every diſtrict teachers, or *tata-o-rerrors*, who inſtruct the people in aſtronomy and the navigation of thoſe ſeas, which however is very imperfect.

CHAP. XVIII.

THE MARQUESAS.

General Deſcription of them.

ALVARA MENDANA, a Spaniard, is accounted the firſt diſcoverer of the Marqueſas; and they were ſo denominated in honour of the Marquis of Cannette, in 1595, then Viceroy of Peru. Their particular names are, La Magdalena, S. Pedro, La Dominica, Santo Chriſtina, and Hood's-Iſland. Mendana had only ſeen the four firſt; and the laſt was diſcovered by captain Cook, in 1794. It lies to the north-weſt of the reſt, in 9 deg. 26 min. ſouth, and 138 deg. of W. longitude, and five leagues and a half diſtant from the Eaſtern point of S. Magdalena. The five Marqueſas Iſles take up about one degree of latitude, and near half a degree of longitude. The people here are ruled by a chief, whoſe dignity ſeems principally to conſiſt in a ſuperiority of dreſs.

Captain Cook relates, that the inhabitants of theſe iſlands excel, in general, all the natious of the South-Seas,

Seas, in ſymmetry of form, and regularity of features. He mentions, in particular, that not one diſproportioned perſon was ſeen upon the iſland of Chriſtina; but that all were robuſt, well made, and active. Their countenances were open and lively. The men are about five feet ſix inches in ſtature; their hair is of divers colours, but none red. It is moſtly worn ſhort, unleſs it he a bunch tied in a knot on each ſide of the crown. Their complexion, naturally tawny, is rendered almoſt black by punctures over the whole body. Their only covering was a ſmall piece of cloth round the waiſt and loins.

The women were inferior to the men in ſtature, but well proportioned. Their general complexion was brown. They were ſome of them punctured, and their body dreſs was a ſingle piece of cloth made of the mulberry bark, which covered them from the ſhoulders to the knees. They uſe a head-dreſs, a kind of broad fillet, curiouſly made of the fibres of the huſks of cocoa-nuts. This fillet is interſperſed with mother-of-pearl and tortoiſe-ſhells, wrought into curious figures, and diſplayed in divers forms. To the fillet is fixed the tail feathers of tropic birds, which, ſtanding upright when it is tied on, the whole together makes a very brilliant appearance. They wear a kind of ruff, or necklace, made of light wood; the outer and upper ſides covered with ſmall peas, fixed on with gum. They have alſo ſome bunches of human hair faſtened to a ſtring, and tied round the legs and arms; but no one perſon is ever decorated with all theſe ornaments. They were none of them held in eſtimation like the human hair, the bunches of which, it is probable, were worn in remembrance of their deceaſed relations, and therefore looked upon with a degree of veneration; or, they might have been the ſpoils of their enemies, worn as badges of conqueſt. They had a kind of fan to cool themſelves in hot weather, formed of a tough bark or graſs, very firmly and curiouſly plaited, and frequently whitened with ſhell lime. Some had large feathered leaves of a kind of palm, which anſwered the purpoſe of an umbrella.

When the king viſited captain Cook, he was completely decorated with all theſe ornaments, and the only one ever ſeen ſo dreſſed. He complimented the captain with ſome preſents, and gave him to underſtand the ſuperiority of his rank. Their extraordinary ornaments are necklaces and amulets made of ſhells. They had all their ears pierced, though none were ſeen with ear-rings.

Their habitations, which are in the valleys and on the ſides of the hills near the plantations, reſemble, in form, thoſe of Otaheite, but are much meaner, and covered with leaves of the bread-fruit tree. They are built, in general, on a ſquare or oblong pavement of ſtone, raiſed ſome height above the level of the ground. They have alſo a pavement near their houſes for the purpoſe of ſitting to eat, regale, and amuſe themſelves. Our people, by the help of glaſſes, could diſcern, along the uppermoſt edge of a mountain, a row of ſtakes or paliſades cloſely connected together, like a fortification, which ſeemed to reſemble the Hippahs of New Zealand.

The only quadrupeds ſeen here were hogs and rats. But there were fowls, and many ſmall birds in the woods, that warbled moſt melodiouſly. Notwithſtanding theſe iſlands produce fowls, hogs, and the waters, at certain times, fiſh in abundance, the inhabitants ſubſiſt chiefly on vegetable food. As cocoa-nuts do not abound, pure water is their drink in ordinary.

In the articles of eating and cookery, they are not cleanly. Pork and fowls are dreſſed in an oven of hot ſtones: but fruit and roots they roaſt on the fire; and after taking off the rind and ſkin, put them into a platter or trough, with water, out of which captain Cook affirms, he ſaw both men and hogs eat at the ſame time.

It appears that theſe iſlands are ſimilar in their origin, and the nature of their minerals, to the Society-Iſlands, the greater part of which ſeem to have been the burning mountains.

The Marqueſans diſcovered the ſame timidity on the approach of ſtrangers, in common with the natives of the ſouthern climes; nor could be induced for ſome time, to come on board the ſhips, by any ſigns of friendſhip, that could be made them. They ventured indeed to come along-ſide, and offered ſome pepper-roots, which were fixed on the ſhrouds, as tokens of reciprocal friendſhip. The exchange of nails for fiſh and bread-fruit, in great perfection, was highly ſalutary, as well as gratifying to the whole ſhip's company, who, for the courſe of nineteen weeks, had ſubſiſted on ſalt proviſions, which having then been two years on board, were neither agreeable in flavour, nor of a nutritive quality. The canoes retired a little after ſun-ſet, according to the general cuſtom of the natives of the South-Sea iſlands, who cannot be prevailed on to keep awake a ſingle night, by the moſt attracting novelty.

Thoſe parts of theſe iſlands which are capable of cultivation are very populous; but as they are in general mountainous, and have many inacceſſible rocks, it is doubted whether the whole group contain fifty thouſand inhabitants.

Intercourſe had not been long held between our people and the natives, before it was evident they were more diſpoſed to receive than to give; for having taken a nail in exchange for ſome bread-fruit, they with-held the article ſo purchaſed, till captain Cook had recourſe to the ordinary means of firing a muſket over their heads, and thus terrified them into fair dealing. Nor were theſe iſlanders exempt from that propenſity to theft, which characterizes the nations of the South Seas. Soon after they had courage enough to venture on board, one of them ſtole an iron ſtanchion from the gangway, with which he ſprang into the ſea, and notwithſtanding its weight, ſwam with it to his canoe, and was making to the ſhore with all ſpeed. A muſket was fired over his head to frighten him back, but to no effect; he ſtill continued to make off with his booty. The whiſtling of another ball over his head was as ineffectual. An officer, leſs patient of ſuch an injury than reaſon and humanity ſhould have taught him to be, levelled at him, and ſhot him through the head. Captain Cook had given orders to fire *over* the canoe, but not to kill any one. He was in a boat, and came up with the canoe ſoon after. There were two men in her; one ſat bailing out the blood and water, in a kind of hyſteric laugh; the other, a youth of about fourteen or fifteen years of age, who afterwards proved to be the ſon of the deceaſed, fixed his eyes on the dead body, with a ſerious and dejected countenance. This act of ſeverity, however, did not eſtrange the iſlanders from the ſhip, and a traffic was carried on to the ſatisfaction of both parties. Bread-fruit, bananas, plantains, and ſome hogs, were given in exchange for ſmall nails, knives, and pieces of Amſterdam cloth. Red feathers of the Amſterdam iſland were greatly eſteemed here.

Captain Cook, accompanied with the gentlemen of the ſhip, in their walks about the country, came accidentally to the houſe which had been the habitation of the man who had been ſhot; there they found his ſon, who fled at their approach: they inquired for his female relations, and were told that they remained at the top of the mountain, to weep and mourn for the dead. But though they were then among the relations of a man who had been killed by them, not the leaſt tokens of animoſity or revenge were diſcernible among the natives.

On ſeeing a ſailor corrected by the boatſwain's mate, they exclaimed, "He beats his brother," which ariſes from their idea of all one country being in effect of one and the ſame family.

CHAP. XIX.

Deſcription of the ISLANDS *termed*, "*The* LOW ISLANDS *in the* SOUTH-WEST."

THESE iſlands, which form a group, connected by a reef of coral rocks, and lie ſcattered, in general, between the latitude of 14 deg. 28 min. ſouth, and the longitude of 138 deg. and 56 min. weſt, are the following; King George's, Diſappointment, Palliſer, Dog, Queen Charlotte's, Lagoon, Thumb-Cap, Bow, The Groups, Bird, Chain, Oſnaburg, and Pitcairn Iſlands. Of theſe we ſhall treat in their reſpective order.

King George's Iſlands are two in number; they were firſt diſcovered by commodore Byron, in 1765. When the Engliſh firſt went on ſhore, they found many huts deſerted by the natives, the dogs being the only tenants; and thoſe animals, terrified by the appearance of ſtrangers, kept a continual howling all the time they continued on ſhore. The hovels, though very mean and low, were ſituated in a charming ſpot, amidſt a grove of lofty trees, ſome of which were the cocoa, and others of a ſpecies unknown. The natives ſeemed to derive the neceſſaries of life, in general, from the cocoa-nut tree, as it ſupplied them not only with food, but ſails, cordage, and timber.

The cocoa-palm may well be deemed the ſtaple of life, as it produces every eſſential requiſite for the ſupport of many nations on the globe. Every part of it is converted to ſome uſeful purpoſe: as for inſtance; the nuts, whilſt green, contain a liquor pleaſant to the palate, and of a quality ſo ſingularly cooling, that it allays thirſt, and affords refreſhment in a hot climate, beyond any other production. When in due progreſs the kernel forms, it is at firſt of the ſubſtance of a rich cream; and afterwards growing firm and oily, like an almond, becomes equally balſamic and nouriſhing. The oil extracted from it is adapted to divers purpoſes, and particularly that of anointing the hair, and frequently the whole body. Cups are made of the hard ſhell; and a variety of cordage, elaſtic and durable, from the fibrous coating around it. Several articles of Indian houſehold furniture, and divers kinds of ornaments, are fabricated of theſe materials. The long feathered leaves or branches, which ſpread from the top of the ſtem, are convenient coverings for their houſes; and thoſe, when plaited, make excellent baſkets for proviſions. A cloth ſufficient for covering the body in a hot climate is made of the inner bark: and the very ſtem itſelf, when grown too old to bear, may be uſed in the conſtruction of a hut, or the maſt of a canoe. All theſe very eſſential benefits are derived from this one production. The ſhore of this iſland was covered with coral, and the ſhells of very large pearl oyſters.

Commodore Byron has given the following account of the natives, their cuſtoms, &c. "The women wear a piece of cloth hanging from the waiſt down to the knee; and the men were naked. Near their houſes were buildings of a different kind, which were ſuppoſed to be burying-places. Theſe were ſituated under lofty trees; the ſides and tops were of ſtone; and, in their figure, they ſometimes reſembled the ſquare tombs with a flat top, which are in our country church-yards. Near theſe buildings were found many neat boxes, full of human bones: and upon the branches of the trees which ſhaded them hung a great number of the heads and bones of turtle, and a variety of fiſh, encloſed in a kind of baſket-work of reeds; on examining which, nothing appeared to remain but the ſkin and the teeth: the bones and entrails ſeemed to have been extracted, and the muſcular fleſh dried away."

†

Captain Cook, who gives a more ample and ſatisfactory account of them, ſailed between theſe two iſlands in April 1774: he ſays they lie nearly eaſt and weſt. The iſland to the eaſtward is called by the natives *Tiookea*; it is ſomething of an oval ſhape, and about ten leagues in circuit. The inhabitants of this iſland, and probably of all the low ones, are of a much darker colour than thoſe of the higher iſlands, and of an hoſtile diſpoſition. Their origin is doubtleſs one and the ſame; but being dependent on the ſea for a ſubſiſtence, and from their way of life expoſed to the ſun and weather, their colour is darker, and their bodies become more hardy and robuſt. The figure of a fiſh is punctured or marked on their bodies. A lieutenant, with two boats well armed, were ſent on ſhore; two gentlemen were of the party; they landed without any oppoſition from the natives. As ſoon as they came one ſhore, the iſlanders embraced them by touching noſes, a mode of civility uſed in New Zealand, which is ſome hundred leagues diſtance, and the chief place beſides this where the cuſtom has been obſerved to prevail.

The naturaliſts found here various plants, and particularly a ſcurvy-graſs. The natives ſhewed them that they bruiſed this plant, mixed it with ſhell-fiſh, and threw it into the ſea, whenever they perceived a ſhoal of fiſh, which, intoxicated by it, were caught on the ſurface of the water without trouble. The ſoil is but barren, the foundation conſiſting of coral, very little elevated above the ſurface of the water. The officer of the boats perceiving the Indians collecting into a body, having diſtributed preſents to thoſe who ſurrounded him, ſoon prepared to go, deſirous of avoiding any affray. The collected body crowded about the boats, and ſeemed doubtful whether they ſhould detain our people, or ſuffer them to depart. At length, however, they aſſiſted them in puſhing off the boats. Some of the moſt turbulent threw ſtones into the water, and ſeemed to glory as if they had driven them off. Captain Cook, from this circumſtance, found it expedient to give orders for firing four or five cannon ſhot into the ſea, cloſe by the ſhore, and over the heads of the Indians, as they were ſeated along the beach, to ſhew them that they were entirely at the mercy of their viſitors. Notwithſtanding all this, the party brought off to the ſhip five dogs, with which the iſland ſeemed to be plentifully ſupplied. Theſe they purchaſed with ſmall nails, and ſome ripe bananas, which latter they brought from the Marqueſas. The dogs had fine long hair, and were of a white colour.

The other iſland, which is inconſiderable, is ſituated two leagues to the weſtward of Tiookea, is four leagues in length, and from five to three miles in breadth.

The Iſlands of Diſappointment, were firſt diſcovered by commodore Byron, in 1765, and ſo named from the ſhores affording no anchorage for his ſhips, on which account he was obliged to quit them, without landing or procuring any refreſhments for his crew, who were then languiſhing with ſickneſs. They are a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, and lie in latitude 14 deg. 10 min. ſouth; longitude 141 deg. 6 min. weſt. They are inhabited by indians, who appeared on the beach with ſpears in their hands, that were at leaſt ſixteen feet long. They every where diſcovered hoſtile intentions and ſeemed by ſigns to threaten the people in the boat with death, if they came on ſhore. There are cocoa trees in great abundance, and the ſhore abounds with turtle.

Palliſer-Iſlands, were diſcovered by captain Cook, in April, 1774; they lie in 15 deg. 26 min. ſouth; and 14 deg. 20 min. weſt, and are four in number: the largeſt is ſeven miles long, and not above two broad. The greateſt diſtance of one from the other is not above ſix leagues. People, huts, canoes, and places erected for drying fiſh, were ſeen here. The natives were armed with lone ſpikes.

Dog-

Dog-Iſland, 15 deg. 12 min. ſouth, was diſcovered by Le Mair and Schouten, April 1616, who gave it that name from having ſeen three Spaniſh dogs on the iſland.

Queen Charlotte's Iſland, 19 deg. 18 min. ſouth; 138 deg. 4 min. weſt; was firſt diſcovered by captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, in 1767, who took poſſeſſion of it in the name of King George the Third. Here is good water, and plenty of cocoa-nuts, palm-nuts, and ſcurvy-graſs. The inhabitants are of a middle ſtature, and dark complexion, with long hair hanging looſe over their ſhoulders: the men well made, and the women handſome. Their clothing is a kind of coarſe cloth, or matting, which they faſten about their middle.

Lagoon-Iſland, 18 deg. 47 min. ſouth; 139 deg. 28 min. weſt; is of an oval form, with a lake in the middle, which occupies much the greateſt part of it. The whole iſland is covered with trees of different verdure. It is inhabited by a race of Indians, tall, of a copper colour, with long black hair. Their weapons are poles, or ſpikes, which reach twice as high as themſelves. Their habitations were ſeen under ſome clumps of palm trees, which formed very beautiful groves. This iſland was diſcovered by captain Cook, April 1769.

Thumb-Cap lies about ſeven leages north-weſt of Lagoon-Iſland: it is a low, woody iſland, of a circular form, and not much above a mile in compaſs. There was no appearance of inhabitants: the land was covered with verdure.

Bow-Iſland, ſo called by captain Cook, in 1769, on account of its ſingular figure, being ſhaped exactly like a bow; the arch and curve of which is land, and the ſpace between them water. The curve is a flat beach, without any ſigns of vegetation, having nothing upon it but heaps of ſea-weed. It appeared to be narrow, and about three or four leagues in length. The horns, or extremities of the bow, were two large tufts of cocoa-nut trees, of different height and figure. From the ſmoke ſeen in different parts the iſland appeared to be inhabited.

The Groups are long, narrow ſtrips of land, ranging in all directions; ſome of them ten miles or upwards in length, but none more than a quarter of a mile in breadth. Trees of various kinds, particularly the cocoa-nut, abound here. The people appeared to be well made, of a brown complexion; moſt of them carried in their hands a ſlender pole, about fourteen feet long, pointed like a ſpear: they had likewiſe ſomething ſhaped like a paddle, about four feet long. Their canoes were of different ſizes; ſome ſo ſmall, as to carry no more than three men; others had ſix or ſeven; and ſome of their boats hoiſted a ſail.

Bird-Iſland, ſo called by captain Cook, from the great number of birds that were ſeen on it, is ſuppoſed to be about four miles in circumference. It is low, with a piece of water in the middle. No inhabitants appeared.

Chain-Iſland ſeemed about five leagues long, in the direction of north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt, and about five miles broad. It appeared to be a double range of woody iſlands, joined together by reefs, ſo as to compoſe one iſland in the form of an ellipſis, or oval, with a lake in the middle. The trees are large, and from the ſmoke that iſſued from the woods it ſeemed to be inhabited.

Oſnaburg-Iſland, called by the natives Maitea, was firſt diſcovered by Captain Wallis in 1767. It is an high round iſland, not above a league in circuit; in ſome parts covered with trees, in others a naked rock, and is 44 leagues diſtant from Chain-Iſland, weſt by ſouth.

Pitcarin-Iſland was diſcovered by Captain Carteret. Captain Cook was very near it in Auguſt 1773, but could not fall in with it.

Beſides theſe, which we have deſcribed from the moſt authentic accounts, Captain Wallis alſo ſaw five other iſlands, which he named *Whitſunday*, *Egmont*, *Glouceſter*, *Cumberland*, and *Prince William-Henry*; and in Auguſt 1773, Captain Cook fell in with five others, which he named *Reſolution*, *Doubtful*, *Furneaux*, *Adventure*, and *Chane*. Some of the moſt weſtwardly of theſe ſcattered iſlands were ſeen by M. de Bougainville, and called *Les quatre Facardins*, and *Iſles des Lanciers*. That navigator very properly calls this cluſter of low, overflowed iſlands, *The dangerous Archipelago*.

Toobouai-Iſland, diſcovered by captain Cook in 1777, is to the ſouthward of this group. It is ſituated in latitude 23 deg. 25 min. ſouth, longitude 218 deg. 37 min. eaſt. The ſpot, at firſt view, appeared like ſeveral diſtinct iſlands, but on nearer approach it was found to be connected, and to form but one iſland. It is guarded by a reef of coral rock, extending in ſome places a mile from the land, with an high ſurf breaking upon it. Our people obſerved from the ſhips the natives walking or running along ſhore, and then ſaw two canoes launched, in which were about a dozen men making towards them. Stopping ſuddenly when they came near the ſhips, Omai, according to cuſtom, was deſired to uſe his endeavours to prevail on them to come nearer, but all his efforts proved ineffectual. Thoſe in the canoes, however, indicated by ſigns a ſtrong deſire for our people to go on ſhore, and thoſe on the beach diſplayed ſomething white, which was conſidered as an intimation to the ſame purport; and the landing might have been effected with eaſe and ſafety, as there was good anchorage without the reef, and an opening in it free from ſurf. But as no refreſhments were wanting, and captain Cook was deſirous of availing himſelf of a fair wind for the proſecution of his voyage, after divers ineffectual attempts to prevail on the natives to come near the veſſel, and hold intercourſe, he left them, and ſtood to the northward.

The greateſt extent of this iſland, in any direction, is not above five or ſix miles. There are hills in it of conſiderable height. At the foot of theſe is a narrow border of flat land, extending almoſt round it, with a white-ſand beach. The hills, except a few rocky cliffs, were covered with herbage. According to the information our people derived from the men in the canoes, the iſland abounds with the ſame animal and vegetable productions as were found in its vicinity.

Such of the natives who were ſeen in the canoes were copper-coloured: ſome wearing their hair (which was ſtraight and black) flowing about the ſhoulders, and others having it tied in a bunch on the crown of the head. Their faces were rather round and full, and expreſſed a ferocity of diſpoſition. All the covering of thoſe in the canoes was a piece of narrow ſtuff wrapped round the waiſt, and paſſing between the thighs; but ſome upon the beach were obſerved to be completely dreſſed in white. Several in the canoes wore ornaments of pearl ſhells about their necks: one in particular continued a conſiderable time blowing a large conch-ſhell in a long tone without any variation; but what it portended, our people could not determine. The men in the canoes, finding the captain's reſolution to depart, ſtood up, and repeated ſomething aloud, though it was not known whether it expreſſed hoſtile or friendly deſigns. They had, however no weapons with them; nor could it be diſcovered by the glaſſes, that they on ſhore were armed, as might have been reaſonably ſuppoſed.

CHAP.

CHAP. XX.

EASTER-ISLAND.

Soil, Situation, Inhabitants, Animal and Vegetable Productions.

CAPTAIN COOK obſerves, that the view of this iſland from the eaſt anſwered the geographical deſcription given of it: Davis's Land. Admiral Roggewein touched at it in 1722, and gave it the name of Eaſter-Iſland: but the accounts given of it by the writers of his voyage, appear rather fabulous than authentic; at leaſt they by no means agree with the ſtate in which it was found by thoſe Britiſh navigators who laſt viſited it.

This iſland was called by the natives by a variety of names, as *Wachù*, *Tamarehi*, *Whyhue*, and *Teapy*. It ſeems that the Spaniards had viſited it in 1769, and given it the appellation of the Iſland of St. Carlos. Some ſigns of this viſit were ſeen among the natives, and, in particular, ſeveral articles of wearing apparel, which were of European manufacture. It is ſituated in latitude 27 deg. 30 min. ſouth; and longitude 109 deg. 46 min. weſt; and is about ten or twelve leagues in circuit.

Soon after the Reſolution, captain Cook, made the iſland, the maſter being ſent out in a boat to ſound the coaſt, one of the natives ſwam off to her, and inſiſted on coming aboard the ſhip. The firſt thing he did was, to meaſure the length of the ſhip, by fathoming her from the taffarel to the ſtem; and as he counted the fathoms, it was obſerved by our people, that he called the numbers by the ſame names that they do at Otaheite; nevertheleſs, his language was nearly unintelligible to all of them.

When captain Cook went on ſhore, accompanied by a party, to ſee what the iſland was likely to afford, they landed at the beach, where ſome hundreds of the natives were aſſembled; and who were ſo impatient to ſee them, that many of them ſwam off to meet the boats.

Not one of them had ſo much as a ſtick, or weapon of any ſort in his hand. After diſtributing a few trinkets among them, our people made ſigns for ſomething to eat, on which they brought down a few potatoes, plantains, and ſugar-canes, and exchanged them for nails, looking-glaſſes, and pieces of cloth.

Near the place where they landed were ſome tall ſtatutes. The country appeared quite barren, and without wood. There were, nevertheleſs, ſeveral plantations of potatoes, plantains, and ſugar-canes. They alſo ſaw ſome fowls, and found a well of brackiſh water.

The captain was obliged to content himſelf with remaining at the landing-place among the natives, as he was not yet quite recovered from a bilious cholic, which had been ſo violent as to confine him to his bed. It was ſeveral days before the moſt dangerous ſymptoms of his diſorder were removed; during which time, the ſurgeon was to him not only a ſkilful phyſician, but an affectionate adviſer. When he began to recover, a favourite dog fell a ſacrifice to his diſordered ſtomach. They had no other freſh meat whatever on board; and the captain could eat of this fleſh, and of broth made of it, when he could taſte nothing elſe. Thus he received nouriſhment and ſtrength from food, which would have made moſt people in Europe ſick. So true it is, that neceſſity is governed by no law.

The ſoil of this iſland is in general a dry, hard clay; but towards the higheſt part of the ſouth end it is a fine red earth, ſeemed much better, bore a longer graſs, and was not covered with ſtones, as in the other parts. The moſt remarkable curioſity here, is a number of gigantic ſtatutes, of which, however, very few remain entire. Theſe ſtatutes are placed on the ſea-coaſt. On the eaſt ſide of the iſland were ſeen the ruins of three platforms of ſtonework, on each of which had ſtood four of theſe large ſtatutes; but they were all fallen down from two of them; and one from the third: they were broken or defaced by the fall. One of which had fallen, being meaſured, was fifteen feet it length, and ſix broad over the ſhoulders. Each ſtatue had on its head a large cylindric ſtone, of a red colour, wrought perfectly round. Others were found that meaſured near twenty-ſeven feet, and upwards of eight feet over the ſhoulders: and ſtill a larger one was ſeen ſtanding, the ſhade of which was ſufficient to ſhelter all the party, conſiſting of near thirty perſons, from the rays of the ſun. The workmanſhip was rude, but not bad, nor were the features of the face ill formed; the ears were long, according to the diſtortion practiſed in the country; and the bodies had hardly any thing of a human figure about them. Yet as theſe iſlanders, wholly unacquainted with any mechanical power, could raiſe ſuch ſtupendous figures, and afterwards place the cylindric ſtones upon their head, it muſt be allowed to be conſidered as admirable!

The party, on their further progreſs, came to a more fertile part of the iſland, interſperſed with plantations, and not ſo much encumbered with ſtones as thoſe they had ſeen before; but they could find no water, except what the natives twice or thrice brought them, which, though brackiſh and ſtinking, was rendered acceptable, by the extremity of their thirſt. They alſo paſſed ſome huts, the owners of which met them with roaſted potatoes and ſugar-canes, and placing themſelves ahead of the party (for they marched in a line, in order to have the benefit of the path) gave one to each man as he paſſed by. But at the very time ſome were relieving the thirſty and hungry, there were others who endeavoured to ſteal from them the very things which had been given them. At laſt, to prevent worſe conſequences, they were obliged to fire a load of ſmall ſhot at one, who was ſo audacious as to ſnatch the bag which contained every thing they carried with them. The ſhot hit him on the back, on which he dropped the bag, ran a little way, and then fell: but he afterwards got up and walked, and what became of him they knew not, nor whether he was much wounded. This affair occaſioned ſome delay, and drew the natives together. They preſently ſaw the man who had hitherto led the way, and one or two more, coming running towards them; but inſtead of ſtopping when they came up, they continued to run round them, repeating, in a kind of manner, a few words, until they ſet forwards again. Then their old guide hoiſted his flag, leading the way as before; and none ever attempted to ſteal from them the whole day afterwards.

They met with a well at the eaſt end of the iſland, the water of which was perfectly freſh, being conſiderably above the level of the ſea; but it was dirty, owing to a cuſtom of the natives, who never go to drink without waſhing themſelves all over as ſoon as they have done: and if ever ſo many of them are together, the firſt leaps right into the middle of the hole, drinks, and waſhes himſelf without the leaſt ceremony; after which another takes his place, and does the ſame.

No quadrupeds were ſeen upon this iſland except black rats, which are common to all the iſlands of the South-Seas. It appeared that the iſlanders eat theſe rats; for our people ſaw a man with ſome dead ones in his hand, and ſeemed unwilling to part with them, giving them to underſtand, they were for food. There were a few domeſtic fowls, ſmall, but well taſted: and two or three noddies were ſeen, which were ſo tame as to ſettle on the ſhoulders of the natives.

The

The coaſt did not appear to abound with fiſh, at leaſt our people could catch none with hook and line; and they ſaw but very little among the natives.

This country produces only a few ſhrubs, the leaf and ſeeds of one of which (called by the natives *Torremedo)* was not much unlike that of the common *Vetch:* the ſeeds had a diſagreeable bitter taſte, and are conſidered by the natives as poiſonous: the wood is of a reddiſh colour, hard and heavy, but crooked, and exceeding ſix or ſeven feet in height: and not a tree was ſeen on the whole iſland that exceeded the height of ten feet. Another ſmall ſhrub was ſeen here, whoſe wood is white and brittle, and, as well as its leaf, to the eye ſomewhat reſembles the aſh. There are alſo ſome of the Otaheitean cloth plant, but dwarfiſh and weak, being from two to four feet high. They are planted in rows among very large rocks, where the rains have waſhed a little ſoil together. Here are ſugar-canes, bananas, and yams, which thrive to admiration, conſidering the ſtony quality of the ground. The ſugar-canes were about nine or ten feet high, and contained a very ſweet juice, which the inhabitants very hoſpitably preſented to their gueſts, whenever they aſked for ſomething to drink. Theſe are ſaid to be ſweeter than thoſe at Otaheite. The whole number of plants growing on this iſland does not exceed twenty ſpecies.

Here are potatoes of a gold-yellow colour, as ſweet as carrots: theſe were found nouriſhing, and antiſcorbutic. Here is likewiſe a ſpecies of nightſhade, which is made uſe of at Otaheite, and the other iſlands, as a vulnerary medicine, and is probably cultivated here for the ſame purpoſe. As a proof of the induſtry of the natives, the graſs, which commonly ſprings up among the ſtones, on the uncultivated ſoil, is carefully plucked up, and ſpread over their plantations as a manure, or to preſerve them in ſome meaſure from the parching beams of the ſun.

The natives of this iſland are in general ſlender, briſk, and active, have good features, and countenances not diſagreeable. Their colour is of a cheſnut brown; their hair black, curling, and remarkably ſtrong; that on the head, as well as on the face, is cut ſhort. The men for the moſt part are in a manner naked, wearing nothing but a ſlip of cloth betwixt their legs, each end of which is faſtened to a cord or belt they wear round the waiſt. The cloth from Otaheite, as indeed any ſort, was much valued by theſe people. The men have punctures on their bodies, which is common, as to all the South-Sea iſlands. The greateſt ſingularity is the ſize of their ears, the lobe or extremity of which is ſo ſtretched out, as almoſt to reſt on the ſhoulder, and is pierced by a very large hole, through which three or four fingers might be thruſt with eaſe. The chief ornaments for their ears are the white down of feathers, and rings, which they wear in the inſide of the hole, made of the leaf of the ſugar-cane, which is very elaſtic, and rolled up like a watch-ſpring. Some were ſeen covered with a kind of bright cloth, of an orange colour, and theſe were ſuppoſed to be chiefs.

One of the natives who came on board the ſhip had a belt round his middle, from whence a kind of net-work deſcended before, but too thin to anſwer the purpoſe of a concealment. A ſtring was tied about his neck, and a flat bone, ſomething ſhaped like a tongue, and about five inches long, was faſtened to it, and hung down on the breaſt, which he gave our people to underſtand was the bone of a porpoiſe. He was preſented with nails, medals, and ſtrings of beads, all of which he deſired to have tied round his head.

At firſt he ſhewed ſigns of fear and diffidence, aſking in a dialect of the language generally uſed in the South-Seas, and which was ſomewhat underſtood by many on board, whether they would kill him as an enemy? On being aſſured of good treatment, he became perfectly unconcerned, and at eaſe, and talked of nothing but dancing.

The women of this iſland are ſmall, ſlender limbed, and have punctures on the face, reſembling the patches ſometimes in faſhion among European ladies. They paint their whole face with a reddiſh brown ruddle, over which they lay a bright orange colour, extracted from the turmeric root; or they variegate their faces with ſtrokes of white-ſhell lime; which led an obſerver to remark, that the art of painting is not confined to thoſe ladies who have an opportunity of imitating French faſhions. All the women were clad in ſcanty pieces of cloth; one piece wrapped round their loins, and another over their ſhoulders, made complete dreſs. Both ſexes have thin, but not ſavage features. The women wear their hair long, and ſometimes tied on the crown of their head.

The violent action of the ſun upon their heads, has led them to contrive various coverings for that part. Their head-dreſs is a round fillet adorned with feathers, and a ſtraw bonnet, ſomething like a Scotch one; the former worn by the men, the latter by the women. Many of the men wore a ring about two inches thick, of graſs, ſtrong and curiouſly plated, and fitted cloſe round the head. This was covered with the long feathers of the man-of-war bird. Others had huge buſhy caps of brown gull's feathers, which were almoſt as large as the full-bottomed wigs of European lawyers; beſides which, ſome wear a ſingle hoop of wood, round which the long white feathers of the gannet hung nodding. In colour, features, and language, the inhabitants of Eaſter-Iſland bear ſuch affinity to the people of the more weſtern iſlands, that there can be no doubt of their having had the ſame origin.

According to the beſt calculation that could be made, the number of inhabitants in this iſland were not above ſeven hundred, and of theſe the females bore no proportion in number to the males. The females were either few in number, or elſe moſt of them abſtained, or were reſtrained from appearing while the veſſel lay here; yet the men ſhewed no ſigns of a jealous diſpoſition, nor the women any ſcruples of appearing in public: in fact, they ſeemed to be neither reſerved or chaſte. But as all the women who were ſeen were liberal of their favours, it is more than probable that all the married and modeſt had concealed themſelves from their impetuous viſitants, in ſome diſtant parts of the iſland; and what further ſtrengthens this ſuppoſition is, that heaps of ſtones were ſeen piled up in little hillocks, which had one ſteep perpendicular ſide, where a hole went under ground. Theſe iſlanders, in common with thoſe of the South-Seas, ſoon gave proofs of their propenſity to theft, as before obſerved. It was with difficulty the ſhip's crew could keep their hats on their heads, and hardly poſſible to keep any thing in their pockets. One thief was fired at with ſmall ſhot, which wounded him ſo that he fell ſoon after he had thrown down the fatal acquiſition.

Such mildneſs and good-nature appear in the diſpoſition of theſe people, as prompt them to behave as kindly and hoſpitably as their barren country will permit them. A party who had rambled up the iſland, and were returning to the ſhip, paſſed a native who was digging potatoes in the field; they no ſooner complained to him of great thirſt, than he ran immediately to a large plantation of ſugar-canes, and brought out a load of the beſt and juicieſt on his back, for their refreſhment. Their diſpoſition is far from being warlike, although they have weapons of defence.

Potatoes, bananas, yams, ſugar-canes, and about fifty fowls, were the only proviſions obtained here; in exchange for which, the natives received, with

great pleaſure, empty cocoa-ſhells, which had been procured upon other South-Sea iſlands. The cloth made at Otaheite, and European cloth, bore the next degree of eſteem, and iron-ware held the loweſt place. Moſt of the natives, on receiving a cocoa-nut, a piece of cloth, or a nail, in the way of barter, ran away immediately, as if apprehenſive leſt the other ſhould repent his bargain, and inſiſt on a re-exchange. Their eagerneſs for cloth led them to part with their caps, head-dreſſes, necklaces, ornaments for the ears, and ſeveral human figures, made out of narrow pieces of wood, about eighteen inches or two feet long, and wrought in a much neater and more proportionate manner, than could have been expected from ſuch a forlorn race. They repreſented men and women. The features were not pleaſing, and the whole figure was much too long to be natural; but, notwithſtanding, there was ſomething characteriſtic in them, which beſpoke a taſte for the arts. The wood of which they were made was finely poliſhed, cloſe grained, and of a dark brown: nor can it be explained how ſuch toys could come into their poſſeſſion, as nothing could be found on the iſland, after the niceſt ſcrutiny, which produced this kind of wood, it being the perfume wood of Otaheite. A very ſingular figure thus carved, with long nails, and fingers bent downwards, was brought to England, and preſented to the Britiſh Muſeum.

Their houſes are low, miſerable huts, conſtructed by ſetting ſticks upright in the ground, at ſix or eight feet diſtance, then bending them towards each other, and tying them together at the top, forming thereby a kind of Gothic arch. The longeſt ſticks are placed in the middle, and ſhorter ones each way, and at leſs diſtance aſunder; by which means the building is higheſt and broadeſt in the middle, and lower and narrower towards each end. To theſe are tied others horizontally, and the whole is thatched over with leaves of ſugar-cane. The door-way is in the middle of one ſide, formed like a porch, and ſo low and narrow as juſt to admit a man to enter upon all fours.

The weapons of theſe iſlanders are ſhort wooden clubs, and ſpears about ſix feet long, crooked, and armed at one end with pieces of flint. They have likewiſe a weapon made of wood, like the patoo-patoo of New-Zealand.

Not more than three or four canoes were ſeen belonging to the whole iſland, and theſe very mean, and badly conſtructed. From the ſmall number and ſlightneſs of their boats, it may be ſuppoſed, that they procure very little of their ſubſiſtence from fiſhing, and particularly as no mention is made of any fiſhing implements ſeen here.

During the ſhort time that the Reſolution lay at Eaſter-Iſland, a circumſtance occurred which plainly proved that the natives had no idea of private property. A field of ſweet potatoes furniſhed a deſirable article of trafic to the ſhip's company. Several of the natives dug up theſe roots, and exchanged them with the officers for what they moſt valued. After they had employed themſelves in this manner for ſome hours, another native arrived, who with great fury drove the intruders away, and himſelf alone dug up the roots, and ſold them in the manner that the others had done; from which circumſtance it was inferred very naturally, that this man was the owner of the field, whom the others had robbed of the fruits of his labour, being tempted to commit the treſpaſs, by the ready market to which they brought their plunder.

They have a king, whom they ſtile *aree*, or *hareekee*: he is deſcribed as a middle-aged man, rather tall, his face and whole body ſtrongly punctured. He wore a piece of cloth made of the mulberry bark, quilted with threads of graſs, and ſtained yellow with turmeric. On his head he had a cap of long ſhining black feathers, which might be called a diadem. No great degree of homage was obſerved to be paid to him by the people; and from the poverty of the country, his ſubjects can afford to ſhew but few diſtinctions to their monarch.

Of the religion of theſe people, our navigators declare themſelves entirely ignorant.

CHAP. XXI.

NEW GUINEA, NEW BRITAIN, NEW IRELAND, NEW HANOVER, AND OTHER SMALL ISLANDS.

Account of their Situation, Inhabitants, Produce, &c.

NEW-GUINEA.

THIS iſland was firſt viſited by an European ſhip in 1529. It was called by Saavedra, a Portugueſe, who diſcovered the north-weſt part of it, Terra de Papuas, or Papos, as was the ſouth-weſt part of it New Guinea, by Van Schouten, a Dutch diſcoverer. The eaſtern part of it was ſtyled by a French navigator, Louiſiade. Dampier touched here; and after him admiral Roggewein. Captain Cook made the coaſt of this iſland in September, 1770, in latitude 6 deg. 15 min. ſouth; longitude 130 deg. eaſt. But his ſurvey of the iſland could be but tranſient; for perceiving when he landed with a party of our people, that the Indians were reſolutely bent on hoſtilities, it was generally agreed upon, to prevent the deſtruction of thoſe people, as they had no intention to invade their country, to return to the boat. They are ſaid by captain Cook to make the ſame perſonal appearance as the New Hollanders; and the country in general is by him deſcribed, as reſembling the South-Sea iſlands, New Zealand, and New Holland, in its vegetable productions. Indeed, New Guinea was ſuppoſed to be connected with New Holland, until captain Cook diſcovered the ſtreight which ſeparates them. The following is the only particular circumſtance relative to the people of this iſland, mentioned in captain Cook's account.

"When our people got on board the boat, they rowed along the ſhore, and the number of Indians aſſembled ſeemed be to between ſixty and an hundred. All the while they were ſhouting defiance, and throwing ſomething out of their hands, which burnt exactly like gun-powder, but made no report. What theſe fires were, or for what purpoſe intended, could not be gueſſed at. Thoſe who diſcharged them, had in their hand a ſhort piece of ſtick, poſſibly a hollow cane, which they ſwung ſideways from them, and immediately fire and ſmoke iſſued, exactly reſembling the diſcharge of a muſket, and of longer duration. This wonderful phænomenon was obſerved from the ſhip, and the deception was ſo great, that the people on board thought they had fire-arms: and even in the boat, if they had not been ſo near as that they muſt have heard the report, if there had been any, they ſhould have thought they had been firing vollies. After looking at them attentively ſome time, without taking any notice of their flaſhing and vociferation, the ſailors fired ſome muſkets over their heads. Upon hearing the balls rattle among the trees, they walked leiſurely away, and the boat returned to the ſhip. Upon examining ſome weapons which the natives had thrown, they were found to be light darts, about four feet long, very ill made, of a reed or bamboo-cane, and pointed with hard wood, in which there were many barbs. They were diſcharged with great force; for at ſixty yards diſtance they went beyond the party; but in what manner they were thrown could not be exactly ſeen. But the general opinion was, that they were thrown

 with

with a ſtick, in the manner practiſed by the New Hollanders."

Captain Foreſt viſited it in 1775. As the Tartar galley, belonging to the Eaſt-India Company, then under his command, ſtood on towards Dory harbour, two of the natives of Papua came on board, and appeared perfectly complacent. Their hair was buſhed out to an incredible extent. To render it as bulky as poſſible, it was combed in a direction ſtraight from the head, which is ſometimes ornamented with feathers. The left ears of the women were perforated, and adorned with ſmall braſs rings.

Coming to an anchor, our countrymen had an opportunity of taking a view of one of the capital manſions of theſe people, ſituated on the bank. Theſe were erected on poſts, fixed ſeveral yards below low-water mark, for the convenience of the tenants, who occupied divers diſtinct parts of the manſion, that contained many families. In this country, the married people, unmarried women, and children, live in the larger tenements; and the bachelors by themſelves in the ſmaller.

The men wore a thin ſtuff, produced from the cocoa-nut tree, tied about the middle, and taken up behind between the thighs. That of the women was a coarſe blue ſtuff, worn round the middle, and tucked up behind like the men's. The boys and girls went naked. Laborious offices here ſeemed to fall to the lot of the women, while the men idly ſauntered about. The natives follow the diverſion of hunting the wild hog, which they called Ben, with a kind of fox-looking dogs they called Naf. Among ſmall iſlands, the wild hogs often ſwim in a ſtring from one iſland to another; the hog behind, leaning his ſnout on thoſe before; ſo that the ſportſmen kill them with eaſe.

The coaſt of the promontory of Dory is deſcribed as extending about thirteen or fourteen leagues; the height not extreme, and the riſe gradual. The country abounds with lofty trees, whoſe branches afford the traveller an agreeable ſhade. There are many rivulets of freſh water; and, ſcattered in particular tracks, good herbage.

The country abounds with hogs; and there are albecores, and other kinds of fiſh.

The birds of paradiſe, which ſo much excite the curioſity of ſpeculatiſts, are ſaid to be have been firſt found by the Portugueſe on the Iſland of Gilolo, the Papuſas Iſlands, and on New Guinea. They were denominated *paſſaros de ſol*, i. e. "birds of the ſun." By ſome they were called *manuco Deivata*, "the bird of God." Captain Foreſt was informed at an iſland called Linty, on this coaſt (the ſmall iſlands on which are numberleſs) that the birds of paradiſe come thither at certain ſeaſons in flocks, and that ſettling on trees, they are caught with bird-lime, after which their bodies are dried with the feathers on, as they are ſeen in Europe. It appeared further, that the account of theſe birds having no legs, being conſtantly on the wing, and living on the air, which gave riſe to the cuſtom of cutting off their legs when offered to ſale, was without foundation. The natives kill them as ſoon as taken. They have formidable bills, and defend themſelves with great reſolution. But what they ſubſiſt on has not been yet diſcovered. There are ſix diſtinct ſpecies of theſe birds; and they have afforded great ſcope for the ſpeculation of naturaliſts.

Neither goats nor fowls were found in Dory. All the refreſhment that could be procured on ſhore was the fleſh of the wild hog, ſome ſpecies of fiſh and vegetables excepted. The quadrupeds ſeen were hogs, dogs, and wild cats.

The nutmeg-tree was found at different iſlands on this coaſt, but when cut down, it appeared that the fruit was not ripe. Our people were informed by the natives, that there were many ſuch trees about the country; but they did not diſcover any knowledge of their worth and importance, though they ſeemed to ſet a due value upon other productions. They acknowledged that quantities of nutmegs were collected at certain places, but for what uſe could not be learnt. The natives, indeed, did not ſeem inclined to gratify the curioſity of our people, as to this and other particulars.

The Dutch derive ſuch a ſource of wealth from the nutmeg-tree, that they are jealous leſt any foreign power ſhould deprive them of ſo profitable a monopoly; and being apprehenſive that the Chineſe, from being ſo near, ſhould eſtabliſh a trade with the natives for this uſeful commodity, they have prevented them by an agreement from coming to this place, though a trade might be ſo advantageouſly carried on between the parties. They even ſend out people yearly to deſtroy all the nutmeg-trees, wherever they can find them: but it being the natural produce of this part of the country, it will grow, in ſpite of their utmoſt efforts to prevent it.

The value of iron amongſt theſe people is ſuch, that for the conſideration of receiving an axe or a chopping-knife, the receiver ſubjects his lands or his labour to a continual tax of ſome article or other for its uſe.

The natives, and eſpecially the females, ſeemed to be of a muſical turn. Some of them being aſked by one of our people to ſing, ſhe gave proofs of a good voice and ear; as did others upon future occaſions. Their mode of courting is rather extraordinary. The lover comes freely to the manſion of the favourite female, and without ceremony places himſelf by her. The old folks at a diſtance are then ſaid often to call out, "Well, have you agreed?" If the parties agree before witneſſes, a cock, procured with great difficulty, is killed, and thus ends the ceremony.

The tenements in which they dwell are poorly furniſhed; and as they cook in each ſeparate apartment, and have no chimney, the ſmoke iſſues out at every part of the roof; ſo that at a diſtance the whole roof ſeems to ſmoke. They are very expert with the bow. Some of their arrows are ſix feet long. The former is made of bamboo, and the ſtring of ſplit ratan. They carry on a conſiderable traffic with the Chineſe, of whom they purchaſe their iron tools, beads, plates, baſons, &c. They trade alſo in ſlaves, ambergris, tortoiſeſhell, ſmall pearls, and divers kinds of birds, and particularly the bird of paradiſe.

The inhabitants here are in general repreſented as numerous, fierce, and hoſtile, as appeared from their behaviour when viſited by captain Cook. The people of New Guinea are frequently invaded and carried into ſlavery by the Mahometans of the Molucca iſlands adjacent.

New Britain was once ſuppoſed to be connected with New Guinea, until Dampier diſcovered it to be divided by a ſtreight. Its moſt northern point is in 4 deg. ſouth latitude, and it extends to 6 deg. 30 min. ſouth. Dampier gave its moſt eaſtern point the name of Cape Orford: it lies in 151 deg. 34 min. eaſt longitude: the weſtern limits had not then been accurately ſurveyed. Dampier likewiſe gave names to ſeveral ſmall iſlands which he ſaw in paſſing between New Guinea and New Britain. From four of theſe, volcanoes were obſerved emitting ſmoke and fire. The country appeared to be high land, mixed with vallies, every where abounding with large and ſtately trees, and well inhabited by a ſtrong race of people of a very dark complexion. M. Bougainville repreſents the natives of this iſland as entirely black, with frizzled woolly hair, which ſome of them powdered white, having pretty long beards and white ornaments round their arms in form of bracelets; their nudities but indifferently covered with leaves of trees; in their perſons they are tall, active, and robuſt. He obſerves, that they kept at ſome diſtance

diſtance from the ſhips, and diſcovered a diſpoſition alternately inclined to war and traffic. No European has ever yet had any friendly intercourſe with the inhabitants of this iſland.

Dampier ſailed round the north coaſt of New Ireland, and ſuppoſed it to be a part of New Britain. That navigator called the moſt ſouthern point of it Cape St. George, which, together with Cape Orford in New Britain, were thought to be the two points that formed a deep bay, which he called St. George's Bay. But captain Carteret, who ſailed round it in 1767, found it to terminate in a narrow channel, to which he gave the name of St. George's Channel. This iſland is a long narrow ſlip of land lying north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt, in extent about eighty leagues. The harbour, called by captain Carteret Engliſh Cove, lies in lat. 5 deg. ſouth, long. 157 deg. 19 min. eaſt. There is another harbour about four leagues to weſtward, which he named Carteret-Harbour.

The crew of the Swallow, who at that time were in general periſhing with ſickneſs, obtained relief from ſome cocoa-nuts found upon this iſland, as they did alſo from ſome rock oyſters and cockles they procured from the rocks at low water. The upper part of the tree which bears the cocoa-nut is called the cabbage. This is a white, criſp, juicy ſubſtance: it taſtes ſomewhat like a cheſnut, but when boiled is ſuperior to the beſt parſnip, and is, perhaps, the moſt powerful antiſcorbutic in the world. For every one of theſe cabbages that were obtained, they were forced to cut down a tree, which was done with great regret; but this depredation on the parent ſtock was unavoidable. Theſe almoſt-expiring navigators likewiſe received great refreſhment from the fruit of a tall tree that reſembles a plum, and particularly that which in the Weſt-Indies is called the Jamaica Plum.

The ſhore about this place is rocky, and the country high and mountainous, but covered with trees of various kinds, ſome of which are of an enormous growth. Among others, the nutmeg-tree was found in great plenty. Captain Carteret gathered a few of the nuts, but they were not ripe. They did not appear to be the beſt ſort, but he imputes that to their growing wild, and being too much in the ſhade of taller trees. The woods abound with pigeons, doves, rooks, parrots, and a large bird with a black plumage, which makes a noiſe ſomewhat like the barking of a dog.

The only quadrupeds ſeen in this iſland by the crew of the Swallow were two of a ſmall ſize, which were ſuppoſed to be dogs; they were very wild, and ran with great ſwiftneſs: here were ſeen centipedes, ſcorpions, and a few ſerpents of different kinds, but no people. They fell in, however, with ſeveral deſerted habitations, and by the ſhells that were ſcattered about them, and ſeemed not to have been long taken out of the water, and ſome ſticks half burnt, the natives were ſuppoſed to have juſt left the place when they arrived. Captain Carteret was in ſo enfeebled a ſtate of body as to be prevented from attending circumſtantially to a deſcription of the country. However, in Engliſh Cove he took poſſeſſion of it for his Britannic majeſty, and nailed upon a high tree a piece of board faced with lead, on which was engraved an Engliſh union, with the name of the ſhip and her commander, the name of the cove, and the time of their coming in and going out of it. M. de Bourgainville touched here about a year after, and gave it the name of Port Praſlin. He found part of captain Carteret's inſcription, which ſeemed to have been taken down and defaced by the natives.

In this iſland there were ſome wild boars, large pigeons of beautiful plumage, turtle doves, parrots, and crown birds. Ants ſwarmed about the thatch-palm and cabbage-trees. The country appeared mountainous; the ſoil light, yet producing ſeveral kinds of fine timber trees; the pepper-tree is ſaid to be common. Here was found a very extraordinary inſect about three inches long; almoſt every part of its body was of ſuch a texture as to appear like a leaf, even when cloſely viewed. Each of its wings forms one half of a leaf, and when the two are cloſed together, it appears like an entire leaf. The under ſide of its body reſembles a leaf of a more dead colour than the upper one. It has ſix legs, of which the upper joints are likewiſe ſimilar to parts of leaves. Several ſhocks of an earthquake were felt here, which laſted about two minutes, and were very diſtinctly noticed on board, as well as on ſhore. Here was a prodigious caſcade precipitated through vaſt rocks, which diverſify the fall of water.

Sandwich-Iſland lies in the weſtern part of St. George's Channel, on which coaſt the Swallow anchored. Soon after ten canoes put off from New Ireland, with about one hundred and fifty men on board: they exchanged ſome trifles, but none of them would venture up the ſide of the ſhip. They preferred iron to every thing elſe, although none of it was manufactured except nails; there being no cutlery ware on board. One of their canoes was not leſs than ninety feet long, being very little ſhorter than the ſhip, notwithſtanding which, it was formed of a ſingle tree. It had ſome carved ornaments about it, and was rowed or paddled by thirty-three men. There was no appearance of ſails. The Indians were black and woolly-headed like negroes, without their flat noſes and thick lips. They were all ſtark naked, except ornaments of ſhells about their legs and arms. Their hair, as well as their beards, was profuſely covered with a white powder. They were armed with ſpears, and long ſticks or poles, like the quarter ſtaff. As they kept a watchful eye upon the ſhip's guns, it is probable they were not wholly unacquainted with the effect of fire-arms. They had fiſhing nets with them, which, as well as their cordage, ſeemed to be very well made. After they had continued this intercourſe for ſome time, a breeze ſprung up, and they returned to the ſhore.

The Swallow having reached the weſtern point of New Ireland, a fine large iſland preſented itſelf, to which captain Carteret gave the name of

New Hanover, to the weſtward of New Ireland; it was ſo called by captain Carteret. The land is high, and finely covered with trees, among which are many plantations, and the whole has a beautiful appearance. About eight leagues to the weſtward, appeared ſix or ſeven ſmall iſlands, which received the name of the Duke of Portland's Iſlands.

Admiralty-Iſlands lie in about 2 deg. 18 min. ſouth latitude; and 146 deg. 44 min. eaſt longitude. There are between twenty and thirty iſlands ſaid to be ſcattered about here, one of which is very extenſive. Captain Carteret, who firſt diſcovered them, was prevented touching at them, although their appearance was very inviting, on account of the condition of his ſhip; and as he was entirely unprovided with ſuch articles of barter as ſuited the Indian trade.

Theſe iſlands abound with vegetable productions of various kinds; and the natives ſeemed to be very numerous. Captain Carteret was of opinion that they produced ſpices, as he found the nutmeg-tree upon a ſoil comparitively rocky and barren, upon the coaſt of New Ireland.

Chriſtmas-Iſland was diſcovered by captain Cook, on the 24th of December, 1777, and called by him Chriſtmas-Iſland, from the ſhip's companies having kept that feſtival there. It lies in latitude 1 deg. 58 min. north; longitude 202 deg. 28 min. eaſt. Its form is ſemicircular, and, like moſt other iſles in this ocean, it is ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, extending but a little diſtance from the ſhore: and further out than this reef, on the weſtern ſide, is a bank

 of

of ſand, which extends a mile into the ſea. There is good anchorage on this bank, between eighteen and thirty fathoms. The ſoil of this iſland is in ſome places light and blackiſh, compoſed of ſand, the dung of birds, and rotten vegetables. In other parts, it is formed of broken coral ſtones, decayed ſhells, and other marine productions. Theſe are depoſited in long narrow ridges, parallel with the ſea coaſt, and muſt have been thrown up by the waves. This ſeems to prove that the iſland has been produced by different acceſſions from the ſea, and is in a ſtate of augmentation; the broken pieces of coral, and likewiſe many of the ſhells, being too large and heavy, to have been brought from the beach by any birds, to the places where our navigators found them lying.

No freſh water could be found in the whole iſland, though our people frequently dug for it. They met with ſeveral ponds of ſalt water, which having no viſible communication with the ſea, were ſuppoſed to have been filled by the water filtrating through the ſand, during the time of high tides. Not the ſmalleſt trace of any human footſtep could be diſcerned by our people, who went on ſhore for the purpoſe of obſerving an eclipſe of the ſun, which happened on the 30th of December; and alſo for the catching of turtle. Indeed, ſhould any human being be accidentally driven upon the iſland, or left there, they could ſcarcely be able to prolong their exiſtence; for though there are birds and fiſh in abundance, there are no viſible means of allaying thirſt, nor any vegetable that would ſerve as a ſubſtitute for bread, or correct the bad effects of ſalt diet. Very little fruit was found on the few cocoa-nut trees upon the iſland, and that little, not good.

In ſome parts were obſerved a few low trees, beſides ſeveral ſmall ſhrubs and plants, which grew in a very languid manner. There was a kind of purſlain, a ſpecies of ſida, or Indian mallow, with two ſorts of graſs. Under theſe trees ſat vaſt numbers of a new ſpecies of egg-bird, black above, and white below, having a white arch on the forehead. Theſe birds are ſomewhat larger than the common noddy: their eggs are bluiſh, and ſpeckled with black. There were likewiſe many common boobies, a ſort reſembling a gannet, and a chocolate coloured ſpecies with a white belly. Man-of-war birds, curlews, plovers, tropic birds, petrels, &c. were alſo ſeen here. There were ſmall rats, numbers of land crabs, and lizards.

On this iſland there was ſo much fiſh that ſome of the crew brought on board as many as weighed upwards of two hundred pounds, from a grappling near the ſhore. A great quantity were alſo taken with the hook and line, principally conſiſting of cavallias, ſnappers, and a few rock-fiſh of two ſpecies, one with whitiſh ſtreaks ſcattered about, and the other with numerous blue ſpots.

There was procured for both ſhips, about three hundred turtles, which weighed one with another about ninety pounds: they were all of the green ſort, and perhaps not inferior in goodneſs to any in the world.

When the party that was employed in catching turtle returned on board, a ſailor that belonged to the Diſcovery had been miſſing two days. At firſt there were two men who had loſt their way; but happening to diſagree with reſpect to the track that was moſt likely to bring them to their companions, they had ſeparated, and one of them found means to rejoin the party, after an abſence of twenty-four hours, during which he had experienced great diſtreſs. There being, as before obſerved, no freſh water upon the iſland, and not one cocoa-nut tree in that part of it where he was ſtraggling, in order to allay his thirſt, he had recourſe to the extraordinary expedient of drinking the blood of a turtle, which he had killed for that purpoſe. His method of refreſhing himſelf, when fatigued, was equally ſingular, though he ſaid he felt the good effects of it. He undreſſed himſelf and lay down in the ſhallow water on the beach for ſome time. It was matter of aſtoniſhment how theſe two men loſt their way: the land over which their journey lay, from the ſea coaſt to the place where the boats were ſtationed, did not exceed three miles acroſs; nor was there any thing that could obſtruct their view, for the country was level, with a few ſhrubs diſperſed about it; and from many parts, the maſts of the veſſels could be eaſily diſcerned. This, however, ſeemed to be a rule of direction which they did not think of; nor did they recollect in what part of the iſland the ſhips lay at anchor; and they were totally at a loſs how to get back to them, or the party from which they had ſo careleſſly ſtrayed. A party was detached in ſearch of the other man, and they ſoon had the good fortune to find their loſt companion. The diſtreſs of this man muſt have been much greater than that of the other ſtraggler, not only as he had been loſt a longer time, but he was too delicate to drink turtle's blood.

There being ſome yams and cocoa-nuts on board, in a ſtate of vegetation, they were planted, by captain Cook's order, on the ſmall iſland where the aſtronomers had obſerved the late eclipſe; and ſome ſeeds of melons were ſown in another place. The captain alſo left on that little iſle a bottle, containing the following inſcription:

Georgius Tertius, Rex, 31 *Decembris*, 1777.
Naves { *Reſolution, Jac. Cook, Pr.*
{ *Deſcovery, Car. Clerke, Pr.*

CHAP. XXII.

THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

A General Deſcription. Account of Atooi. Reception of the Engliſh there. A remarkable Morai there. Various Occurrences.

CAPTAIN COOK diſcovered theſe iſlands on his laſt voyage to the Pacific Ocean, in 1778, they were by him diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Sandwich-Iſlands, in honour of the Earl of Sandwich.

The firſt five which he ſaw were called by the natives Woahoo, Atooi, Oneeheow, Oreehoua, and Tahoora. He received ſome intelligence with reſpect to the exiſtence of a low uninhabited iſland in the neighbourhood, named Tammata-pappa, which was never viſited. Beſides, he was further informed, that there were other iſlands both to the eaſtward and weſtward. Owhyhee, the ſpot where our celebrated navigator fell a victim to the fury of the natives, with ſome others, was not diſcovered till ſome time after thoſe juſt mentioned, and will therefore be introduced, with every tranſaction relative to that memorable event, in its proper place. All theſe iſlands, he obſerved, were ſituated between the latitude of 21 deg. 30 min. and 22 deg. 15 min. north; and between the longitude of 199 deg. 20 min. and 201 deg. 30 min. eaſt. All the information that could be derived reſpecting Woahoo, the moſt eaſterly of the iſlands diſcovered, was, that it is high land, and inhabited.

The captain touched at Oneeheow, and was paid a degree of homage by the natives that came on board, as they crouched down upon the deck, nor would quit that humble poſture till they were requeſted to riſe. When he went on ſhore, he took with him three goats, a young boar and ſow of the Engliſh breed, and alſo the ſeeds of onions, pumpkins, and melons. Theſe he diſpoſed of in ſuch a manner, as he thought would beſt tend to promote

the propagation of the reſpective ſpecies. This iſland is chiefly low land, except one part, which riſes immediately from the ſea to a conſiderable height; as does alſo its ſouth-eaſt point, which terminates in a round hill. Its chief vegetable productions are yams, and the ſweet root called *tee*. Our people procured ſome ſalt here, called by the natives *patai*, which is produced in ſalt ponds. With it they cure both fiſh and pork; and ſome of the fiſh being purchaſed, proved good, and kept well. The anchoring place at this iſland was in latitude 21 deg. 50 min. north; and longitude 199 deg. 45 min. eaſt. Oreehoua and Tahoora, are two little iſlands in the vicinity of the former. Tahoora is uninhabited.

As the ſhips approached Atooi, many of the inhabitants put off in their canoes, and very readily came along-ſide. Our people were agreeably ſurpriſed to find that they ſpoke a dialect of the Otaheitean language. They could not at firſt be prevailed upon by any entreaties to come on board. Captain Cook tied ſome braſs medals to a rope, which he gave to thoſe who were in one of the canoes; and they faſtened ſome mackerel to the rope, by way of equivalent. This was repeated, and ſome ſmall nails, or pieces of iron, were given them; for which they gave in exchange ſome more fiſh, and a ſweet potato; a ſure indication of having ſome notion of bartering. One of them even offered for ſale the piece of ſtuff which he wore about his waiſt.

The natives of this iſland were of the middling ſtature, and of a robuſt form. Their complexion was brown; and though there appeared to be little difference in the caſts of their colour, there was a conſiderable variation in their features. Moſt of them had their hair cropped rather ſhort; a few had it tied in a bunch at the top of the head; and others ſuffered it to flow looſe. It ſeemed to be naturally black; but the generality of them had ſtained it with ſome ſtuff, which changed it to a browniſh colour. Moſt of them had pretty long beards. They had no ornaments about their perſons; nor was it obſerved that they had their ears perforated. Some of them were tatooed on the hands, or near the hips: and the pieces of cloth which were worn by them round their middle were curiouſly coloured with white, black, and red. They ſeemed to be mild and good-natured; and were furniſhed with no arms of any kind, except ſome ſmall ſtones, which they had manifeſtly brought for their own defence; and theſe they threw into the ſea when they found there was no occaſion for them.

As the ſhips ſailed along the coaſt, in queſt of a convenient ſpot for anchorage, ſome of the natives ventured to come on board; and none of the inhabitants they ever met with before, in any other iſland or country, were ſo aſtoniſhed as theſe people were, upon entering a ſhip. Their eyes were inceſſantly roving from one object to another, while the wildneſs of their looks and geſtures fully indicated their perfect ignorance with reſpect to every thing they ſaw; and ſtrongly pointed out, that they had never, till the preſent time, been viſited by Europeans, nor been acquainted with any of their commodities, except iron. This metal, however, they had in all probability only heard of, or at moſt known it in ſome inconſiderable quantity, brought to them at a remote period. They aſked for it by the appellation of *hamaite*, referring probably to ſome inſtrument, in making which iron could be ſerviceably employed: for they applied that name to the blade of a knife, though they had no idea of that particular inſtrument, which they could not even handle properly. They alſo frequently called iron by the name of *toe*, which ſignifies a hatchet or adze. On being ſhewn ſome beads, they firſt aſked what they were, and then whether they were to be eaten? But on their being informed, that they were to be hung in their ears they rejected them as uſeleſs. They were equally indifferent with regard to a looking-glaſs that was offered them, and returned it for a ſimilar reaſon. China cups, plates of earthen ware, and other things of that kind, were ſo new to them, that they aſked whether they were made of wood? They were, in many reſpects, naturally polite; or, at leaſt, cautious of giving offence. Some of them, juſt before their venturing on board, repeated a long prayer; and others afterwards ſung, and made various motions with their hands.

When the boats, with a proper officer, were diſpatched to look out for a convenient landing-place, the commodore gave peremptory orders, that none of the crew ſhould go on ſhore, to prevent, if poſſible, the importation of a dangerous diſeaſe into this iſland, which he knew ſome of them now laboured under, and which they unfortuately communicated to other iſlands in this ocean. From the ſame motive, he commanded that all female viſitants ſhould be excluded from both the ſhips. Many perſons of this ſex had come off in the canoes. Their complexion and ſtature were not very different from thoſe of the men: and though their countenances were extremely open and agreeable, few traces of delicacy were viſible, either in their faces or other proportions. The only difference in their dreſs, was their having a piece of cloth about their bodies, reaching from near the middle, almoſt down to the knees, inſtead of the *maro* worn by the male ſex.

The ſhips being brought to anchor, the captain went on ſhore, and was received in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner by the iſlanders, who fell proſtrate upon their faces, and continued in that poſture of humiliation till, by ſigns, he prevailed on them to riſe. They then preſented to him many ſmall pigs, with plantain trees, making uſe of nearly the ſame ceremonies, which had been practiſed on ſimilar occaſions at the Society and other iſles; and a long oration, or prayer, being pronounced by an individual, in which others of the aſſembly occaſionally joined. Captain Cook ſignified his acceptance of their proffered friendſhip, by beſtowing on them in return ſuch preſents as he had brought on ſhore. Having determined on an excurſion into the country, he was accompanied by two gentlemen, and followed by a numerous train of natives, one of whom, who had been very active in keeping the others in order, the captain made choice of as a guide. This man, from time to time, proclaiming the approach of the ſtrangers, every perſon who met them fell proſtrate on the ground, and remained in that humble poſition till they had paſſed. This they were afterwards informed is their method of ſhewing reſpect to their own great chiefs.

On their excurſion they ſaw a morai, which bore a ſtriking reſemblance, in ſeveral reſpects, to thoſe they had ſeen at Otaheite, and other iſlands in this ocean. It was an oblong ſpace, of conſiderable extent, environed by a ſtone-wall, four or five feet high. The encloſed ſpace was looſely paved; and at one end of it was placed the obeliſk or pyramid, called by the natives *henananoo*, which was an exact model of the larger one that they had diſcerned from the ſhips. It was about twenty feet in height, and four feet ſquare at the baſe. Its four ſides were formed of ſmall poles, interwoven with twigs and branches, thus compoſing an indifferent wicker-work, hollow within, from the top to the bottom. It appeared to be in a ruinous ſtate, and had been originally covered with a thin greyiſh cloth. On each ſide of it were long pieces of wicker-work, termed *hereanee*, in a condition equally ruinous; with two poles inclining towards each other at one corner, where ſome plantains were placed on a board, fixed at the height of about half a dozen feet. This was called by the iſlanders *herairemy*; and they ſaid, that the fruit was an offering to their deity. Before the *henananoo* were ſeveral pieces of wood, carved into ſome reſemblance

ſemblance of human figures. There was alſo a ſtone near two feet in height, covered with cloth. Adjoining to this, on the outſide of the morai, was a ſmall ſhed, which they denominated *hareepahoo ;* and before it there was a grave, where the remains of a woman had been depoſited. On the further ſide of the area of the morai, there was a houſe or ſhed, called *hemanaa ;* it was about forty feet in length, ten or eleven feet in height, and ten in breadth in the middle, but narrower at each end ; though conſiderably longer, it was lower than their common habitations. Oppoſite the entrance into this houſe ſtood two images, near three feet high, cut out of one piece of wood, with pedeſtals. They were ſaid to be *Eatooa no Veheina*, or repreſentations of goddeſſes, and were not very indifferent, either in point of execution or deſign. On the head of one of them was a cylindrical cap, not unlike the head-dreſs at Otaheite, called *tomou ;* and on that of the other, a carved helmet, ſomewhat reſembling thoſe of the ancient warriors ; and both of them had pieces of cloth faſtened about the loins, and hanging down a conſiderable way. There was alſo, at the ſide of each, a piece of carved wood, with cloth hung on it. Before the pedeſtals lay a quantity of fern, which had been placed there at different times. In the middle of the houſe, and before the images juſt deſcribed, was an oblong ſpace, encloſed by an edging of ſtone, and covered with the ſhreds of cloth. This was the grave of ſeven chiefs, and was called *heneene*.

From the ſimilarity between this morai, and thoſe of the iſlands they had lately quitted, little doubt was entertained, that a ſimilarity exiſted alſo in the rites here ſolemnized, and particularly in the horrid oblation of human victims. The conception was ſoon confirmed : for on the ſide of the entrance into the *hemaana*, they obſerved a ſmall ſquare place, and another ſtill ſmaller ; and on aſking what theſe were, they were informed by their conductor, that in one of them was interred a man who had been ſacrificed ; and in the other a hog, which had alſo been offered up to the deity. At no great diſtance from theſe were three other ſquare encloſed places, with two pieces of carved wood at each of them, and an heap of fern upon them. Theſe were the graves of three chiefs ; and before them was an encloſed ſpace, of an oblong figure, called *tangatataboo*, by the guide, who declared to them, that three human ſacrifices, one at the funeral of each chief, had been there buried. Indeed, there was not room to doubt of the univerſal prevalence of this practice in the iſland under deſcription.

Of all the various articles which the natives brought to exchange with the Engliſh, nothing ſo much attracted their notice, and, it might be added, their admiration, as a ſort of cloak and cap, which, even in more poliſhed countries, might be eſteemed elegant. Theſe cloaks are nearly of the ſhape and ſize of the ſhort ones worn by the men in Spain, and by the women in England, tied looſely before, and reaching to the middle of the back. The ground of them is a net work, with the moſt beautiful red and yellow feathers ſo cloſely fixed upon it, that the ſurface, both in point of ſmoothneſs and gloſſineſs, reſembles the richeſt velvet. The method of varying the mixture is very different ; ſome of them having triangular ſpaces of red and yellow alternately ; others, a ſort of creſcent ; while ſome were entirely red, except that they had a broad yellow border. The brilliant colours of the feathers, in thoſe cloaks that were new, had a very fine effect. The natives, at firſt, refuſed to part with one of theſe cloaks for any thing that was offered in exchange, demanding no leſs a price than one of the muſkets. They afterwards, however, received as the purchaſe of them ſome very large nails. Thoſe of the beſt ſort were ſcarce ; and it is probable, that they are uſed only on particular occaſions. The caps are made in the form of an helmet, with the middle part, or creſt, frequently of an hand's breadth. They ſit very cloſe upon the head, and have notches to admit the ears. They conſiſt of twigs and oſiers, covered with a network, into which the feathers are wrought, as upon the cloaks, but ſomewhat cloſer, and leſs diverſified ; the major part being red, with ſome yellow, green, or black ſtripes on the ſides. Theſe caps, in all probability, complete the dreſs with the cloaks ; for the iſlanders appeared ſometimes in both together.

At firſt it was not eaſy to conjecture by what means they procured ſuch a quantity of theſe beautiful feathers, but were ſoon made acquainted with that particular from the great number of ſkins of a ſmall red ſpecies of bird they brought for ſale. Thoſe that were firſt purchaſed conſiſted only of the ſkin from behind the ſhoulder of the wings ; but they afterwards got many with the hind part, including the feet and tail. The reaſon aſſigned by the inhabitants of Atooi, for the cuſtom of cutting off the feet of theſe birds is, that by this practice they can preſerve them the more eaſily, without loſing any part which they conſider as valuable. The red bird of this iſland was a ſpecies of merops, about as large as a ſparrow : its colour was a beautiful ſcarlet, with the tail and wings black ; and it had an arched bill, twice as long as the head, which, with the feet, was of a reddiſh hue. The contents of the head were taken out, as in the birds of paradiſe. But it was not obſerved, that they practiſed any other mode of preſerving them, than ſimple drying ; for the ſkins, though they were moiſt, had neither ſmell or taſte.

It appears that the inhabitants of this iſland feed upon human fleſh. One of them that came out in a canoe, bringing articles by way of barter, and amongſt the reſt ſome fiſh-hooks, was obſerved to have a very ſmall parcel faſtened to the ſtring of one of them, which he carefully ſeparated, and reſerved for himſelf, when he diſpoſed of the hook. Upon inquiry what it was, he pointed to his belly, and intimated ſomething of its being dead ; ſaying, at the ſame time, that it was bad. He was requeſted to open the parcel, which he did with great reluctance, and it was found that it contained a ſmall thin piece of fleſh, which had, to all appearance, been dried, but was then wet with ſalt water. Our people imagining it might be human fleſh, put the queſtion to the producer of it, who anſwered, that the fleſh was part of a man. Another of the iſlanders, who ſtood near him, was then aſked, whether it was a cuſtom among them to eat their enemies who had been ſlain in battle, on which he replied in the affirmative. Yet further inquiries on this ſubject were made. A ſmall inſtrument of wood, beſet with ſhark's teeth, had been purchaſed, which, as it reſembled the ſaw or knife made uſe of by the ſavages of New Zealand, to diſſect the bodies of their enemies, was ſuſpected to be employed here for the ſame purpoſe. One of the iſlanders being queſtioned on this point, acknowledged that the inſtrument before mentioned ſerved the purpoſe of cutting out the fleſhy-part of the belly, when any perſon was ſlain. This explained and confirmed the circumſtance before related, of the man's pointing to his belly. The native, however, from whom this intelligence was received, being aſked, whether his countrymen ever fed on the part thus cut out, ſtrongly denied it ; but, when the queſtion was repeated, he ſhewed ſome degree of apprehenſion, and ſwam off to his canoe. An elderly man, who ſat foremoſt in the canoe, was then aſked whether they eat the fleſh, and he anſwered in the affirmative. The queſtion being put a ſecond time, he again affirmed the fact, adding, that it was ſavory food. The inquiry, whether theſe iſlanders were cannibals, was renewed when the ſhips were off Oneeheow. The ſubject did not ariſe from any queſtions put by their viſitors, but from a circumſtance that ſeemed to remove all doubt. One of the

the natives, who wiſhed to get in at the gun-room port, was refuſed; and he then aſked, whether they would kill and eat him, if he ſhould come in; accompanying this queſtion with ſigns ſo expreſſive, that a doubt could not be entertained with reſpect to his meaning. Our people had now an opportunity of retorting the queſtion as to this practice; when a man behind the other in the canoe, inſtantly replied, that if they were killed on ſhore, they ſhould not ſcruple to eat them: not that he meant the natives would deſtroy them for that purpoſe, but that their devouring them would be the conſequence of creating enmity.

The following are ſome additional obſervations made by captain Cook on the iſland of which we are here treating.

Further Particulars relative to Atooi. Soil, Climate, Animal, and Vegetable Productions. Dreſs, Habitations, Muſic, Weapons, Agriculture, and Manners of the Inhabitants.

The iſland of Atooi is at leaſt ten leagues from eaſt to weſt, from whence its circumference may be nearly gueſſed.

The land does not in the leaſt reſemble, in its general appearance, any of the iſlands, which our late navigators had viſited within the tropic of Capricorn, except in its hills near the centre, which are high, but ſlope gradually towards the ſea, or lower lands. Though it preſents not to the view the delightful borders of Otaheite, nor the luxuriant plains of Tongataboo, covered with trees, which at once afford a ſhelter from the ſcorching rays of the ſun, a beautiful proſpect to the eye, and food for the natives, yet its poſſeſſing a greater portion of gently riſing land renders it, in ſome degree, ſuperior to the abovementioned favourite iſlands, as being more capable of improvement. The height of the land within, and the number of clouds hanging over it, ſeemed to indicate that there was a ſufficient ſupply of water, and that there were ſome running ſtreams, though our people had not an opportunity of ſeeing them. The ground, from the woody part to the ſea, was covered with an excellent kind of graſs, about two feet in height, which ſometimes grew in tufts, and appeared capable of being converted into abundant crops of fine hay. But on this extenſive ſpace not even a ſhrub grew naturally. In the narrow valley leading to the morai the ſoil is of a dark brown colour, rather looſe; but on the high ground it is of a reddiſh brown, more ſtiff and clayey. Its quality may be better eſtimated from its productions, than from its appearance. For the vale, or moiſt ground, produces taro, much larger than any ſeen before; and the more elevated ground ſweet potatoes, that ſeldom weigh leſs than two or three pounds, frequently ten, and ſometimes a dozen or fourteen.

The temperature of the climate may be eaſily gueſſed from the ſituation of the iſland. It was remarked, however, by thoſe who were moſt capable of judging, that, from what they experienced, it might be ſaid to be very variable; for, according to the general opinion, it was, at this time, the ſeaſon of the year when the weather is ſuppoſed to be the moſt ſettled, the ſun being at its greateſt annual diſtance. The heat was now very moderate; and few of thoſe inconveniences to which many countries lying within the tropics are ſubject, either from heat or moiſture, ſeemed to be experienced here. Nor were there any dews of conſequence; a circumſtance which may partly be accounted for by the lower part of the country being deſtitute of trees. The rock that conſtitutes the ſides of the valley is a dark grey ponderous ſtone, but honey-combed, with ſome ſpots of a ruſty colour, and ſome very minute ſhining particles interſperſed. It is of an immenſe depth, and ſeems to be divided into ſtrata, though nothing is interpoſed; for the large pieces always broke off to a determined thickneſs, and did not appear to have adhered to thoſe that were below them. Other ſtones are, in all probability, much more various than in the ſouthern iſlands. For during the ſhort time the ſhips remained here, beſides the *lapis lydius*, was found a ſpecies of cream-coloured whetſtone, ſometimes variegated with whiter or blacker veins, like marble; and alſo common writing ſlate.

The only tame or domeſtic animals found here were hogs, dogs, and fowls, which were all of the ſame kind as thoſe met with in the South-Sea iſlands in general. There were ſome ſmall lizards and ſome rats, reſembling thoſe of the other iſlands.

The voyagers did not meet with ſcarlet birds alive that were brought for ſale; but ſaw one ſmall one, about the ſize of a canary bird, of a deep crimſon colour. They alſo ſaw a large owl, two brown hawks or kites, and a wild duck; and heard from the natives the names of ſome other birds, among which were the *otoo*, or bluiſh bird, and the *tarata*, a ſort of whimbrel. It is probable that the ſpecies of birds are numerous, if a judgment may be formed from the quantity of fine yellow, green, and ſmall, velvet-like, blackiſh feathers uſed upon the cloaks, and other ornaments, worn by theſe people. The iſland did not appear to produce fiſh either in quantity or variety, as the only fiſh ſeen by our people, beſides the ſmall mackerel, were common mullets; a ſpecies of a chalky colour; a ſmall browniſh rock fiſh, adorned with blue ſpots; a turtle, which was penned up in a pond; and three or four ſorts of fiſh ſalted. The few ſhell-fiſh ſeen were converted into ornaments, though they were deſtitute of the recommendation either of beauty or novelty.

There are ſix different kinds of plantains, bread-fruit, a few cocoa-palms, ſome yams, the kappee of the Friendly-Iſlands, or Virginian arum; the etooa tree, and odoriferous gardenia, or cape jeſmine. There were ſeveral trees of the dooe dooe, that bear the oily nuts, which are ſtuck upon a kind of ſkewer, and made uſe of as candles. The iſlanders wear theſe nuts, hung on ſtrings, round their necks. There is a ſpecies of ſida, or Indian mallow; alſo the *morinda citrifolia*, which is here called *none*; a ſpecies of convolvulus, the ava, or intoxicating pepper, beſides a great quantity of gourds. Theſe laſt grow to a very large ſize, and are of a remarkable variety of ſhapes, which are, perhaps, the effect of art. Upon the dry ſand, about the village, grew a plant, that had never been ſeen by our people in this ocean, of the ſize of a common thiſtle and prickly, but bearing a fine flower, greatly reſembling a white poppy.

The natives of Atooi appear to be of a frank, cheerful diſpoſition; equally free from the fickle levity that characterizes the inhabitants of Otaheite, and the ſedate caſt which is obſervable among many of thoſe of Tongataboo. They ſeem to cultivate a ſocial intercourſe with each other, and except the propenſity to thieving, which is, as it were, innate in moſt of the people of theſe ſeas, they were exceeding friendly. When they ſaw the different articles of European manufacture, they could not refrain from expreſſing their aſtoniſhment, by a mixture of joy and concern, that ſeemed to apply the caſe as a leſſon of humility to themſelves; and, on every occaſion, appeared to have a proper conſciouſneſs of their own inferiority. It was pleaſing to obſerve with what affection the women managed their infants, and with what alacrity the men contributed their aſſiſtance in ſuch a tender office. They are active, vigorous, and expert ſwimmers; leaving their canoes upon the moſt frivolous occaſion, diving under them, and ſwimming to others, though at a conſiderable diſtance. Women were frequently ſeen with infants at their breaſts, when the ſurf was ſo high as to pre-

vent

vent their landing in their canoes, to leap overboard, and ſwim on ſhore.

If judgment might be formed from the number ſeen by our people as they ranged along the coaſt, the inhabitants of this iſland are pretty numerous. Including the ſtraggling houſes, there might, perhaps, be in the whole iſland ſixty ſuch villages as that near which the ſhips anchored; and, if allowance is made of five perſons to each houſe, there would be, in every village, five hundred; or thirty thouſand upon the iſland. This number is by no means exaggerated, for there were ſometimes three thouſand people, at leaſt, collected on the beach, when it could not be ſuppoſed that above a tenth part of the natives were preſent.

Having already deſcribed the ordinary dreſs of the natives of both ſexes; we ſhall now attend to particulars. The women have often much larger pieces of cloth wrapped about them, extending from juſt below the breaſts to the hams, and ſometimes lower; and ſeveral were obſerved with pieces thrown looſely over their ſhoulders, which covered the greateſt part of the body; but the children, when very young, go entirely naked. They do not wear any thing on the head; but the hair, both of men and women, is cut in various forms, and the general faſhion, particularly among the latter, is to have it ſhort behind and long before. The men frequently had it cut on each ſide in ſuch a manner, that the remaining part ſomewhat reſembled the creſt of their caps or helmets. Both ſexes, however, ſeemed to be very careleſs about their hair, and had no combs, or any thing of the kind, to dreſs it. The men ſometimes twiſt it into a number of ſeparate parcels, like the tails of a wig, each about as thick as a finger; though moſt of theſe, which are ſo long as to reach far down the back, are artificially fixed upon the head, over their own hair. The people of the Sandwich-Iſles have not their ears perforated, nor do they wear any ornaments in them. Both men and women, however, adorn themſelves with necklaces compoſed of bunches of ſmall black cord, like our hat-ſtring, often above an hundred-fold. They have alſo necklaces of many ſtrings of very ſmall ſhells, or of the dried flowers of the Indian mallow; and they ſometimes hang round their necks a ſmall human figure of bone, about the length of three inches. The women likewiſe wear bracelets of a ſingle ſhell, pieces of black wood, with bits of ivory interſperſed, and neatly poliſhed, faſtened together by a ſtring drawn cloſely through them; or others of hogs teeth placed parallel to each other, with the concave part outward, and the points cut off; ſome of which, formed only of large boars' tuſks, appeared very elegant. The men ſometimes fix on their heads plumes of feathers of the tropic bird, or thoſe of cocks, faſtened round neat poliſhed ſticks two feet in length; and, for the ſame purpoſe, they ſew the ſkin of a white dog's tail over a ſtick, with its tuft at the end. They alſo frequently wear on the head a kind of ornament about the thickneſs of a finger, covered with yellow and red feathers, curiouſly varied, and tied behind; and, on that part of the arm which is above the elbow, a ſort of broad ſhell-work grounded upon net-work. The men ſometimes puncture themſelves upon the hands or arms, but frequently no marks at all were ſeen; though a few individuals had more of this ſpecies of ornament than had been uſually noticed at other places, and curiouſly executed in a great variety of lines and figures, on the arms and fore-part of the body.

Their habitations are ſcattered about without the leaſt order; ſome are large and commodious, from 40 to 50 feet in length, and 20 or 30 in breadth; while others are the moſt contemptible hovels. Their figure reſembles that of hay-ſtacks; or, perhaps, a better idea may be conceived of them, by ſuppoſing the roof of a barn placed on the ground in ſuch a manner as to form an high ſharp ridge with two low ſides. The gable at each end, correſponding to the ſides, makes theſe dwelling-places cloſe all round; and they are well covered with long graſs, which is laid on ſlender poles. The entrance is made either in the end or ſide, and is an oblong hole extremely low: it is often ſhut up by a board of planks faſtened together, which ſerves as a door; but, as it has no hinges, may be removed occaſionally. No light enters the houſe except by this opening: and though ſuch cloſe habitations may be comfortable places of retreat in bad weather, they ſeem but ill adapted to the warm climate of this country.

They are kept remarkably clean, however, and the floors are ſtrewed with dried graſs, over which mats are ſpread to ſit, or to ſleep on. At one end ſtands a bench about three feet high, on which the domeſtic utenſils are placed. Theſe conſiſt of gourd-ſhells, which the natives convert into veſſels that ſerve as bottles to hold water, and as baſkets to contain their food and other things; they have alſo a few wooden bowls and trenchers of various ſizes. Sweet potatoes and plantains conſtitute the principal part of their vegetable diet; ſo that yams and bread-fruit are rather to be conſidered as rarities. Of animal food they appear to be in no want, as they have great numbers of hogs, which run without reſtraint about the houſes; and, if they eat dogs, which is not altogether improbable, their ſtock of theſe ſeemed very conſiderable. The quantities of fiſhing-hooks found among them indicated that they procure ſome ſupply of food from the ſea. They have a cuſtom of ſalting fiſh, and likewiſe pork, which they preſerve in gourd-ſhells. The ſalt which they uſe for this purpoſe is of a reddiſh colour, but not very coarſe.

Their vegetable articles of food they bake with heated ſtones; and from the great quantity which was ſeen dreſſed at one time, it was ſuppoſed that all the inhabitants of a village, or at leaſt a conſiderable number of people, joined in the uſe of a common oven. They eat out of a ſort of wooden trenchers, and, as far as our people could judge from one inſtance, the women, if reſtrained from feeding at the ſame diſh, as is the cuſtom at Otaheite, are at leaſt allowed to eat at the ſame place near them.

The diverſions of theſe iſlanders are various. The Engliſh did not ſee the dances in which they uſe the feathered cloaks and caps; but, from the motions which they made with their hands, on other occaſions, when they ſung, they judged that they were ſomewhat ſimilar to thoſe they had met with at the ſouthern iſlands, though not ſo ſkilfully performed. They had not among them either flutes or reeds, and the only two muſical inſtruments ſeen were of a very rude kind. One of them does not produce a ſound ſuperior to that of a child's rattle. It conſiſts of what may be denominated a conic cap inverted, but very little hollowed at the baſe, made of a ſedge-like plant, the upper part of which, and likewiſe the edges, are embelliſhed with beautiful red feathers, and to the point, or lower part, is fixed a gourd-ſhell. Into this they put ſomething to rattle, which is done by holding the inſtrument by the ſmall part, and ſhaking it briſkly before the face, at the ſame time ſtriking the breaſt with the other hand. The other inſtrument was a hollow veſſel of wood not unlike a platter, combined with the uſe of two ſticks, on which one of the natives was obſerved performing. He held one of the ſticks, about two feet in length, with one hand, in the ſame manner as the Europeans hold a violin, and ſtruck it with the other, which was ſmaller, and reſembled a drum-ſtick, in a quicker or ſlower meaſure; beating with his foot at the ſame time upon the hollow veſſel that lay upon the ground inverted, and thus producing a tune that was not diſagreeable. This muſic was accompanied by the vocal performance of ſome women, whoſe ſong had a pleaſing effect.

Much ingenuity is diſplayed in their different manufactures. Their cloth is made from the *morus papyrifera*, and, doubtleſs, in the ſame manner as at Tongataboo and Otaheite; as ſome of the grooved ſticks were bought with which they beat it. Its texture, however, though thicker, is inferior to that of the cloth of either of the places juſt mentioned; but in colouring or ſtaining it, the inhabitants of Atooi diſplay a ſuperiority of taſte, by the infinite variety of figures which they execute. Their colours, indeed, are not very bright, except the red; but the regularity of the figures and ſtripes is amazing; for, as far as was known, they have nothing like ſtamps or prints, to make the impreſſions. Beſides the variegated ſorts, they have ſome pieces of plain white cloth, and others of a ſingle colour, particularly light blue, and dark brown. In general, the pieces brought for exchange, were about the breadth of two feet, and four or five yards in length, being the form and quantity made uſe of by them for their common dreſs, or *maro;* and even ſome of theſe were compoſed of pieces ſewed together. They have alſo a particular ſort that is thin, and greatly reſembles oil-cloth; and which is either oiled or ſoaked in ſome kind of varniſh. They fabricate numbers of white mats, which are ſtrong, with many red ſtripes, quadrangular and other figures interwoven on one ſide. Theſe, in all probablity, make a part of their dreſs: for when they offered them to ſale, they put them on their backs. They manufacture others of a coaſer ſort, plain and ſtrong, which they ſpread over their floors to ſleep upon.

Their gourd-ſhells they ſtain neatly with undulated lines, triangles, and other figures of a black colour. They alſo ſeem to be acquainted with the art of varniſhing; for ſome of their ſtained gourd-ſhells are covered with a ſort of lacker; and, on other occaſions, they make uſe of a ſtrong ſize, or glutinous ſubſtance, to faſten things together. Their wooden diſhes and bowls, out of which they drink their ava, are of the etooa tree, or cordia, extremely neat, and well poliſhed. They likewiſe make ſmall ſquare fans of mat or wicker-work, with handles of the ſame, or of wood, tapering from them, which are curiouſly wrought with ſmall cords of hair and cocoa-nut fibres intermixed. Their fiſhing-hooks are ingeniouſly made; ſome of bone, many of pearl-ſhell, and others of wood, pointed with bone. The bones are for the moſt part ſmall, and conſiſt of two pieces; and the various ſorts have a barb, either on the inſide, or the outſide: but others have both, the exterior one being furtheſt from the point. Of the latter ſort, one was procured, nine inches in length, made of a ſingle piece of bone; the elegant form and poliſh of which could not be exceeded by any European artiſt. They poliſh their ſtones by conſtant friction, with pumice-ſtone in water; and ſuch of the tools as were ſeen reſembled thoſe of the ſouthern iſlanders. Their hatchets, or rather adzes, were exactly of the ſame pattern, and were either formed of a blackiſh ſtone, or of a clay-coloured one. They have alſo ſmall inſtruments, compoſed of a ſingle ſhark's tooth, ſome of which are fixed to the fore part of the jaw-bone of a dog, and others to a thin wooden handle of a ſimilar ſhape; and at the other end there is a bit of ſtring faſtened through a little hole. They ſerve occaſionally as knives, and are probably uſed in carving. The only iron tools ſeen among them, and which they poſſeſſed before the arrival of our ſhips, were a piece of iron hoop, about the length of two inches, fitted into a wooden handle; and another edge-tool, which was ſuppoſed to have been made of the point of a broad ſword. Their having the actual poſſeſſion of theſe, and their being acquainted with the uſe of this metal, inclined ſome of our people to imagine, that they were not the firſt European viſitors of theſe iſlands. But the very great ſurpriſe which they teſtified on ſeeing the ſhips, and their perfect ignorance of the uſe of fire-arms, cannot be reconciled with ſuch an opinion. However, ſome have thought that the natives of Atooi might have received this metal from intermediate iſlands, ſituated between them and the Ladrones, which the Spaniards have frequented almoſt ever ſince the period of Magellan's voyage in 1719.

Beſides their ſpears, formed of a fine browniſh wood, beautifully poliſhed, ſome of which are barbed at one end, and flattened to a point at the other, they have a kind of weapon which the voyagers had never met with before: it ſomewhat reſembles a dagger, and is, in general, about eighteen inches in length, ſharpened at one or both ends, and ſecured to the hand by a ſtring. Its uſe is to ſtab in cloſe combat, and ſeems well adapted for that purpoſe. Some of theſe may be denominated double daggers, having a handle in the middle, by which they are the better calculated to ſtrike different ways. They have likewiſe bows and arrows; but, both from their ſlender conſtruction, and their apparent ſcarcity, it is probable that they never make uſe of them in battle. The knife or ſaw, with which they diſſect the dead bodies of their enemies, may alſo be ranked among their weapons, as they both ſtrike and cut with it when engaged in cloſe fight. It is a ſmall flat wooden inſtrument, about a foot in length, of an oblong ſhape, rounded at the corners: its edges are ſurrounded with ſharks' teeth, ſtrongly fixed to it, and pointing outwards; and it has generally a hole in the handle, through which paſſes a long ſtring, which they wrap ſeveral times round the wriſt.

Their canoes are commonly about four and twenty feet in length, and have the bottom, in general, formed of a ſingle piece of wood, hollowed out to the thickneſs of an inch, or more, and brought to a point at each end. The ſides are compoſed of three boards, each about an inch thick, neatly fitted, and laſhed to the bottom. The extremities, both at the head and ſtern, are a little elevated, and both are made ſharp, ſomewhat reſembling a wedge, but they flatten more abruptly, ſo that the two ſide-boards join each other, ſide by ſide, for upwards of a foot. As they ſeldom exceed a foot and a half in breadth, thoſe that go ſingle (for they ſometimes join them) have out-riggers, which are ſhaped and fitted with more judgment than any before ſeen. They are rowed by paddles, ſuch as had been generally obſerved at other iſlands: and ſome of them have a light triangular ſail, extended to a maſt or boom. The ropes which they uſe for their boats, and the ſmaller cords for their fiſhing-tackle, are ſtrong, and neatly made.

The natives ſeem to poſſeſs a knowledge of agriculture. The vale-ground is one continued plantation of taro, and ſome other articles, which have all the appearance of being carefully attended to. The potato-fields, and ſpots of ſugar-cane, or plantains, on the higher grounds, are planted with great regularity; but neither theſe, or the others, are encloſed with any fence, unleſs the ditches in the low grounds may be conſidered as ſuch: which, it is more probable, are deſigned to convey water to the taro. The great quantity and excellence of theſe articles may, perhaps, be as much owing to ſkilful culture, as natural fertility of ſoil, which ſeems better adapted to them, than to bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees; the few of theſe latter which were ſeen, not being in a thriving ſtate. Notwithſtanding this ſkill in agriculture, the iſland, from its general appearance, ſeemed to be capable of more extenſive improvement, and of maintaining thrice as many inhabitants as are now upon it; for the greater part of it, that now lies waſte, was apparently as good a ſoil as thoſe parts that were cultivated. It muſt therefore be inferred, that theſe people do increaſe in that proportion, which would render it neceſſary for them to take advantage of the extent of their iſland, towards

raiſing

raiſing a greater quantity of its vegetable productions for their maintenance.

There was not an opportunity of forming an accurate judgment of the mode of government eſtabliſhed amongſt theſe people; but, from our general obſervation, it ſeemed reaſonable to imagine, that it is of the ſame nature with that which prevails in all the iſlands they had hitherto viſited; and, in all probability, their wars among themſelves are equally frequent. This indeed might be inferred from the number of weapons which were found in their poſſeſſion, and from the excellent order in which they kept them. But they had proofs of the fact from their own confeſſion; being informed, theſe wars are carried on between the different diſtricts of their own iſland, as well as between it and the inhabitants of the neighbouring iſlands. No other cauſe than this need be aſſigned, to account for the apperance before-mentioned, or their population not being proportioned to the extent of their ground that is capable of cultivation.

Beſides obſerving in general that there is an affinity between the manners of theſe people, and the natives of the Friendly and Society-Iſlands, here follow a few particulars, that will ſerve to place this in a ſtriking point of view.

As to religious inſtitutions, and the manner of diſpoſing of the dead, the inhabitants of Tongataboo bury the dead with great decency, and they alſo inter their human ſacrifices; but they do not offer any other animal, or even a vegetable to their deities. The Otaheiteans do not inter their dead, but expoſe them to waſte by time and putrefaction, though they afterward bury the bones; and this being the caſe, it is remarkable that they ſhould inter the entire bodies of their human ſacrifices. They alſo offer up to their gods other animals and vegetables; but are far from being attentive to the condition of the places where they celebrate thoſe ſolemn rites; moſt of their morais being in a ruinous ſtate, and ſhewing manifeſt tokens of neglect. The people of Atooi, again, bury both their common dead, and their human ſacrifices, as at Tongataboo; but they reſemble thoſe of Otaheite, in offering vegetables and animals to their gods, and in the neglected ſtate of their religious places. It may be obſerved, alſo, that the taboo alſo prevails in Atooi, in its full extent, and apparently with greater ſtrictneſs than even at Tangataboo: for the natives here always aſked with great eagerneſs, and with indications of a fear of offending, whether any particular thing which they deſired to ſee, or their viſitors were willing to ſhew, was taboo, or (as they pronounced the word) tafoo? meaning, forbidden. The language uſed in both places may be ſaid to be almoſt entirely the ſame.

Diſcovery of Mowee and Owhyhee. Character of the Natives of the latter. Karakakooa-Bay deſcribed. Ceremonies and Cuſtoms of the Natives. Captain Cook's Reception there.

Before our navigators had ſufficient refreſhments, they were obliged to quit theſe iſlands. The anchor of the Reſolution having ſtarted, ſhe drove off the bank a conſiderable way to the leeward of the ſhip's laſt ſtation; ſo that the commodore foreſeeing it would require more time to regain it than he choſe to employ, he made the ſignal for the Diſcovery to weigh anchor, and both ſhips directed their courſe to the northward, in proſecution of diſcoveries; which was in February 1778.

Captain Cook, after having explored the dreary regions of the north, for the courſe of ſeveral ſucceeding months, determined to reviſit the Sandwich-Iſlands, in order to paſs a few of the winter months, provided he ſhould meet with the neceſſary refreſhments.

From a more extenſive view of the ſpot on the ſecond viſit, which was November 26, 1771, it appeared that the former diſcovery made by theſe, of the group of iſlands, had been imperfect; thoſe which they had viſited in their progreſs nothward, all lying to the leeward of their preſent ſtation.

An elevated hill appeared in the country, whoſe ſummit aroſe above the clouds. The land, from this hill, fell in a gradual ſlope, terminating in a ſteep rocky coaſt; the ſea breaking againſt it in a moſt dreadful manner. Unable to weather the iſland, they bore up, and ranged to the weſtward. They now perceived people on many parts of the ſhore, and ſeveral houſes and plantations. The country appeared to be well ſupplied with wood and water, and ſtreams were ſeen, in various places, falling into the ſea.

The chief deſign of reviſiting theſe iſlands, being to procure a competent ſupply of proviſions, muſt have been fruſtrated, if a free trade with the natives was permitted; captain Cook therefore publiſhed an order, prohibiting all perſons on board the ſhips from trading, except thoſe appointed by himſelf and captain Clerke; and theſe were under limitations of trading only for proviſions and refreſhments. Injunctions were alſo laid againſt the admittance of women into the ſhips, but under certain reſtrictions: but the evil which was intended to have been prevented by this regulation had already got amongſt them. While the ſhips were ranging along the coaſt, ſome canoes came off, and, when they got along-ſide, many of the conductors of them came on board without heſitation. It was perceived that they were of the ſame nation as thoſe iſlanders more to the leeward, which they had already viſited; and, as they underſtood, were no ſtrangers to their having been there. Theſe viſitors ſupplied them with a quantity of cuttle fiſh, in exchange for nails and iron. They brought but little fruit or roots, but ſaid they had plenty of them on their iſland, as well as hogs and fowls. Many of them afterwards brought divers commodities, which were bartered for ſuch articles as our people had to diſpoſe of. This iſland was called by the natives Mowee. The chief, who is named Terreeoboo, viſited the commodore on board, and made him a preſent in the uſual form.

Another iſland was ſoon after ſeen to the windward, called by the natives Owhyhee. Standing on and off during the night, the Engliſh were greatly ſurpriſed in the morning, at ſeeing the ſummits of the mountains covered with ſnow. Though they were not of an extraordinary height, the ſnow, in ſome places, appeared to be of a conſiderable depth, and to have remained there ſome time. Drawing near the ſhore, the natives approached, and appeared a little ſhy at firſt; but ſome were prevailed on to come on board, and, at length, induced to return to the iſland, to bring a ſupply of what was wanted. Numbers followed, and brought a tolerable ſupply of pigs, fruit, and roots.

The commodore having procured a great quantity of ſugar-cane, and, upon trial, diſcovering that a decoction of it made very palatable beer, he ordered ſome of it to be brewed for general uſe; but, on broaching the caſks, not one of the crew would even taſte the liquor. Having no other motive in preparing this beverage, than that of preſerving the ſpirits for a colder climate, he neither exerted his authority, nor had recourſe to perſuaſion, to induce them to drink it; well knowing, that ſo long as they could be plentifully ſupplied with vegetables, there was no danger of the ſcurvy: but, that he might not be diſappointed in his views, he ordered that no grog ſhould be ſerved in either of the ſhips. The officers continued to drink this ſugar-cane beer, whenever materials could be procured for brewing it. Some hops, which were on board, improved it much; and it was, doubtleſs, extremely wholeſome; though

the

the inconſiderate crew thought it injurious to their health.

The voyagers met with leſs reſerve and ſuſpicion, in their intercourſe with the people of this iſland, than they had ever experienced among any tribe of ſavages. They frequently ſent up into the ſhip, the articles they meant to barter, and afterwards came in themſelves to traffick on the quarter-deck. The inhabitants of Otaheite, whom they had often viſited, had not that confidence in their integrity; whence it may be inferred, that thoſe of Owhyhee are more faithful in their dealings with each other, than thoſe of Otaheite.

At firſt, they never attempted to over-reach in exchanges, or to commit a ſingle theft. They perfectly underſtood trading, and clearly comprehended the reaſon of the ſhips plying upon the coaſt. For though they brought off plenty of pigs, and other proviſions, they were particular in keeping up their price; and, rather than diſpoſe of them at an undervalue, would carry them aſhore again. Canoes however, coming off from all quarters, there were at leaſt a thouſand about the two ſhips, crowded with people, and laden with hogs and other proviſions. Our people were perfectly convinced of their having no hoſtile intentions; not a ſingle perſon having a weapon with him of any ſort. Trade and curioſity were their only inducements to make the viſit. From the numbers frequently on board, it might be expected that ſome of them would betray a thieviſh diſpoſition. One of them took a boat's rudder from the ſhip, and was not detected, till it was too late to recover it. Captain Cook imagined this to be a proper opportunity to ſhew theſe iſlanders the uſe of fire-arms. Two or three muſkets, and as many four-pounders, were, by his orders, fired over the canoe which went away with the rudder: but as the ſhot was not intended to take the effect, the ſurrounding multitude were only ſurpriſed and frightened.

The ſhips anchoring in the bay, called by the natives Karakakooa-Bay, they continued much crowded with the natives, and ſurrounded by a vaſt multitude of canoes. In the courſe of their voyage, ſuch vaſt numbers of people had not been ſeen aſſembled at one place. Beſides thoſe who came in canoes, all the ſhore was covered with ſpectators; and hundreds were ſwimming about the ſhips, like ſhoals of fiſh. They were ſtruck with the ſingularity of this ſcene; and few on board lamented their having failed in their late endeavours, to find a northern paſſage homeward the laſt ſummer; ſince to this diſappointment they were indebted for reviſiting the Sandwich-Iſlands, and for enriching their voyage with a diſcovery, in many reſpects, the moſt important that has been made by Europeans in the Pacific-Ocean.

This bay is ſituated in the diſtrict of Akona, on the weſt ſide of the iſland of Owhyhee. It extends about a mile in depth, and is bounded by two points of land, bearing ſouth-eaſt, and north-weſt from each other, at the diſtance of half a league. The north point is flat and barren, on which is ſituated the village of Kowrowa. A more conſiderable village, called Kakooa, ſtands in the bottom of the bay, near a grove of ſtately cocoa-trees. An high rocky cliff, inacceſſible from the ſea-ſhore, runs between them. Near the coaſt, on the ſouth-ſide, the land has a rugged appearance; beyond which the country gradually riſes, and abounds with cultivated encloſures, and groves of cocoa-trees. The habitations of the people are ſcattered about in great numbers. Round the bay the ſhore is covered with a black coral rock, except at Kakooa, where there is an excellent ſandy beach, with a morai at one extremity, and a ſpring of freſh water at the other.

As ſoon as the ſhips were brought to anchor, the natives came off in aſtoniſhing, numbers, expreſſing their joy by ſinging, ſhouting, and the moſt extravagant geſtures. The decks, ſides, and rigging, of the ſhips, were covered with them. Women and boys, who were unable to procure canoes, came ſwimming round in great multitudes; ſome of whom, not finding room to get on board, amuſed themſelves the whole day by playing in the water.

A chief called Pareea was amongſt thoſe of the natives who came on board the Reſolution. Though a young man, he was ſoon diſcovered to be a perſon of great authority. He told captain Cook that he was *Jakane* to the ſovereign of the iſland, who was then on a military expedition at Mowee, from whence he was expected to return in a few days. It was not known whether the word *Jakane* was a name of office, or expreſſive of affinity. Some preſents from the commodore attached him to their intereſts, and they found him exceedingly uſeful. Before they had been long at anchor, the Diſcovery had ſo many people hanging on one ſide, that ſhe was obſerved to heel conſiderably; and it appeared impoſſible to prevent the crowds from preſſing into her. Captain Cook, apprehenſive that ſhe might receive ſome injury, communicated his apprehenſions to Pareea, who inſtantly cleared the ſhip of its incumbrances, and diſperſed the canoes that ſurrounded her. From this circumſtance, it is plain that the chiefs have a moſt deſpotic authority over the inferior people. An inſtance ſimilar to this happened on board the Reſolution, where the croud ſo far impeded the ordinary buſineſs of the ſhip, that it was found neceſſary to apply to Kaneena, another chief, who had alſo attached himſelf particularly to captain Cook. The inconvenience ſuffered was no ſooner mentioned, than he ordered the natives immediately to quit the veſſel, when, without a moment's heſitation, they all jumped overboard, except one perſon, who loitering behind, and, by his manner, expreſſing ſome degree of unwillingneſs to obey, Kaneena took hold of him immediately, and threw him into the ſea. Theſe two chiefs were exceedingly well proportioned, and had countenances remarkably pleaſing. Kaneena was a fine figure. His height was about ſix feet; his features were regular and expreſſive; his deportment was eaſy, firm, and graceful; and he had dark lively eyes.

The two chiefs, Pareea and Kaneena, afterwards introduced a third on board, whoſe name was Koah. He was repreſented as a prieſt, and one who, in his early days, had diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a warrior. He was a little, old, emaciated figure, having ſore red eyes, and his body covered with a leprous ſcurf, occaſioned by the immoderate uſe of the ava. Being conducted to the cabin, he approached the commodore with the greateſt deference, threw a piece of red cloth over his ſhoulders, and retreating a few paces, made an offering of a ſmall pig, at the ſame time pronouncing a diſcourſe of a conſiderable length.

During their continuance at Owhyhee, this ceremony was repeated often, and, from a variety of circumſtances, it ſeemed to be a kind of religious adoration. Red cloth is an article with which their idols are arrayed: and a pig is a common offering to the Eatooas. Their ſpeeches were delivered with a volubility that indicated them to be conformable to ſome ritual.

At the concluſion of this ceremony, Koah dined with the commodore, and ate plentifully of the viands before him; but, like moſt of the iſlanders in thoſe ſeas, he could hardly be induced to taſte wine or ſpirits a ſecond time. In the evening, the commodore went on ſhore. As ſoon as they landed on the beach, they were preceded by four men, bearing each a wand tipt with dog's hair, and pronouncing, with a loud voice, a ſhort ſentence, in which the word Orono was very diſtinguiſhable. The crowd aſſembled on the ſhore, retired at their approach; and not an individual was to be ſeen, except a few who had

proſtrated

proſtrated themſelves on the ground, near the habitations of the adjacent village. Here it may be proper to obſerve, that Orono, which was captain Cook's general appellation among the natives of Owhyhee, was ſometimes applied by them to an inviſible being inhabiting heaven. It was alſo a title of great rank in the iſland.

Though we have already mentioned ſeveral morais appertaining to different iſlands of the South-Seas, that of Owhyhee is ſo ſingular in its conſtruction, and ſo peculiar in its ceremonies, that we ſhall here deſcribe it.

This morai conſiſted of a ſquare ſolid pile of ſtones, of the length of forty yards, the breadth of twenty, and the height of fourteen. The top of it was flat, and a wooden rail ſurrounded it, on which were diſplayed the ſkulls of thoſe natives who had been ſacrificed on the deaths of their chiefs. A ruinous wooden building was ſituated in the centre of the area, connected with the rail by a ſtone wall, dividing the whole ſpace into two parts. Five poles, of about twenty feet in height, ſupported an irregular kind of ſcaffold, on the ſide next the country; and, on the ſide towards the ſea, were two ſmall houſes, with a covered communication.

Captain Cook, accompanied by a party of gentlemen, was conducted to the ſummit of this pile by Koah, one of the chiefs before-mentioned. They beheld, at their entrance, two large wooden images, with moſt diſtorted features, having a long piece of wood proceeding from the top of their heads, of a conical form inverted: the other parts were covered with red cloth. Here captain Cook was received by a tall young man, having a long beard, who preſented him to the images, and chanted a kind of hymn, in which he was aſſiſted by Koah. The party were then led to that ſide of the morai where the poles were erected, at the foot of which twelve images were ranged in the form of a ſemicircle; the middle figure having a high table before it, on which was a putrid hog, and under it ſome cocoa-nuts, plantains, potatoes, bread-fruit, and pieces of ſugar-cane. The commodore was conducted under this ſtand by Koah, who, taking down the hog, held it towards him, when, having again addreſſed him in a long and vehement ſpeech, he ſuffered it to fall upon the ground, and aſcended the ſcaffolding with him, though at the peril of their falling. Ten men now advanced in ſolemn proceſſion, and entered the top of the morai, bearing a live hog, and a piece of large red cloth of conſiderable dimenſions. Advancing a few paces, they ſtopped, and proſtrated themſelves; and a young man approaching them, received the cloth, and carried it to Koah, who wrapped it round captain Cook, and made him an offering of the hog. The ſituation of their viſitor was truly whimſical. He was aloft, ſwathed in red cloth, and hardly able to keep his hold in the rotten ſcaffolding. He was entertained, however, with the chanting of Koah and Kaireekeea, ſometimes in concert, and ſometimes alternately.

After this office was performed, which was of conſiderable duration, Koah let the hog drop, and he and his gueſt immediately deſcended. He then conducted him to the images, to each of which he expreſſed himſelf in a ſneering tone, ſnapping his fingers at them as he paſſed. He then preſented him to that in the centre, which, from its being habited in red cloth, appeared to be in the higheſt eſtimation. He fell proſtrate before this figure, and kiſſed it, requeſting captain Cook would do the ſame; which he readily ſubmitted to; being determined to follow Koah's directions throughout the whole of this ceremony. The party were now conveyed into the other diviſion of the morai, where a ſpace, of about twelve feet ſquare, was ſunk three feet below the level of the area. They deſcended into this, and captain Cook was immediately ſeated between two idols, one of his arms being ſupported by Koah, and an officer was requeſted to ſupport the other. A ſecond proceſſion of natives at this time arrived with a baked hog, a pudding, ſome cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, and other vegetables. As they drew near, Kaireekeea placed himſelf before them, and preſented the hog to the commodore, in the uſual manner, chanting as before, and his companions making regular reſponſes. Their ſpeeches and reſponſes grew gradually ſhorter and ſhorter; and, towards the concluſion, Kaireekeea's did not exceed three or four words, which was anſwered by the word Orono.

The natives, having concluded this offering, ſeated themſelves fronting our people, and began to cut up the baked hog, to break the cocoa-nuts, and to peel the vegetables. Others were employed in brewing the ava, by chewing it in the ſame manner as at the Friendly-Iſlands. Kaireekeea then chewed part of the kernel of a cocoa-nut, and wrapped it in a piece of cloth, with which he rubbed the captain's head, face, hands, arms, and ſhoulders. The ava was afterwards handed round, and when they had all taſted it, Koah and Pareea pulled the fleſh of the hog in pieces, and proceeded to put ſome of it into the mouths of the Engliſh. An officer had no particular objection to being fed by Pareea, who was remarkably cleanly in his perſon; but captain Cook, to whom a piece was preſented by Koah, could not ſwallow a morſel, the putrid hog being ſtrong in his recollection; and the old man having, from motives of civility, chewed it for him, his reluctance was much increaſed by that circumſtance.

When the ceremony was finiſhed, the party quitted the morai, after diſtributing among the populace ſome pieces of iron, and other articles, with which they were much delighted. They were then conducted in proceſſion to the boats, the men attending with wands, and pronouncing ſentences as before. Moſt of the natives again retired, and the remaining few proſtrated themſelves as they paſſed along the ſhore.

Some curioſity being excited by the regular attendance of the prieſts at the morai, the party determined to viſit the habitations of a ſociety of them which they had lately diſcovered. Their huts were erected round a pond encloſed with a grove of cocoa-trees, by which they were ſeparated from the beach and the village, and which gave the ſituation an air of religious retirement. When captain Cook arrived at the beach, he was conducted to Harre-no-Orono, or the houſe of Orono. On his approaching this ſacred place, he was ſeated at the foot of a wooden idol, reſembling thoſe which he had ſeen at the morai.—Here an officer again ſupported one of his arms. He was then arrayed in red cloth, and Kaireekeea, aſſiſted by twelve prieſts, preſented a pig with the uſual ſolemnities. After this ceremony, the pig was ſtrangled, and thrown into the embers of a fire prepared for that purpoſe. When the hair was ſinged off, a ſecond offering was made, and the chanting repeated as before; after which the dead pig was held, for ſome time, under the Captain's noſe, and then laid, with a cocoa-nut, at his feet. This part of the ceremony being concluded, the performers ſat down, and the ava brewed and handed about; a baked hog was brought in, and the party were fed as in the former ceremony. Whenever he went on ſhore, during the continuance of the ſhips in the bay, he was preceded by one of theſe prieſts, who proclaimed the landing of the Orono, and ordered the inhabitants to proſtrate themſelves. He was conſtantly attended by the ſame perſon on the water, where he was ſtationed in the bow of the boat, having a wand in his hand to give notice of his approach to the natives, who were in canoes; on which they inſtantly ceaſed paddling, and fell on their faces till he had paſſed.

That the aſtronomical gentlemen might not be incommoded at the obſervatory on ſhore, by the intru-

ſion of the natives, the place was conſecrated by the prieſts, by placing their wands round the wall by which it was encloſed.

This interdiction was the *taboo* already mentioned. No canoes attempted to land near the ſpot; the natives only ſat on the wall, not daring to come within the tabooed ſpace without obtaining permiſſion. The men, indeed, would bring proviſions into the field, but all endeavours were ineffectual to induce the women to approach. Preſents were tried, but without ſucceſs. Attempts were made to prevail on Pareea and Koah to bring them, but to no purpoſe: the Eatooa and Terreeoboo, they ſaid, would kill them if they did.

This circumſtance afforded great amuſement to the people on board, whither multitudes (particularly women) continually flocked; inſomuch that they were frequently obliged to clear the veſſel, in order to have room to perform their neceſſary duties. Two or three hundred women were ſometimes obliged to jump at once into the water, where they continued to ſwim and play about till they could come on board again.

Not confining themſelves to ſuch civilities, the people of Owhyhee ſupplied their viſitors with hogs and other proviſions, more than ſufficient for ſubſiſtence; and canoes, laden with proviſions, were as regularly ſent off to the ſhips. Nothing was demanded in return, nor was the moſt diſtant hint ever given that any compenſation was expected. Their manner of conferring favours appeared more like the diſcharge of a religious duty than the reſult of mere liberality. All this munificence was at the expence of Kaoo, the chief prieſt, and grandfather to Kaireekeea, who was then in the ſuit of the ſovereign of the iſland.

Some time after the commander's reception at the habitations of the prieſts, the king in a large canoe, with ſome attendants in two others, was ſeen paddling from the village, in great ſtate, towards the ſhips. Their appearance was noble. Terreeoboo and his chiefs were in the firſt canoe, arrayed in feathered cloaks and helmets, and armed with ſpears and daggers. In the ſecond came Kaoo, the chief prieſt, together with his brethren, having their idols diſplayed on red cloth. Theſe idols were figures of an enormous ſize, made of wicker work, and curiouſly ornamented with ſmall feathers of a variety of colours. Their eyes were large pearl-oyſters, with a black nut placed in the centre; a double row of the fangs of dogs was fixed in each of their mouths, which, as well as the reſt of their features, appeared diſtorted. The third canoe was laden with hogs and vegetables. As they advanced, the prieſts, in the ſecond canoe, chanted their hymns with great ſolemnity. After paddling round the veſſels, they did not come on board as was expected, but made immediately towards the ſhore at the beach, where an Engliſh party was ſtationed.

On their approach, the officers of the party ordered the guard to be drawn up in form to receive the king; and captain Cook, ſeeing that he intended to go on ſhore, went thither alſo, and landed almoſt at the ſame inſtant. They were uſhered into the tent, and the king was hardly ſeated, when he roſe up, and gracefully threw over the captain's ſhoulders the rich feathered cloak himſelf had wore, placed an helmet on his head, and preſented him with a curious fan. Five or ſix other cloaks, of great beauty and value, were ſpread at his feet.

Then four hogs were brought forward by the king's attendants, together with bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, and ſugar-canes. Afterwards followed the ceremony of Terreeoboo's changing names with captain Cook, the ſtrongeſt pledge of friendſhip among all the iſlanders of the Pacific-Ocean. A ſolemn proceſſion now advanced, conſiſting of prieſts, preceded by a venerable perſonage, followed by a train of people leading large hogs; others being laden with potatoes, plantains, &c. It was eaſily perceived, by the countenance and geſtures of Kaireekeea, that the old man who headed the proceſſion was the chief prieſt, on whoſe bounty the Engliſh had ſo long ſubſiſted. He wrapped a piece of red cloth round the ſhoulders of captain Cook, as a mark of peculiar reſpect. The officers were not a little ſurpriſed to recognize, in the perſon of the king, an emaciated old man, who had come on board the Reſolution, from the north-eaſt ſide of the iſland of Mowee; and perceived that ſeveral of his attendants were the ſame perſons as before accompanied him.

When the uſual ceremonies of interview had paſſed, captain Cook conducted Terreeoboo, and ſeveral of his chiefs, on board the Reſolution. They were received with every poſſible attention and reſpect; and the commodore put a linen ſhirt upon the ſovereign, and girt his own hanger round him. Kaoo, and about half a dozen other ancient chiefs, remained on ſhore.

During all this time, not a canoe was permitted to appear in the bay, and thoſe natives who did not confine themſelves to their huts, lay proſtrate on the ground. Before the king quitted the Reſolution, he granted leave for the natives to trade with the ſhips as uſual, except the women, who were prohibited from this privilege.

CHAP. XXIII.

Friendly Behaviour of the People of Owhyhee. Their Prieſts and Ceremonies. Their Opinion of ther Viſitors. Preſents from their King Terreeboo. Ships depart, but are obliged to return.

SUCH confidence was placed in the natives here by our people, that the officers, &c. frequently made excurſions up the country, either ſingly, or in ſmall parties, and even ventured to continue out the whole night. Indeed, it would be endleſs to relate all the inſtances of generoſity they received upon theſe occaſions.

The people flocked about them every where, anxious to afford every aſſiſtance in their power, and appeared highly gratified, if they condeſcended to accept of their ſervices. Variety of innocent arts were practiſed to attract their notice, or to delay their departure. The boys and girls ran through their villages before them, ſtopping at every opening, where there was a commodious place to form a group for dancing. They were at one time ſolicited to take a draught of the milk of cocoa-nuts, or accept of ſuch other refreſhment as their huts afforded: at another, they were encircled by a company of young women, who exerted their ſkill and agility in amuſing them with ſongs and dances. The more agreeable the natives rendered themſelves to our people, by their inſtances of hoſpitality, the greater was their diſguſt and concern, at finding them prone to theft, the general vice of the iſlanders of theſe ſeas. This was a diſtreſſing circumſtance, and ſometimes obliged them to exerciſe ſeverity, which they would have been happy to have avoided, if it had not been eſſentially neceſſary. Some expert ſwimmers were one day detetected under the ſhip, drawing out the nails from the ſheathing, which they ingeniouſly performed with a flint ſtone, faſtened to the end of a ſhort ſtick. This practice was ſo injurious to the veſſels, that our people fired ſmall ſhot at the offenders: but that they eaſily evaded, by diving to the bottoms of the ſhips. It therefore became highly neceſſary to make an example of one of them, by flogging him on board the ſhip.

At this time an excurſion into the country, by a large party from both ſhips, afforded Kaoo a freſh

opportunity

opportunity of exerciſing his civility and generoſity. No ſooner was he informed of their departure, than he ſent after them a large quantity of proviſions, with orders, that every attention and aſſiſtance ſhould be granted them by the inhabitants of thoſe diſtricts through which they were to paſs. His conduct, on this occaſion, was ſo delicate and diſintereſted, that even the people he employed were not permitted to accept of the ſmalleſt preſent. At the end of ſix days the party returned, without having penetrated more than twenty miles into the iſland.

The natives preſented their viſitors with the exhibition of a boxing-match. Though theſe games were inferior, in every reſpect, to thoſe they had ſeen exhibited at the Friendly-Iſlands, yet, as they were ſomewhat different, we ſhall here give a ſhort account of them.

A vaſt concourſe of people aſſembled on an even ſpot of ground, not far diſtant from the tents. A long vacant ſpace was left in the centre of them, at the upper end of which the judges preſided, under three ſtandards. Slips of cloth, of various colours, were pendent from them; as were the ſkins of two wild geeſe, ſome ſmall birds, and a few bunches of feathers.

The neceſſary preparations being made, the judges gave the ſignal, and two combatants appeared in view. They advanced ſlowly, drawing up their feet very high behind, and, rubbing their hands upon the ſoles. As they came forward, they frequently ſurveyed each other from head to foot, with an air of contempt, looking archly at the ſpectators, diſtorting their features, and practiſing a variety of unnatural geſtures. When they were advanced within the reach of each other, they held both arms ſtraight out before their faces, at which part they always aimed their blows. They ſtruck with a full ſwing of the arm: did not attempt to parry, but endeavoured to elude their adverſary's attack, be ſtooping or retreating. The battle was expeditiouſly decided; for if either of them fell, whether by accident, or a blow, he was deemed vanquiſhed; and the victor expreſſed his triumph by a variety of ſtrange geſtures, which uſually excited a loud laugh among the ſpectators, for which purpoſe it ſeemed to be calculated. The ſucceſsful combatant waited for a ſecond antagoniſt; and, if again victorious, for a third; and ſo on, till he was at laſt defeated.

When any two of theſe champions were preparing to attack each other, a third might advance, and make choice of either of them for his antagoniſt, when the other was under the neceſſity of withdrawing. If the combat proved long and tedious, or appeared unequal, a chief generally interfered, and concluded it by putting a ſtick between the combatants. As this exhibition was at the deſire of our people, it was expected that ſome of them would have engaged with the natives; but though they received preſſing invitations to bear a part, they did not hearken to the challenges, not having forgot ſome blows they received at the Friendly-Iſlands.

At this time, the death of William Whatman, a ſeaman of the gunner's crew, is particularly mentioned. He was a man in years, and much reſpected for his attachment to captain Cook. He had ſerved twenty-one years as a marine, and then entered as a ſeaman in 1772, on board the Reſolution, and ſerved with the commodore in his voyage towards the ſouth pole. On their return, he got admittance into Greenwich-Hoſpital, through the intereſt of captain Cook, at the ſame time with himſelf; and, anxious to follow the fortunes of his benefactor, he alſo quitted it with him, on his appointment to the command of the preſent expedition. He had been often ſubject to ſlight fevers in the courſe of the voyage, and was infirm when the ſhips arrived in the bay; where having been ſent a few days on ſhore, he thought himſelf perfectly reſtored, and requeſted to return on board. His requeſt was complied with; but the day following he had a ſtroke of the palſy, which, in two days afterwards, put a period to his life.

As an additional inſtance of reſpect to his viſitors, Terreeoboo cauſed the remains of this honeſt ſeaman to be buried in the morai, with great ſolemnity. Kaoo and his brethren were preſent at the funeral; they behaved with great decorum, and paid due attention while the ſervice was performing. On our people beginning to fill up the grave, they approached it with great awe, and threw in a dead pig, together with ſome cocoa-nuts and plantains. For three ſucceſſive nights they ſurrounded it, ſacrificing hogs, and reciting hymns and prayers till morning. A poſt was erected at the head of the grave, and a piece of board nailed thereon, on which was inſcribed the name and age of the deceaſed, and the day of his departure from this life. Theſe the natives aſſured them they would not remove; and they will probably he permitted to remain, ſo long as ſuch frail materials can endure.

The ſhips being in want of fuel, captain Cook deſired lieutenant King to treat with the prieſts for the purchaſe of the rail on the morai. Mr. King had his doubts about the decency of this overture, and apprehended that the bare mention of it might be deemed impious; but in this he was exceedingly miſtaken. They expreſſed no kind of ſurpriſe at the application, and the wood was delivered without the leaſt ſtipulation. They were indeed ſo little affected by the circumſtance, that they even aſſiſted in the removal. When the particulars were mentioned to Kaoo, he ſeemed indifferent about the matter, deſiring only the reſtoration of the centre image, which being immediately complied with, it was conveyed to one of the prieſt's houſes.

As the chiefs of the iſland had frequently expreſſed an importunate deſire to know the preciſe time fixed for the departure of the Engliſh, a curioſity was excited in the minds of the ſpeculative part of them, to learn the opinion entertained by the iſlanders, relative to them and the objects of their viſit. The only information that could be obtained was, that they ſuppoſed our people had left their native country on account of the ſcantineſs of proviſions, and had viſited them for the ſole purpoſe of filling their bellies. This concluſion was natural enough, conſidering the meagre appearance of ſome of the crew, the voracity with which they devoured their freſh proviſions, and their anxiety to purchaſe as much of it as poſſible. One circumſtance may be added to theſe, which puzzled them exceedingly, namely, that of our people having no women with them. The natives would often pat the bellies of the ſailors (who were much improved in ſleekneſs after their arrival at the bay) and telling them, in the beſt manner they could, that it was time for them to depart; but if they would return the next bread-fruit ſeaſon, they ſhould be better able to ſupply them. They had now continued ſixteen days in the bay, during which time the conſumption of hogs and vegetables had been ſo enormous, that our people could not be ſurpriſed at their wiſhing to ſee them take their leave. However, it appeared that Terreeoboo had no other view in his inquiries, than a deſire of having ſufficient notice, to prepare ſuitable preſents for them at their departure: for when he was informed of their intention to quit the iſland in two days, a kind of proclamation was immediately made, requiring the natives to bring in their hogs and vegetables, for the king to preſent to the Orono.

A droll genius among them exhibited a variety of tricks for the entertainment of our people on ſhore. In his hand he held an inſtrument of muſic; bits of ſea-weed were faſtened round his neck; and, round each leg, ſome ſtrong netting; on which were fixed ſome rows of dogs teeth, hanging looſe. His dancing was accompanied with ſtrange grimaces, and unnatural

unnatural diſtortions of the features. which, though ſometimes highly ridiculous, were, upon the whole, without meaning or expreſſion. This diverſion was cloſed with wreſtling and boxing matches: and our people, in return, exhibited the few fire-works they had remaining. Nothing could more effectually excite the admiration of theſe iſlanders, or ſtrike them with more exalted ideas of the ſuperiority of their viſitors, than ſuch a repreſentation. Though this was, in every reſpect, much inferior to that at Hapaee, yet the aſtoniſhment of the people was equally great.

Before the departure of the ſhips from the iſland, the time of which was now fixed on, Terreeoboo invited the commodore, principal officers, &c. to attend him to Kaoo's reſidence. On their arrival there, they ſaw large quantities of cloth lie ſcattered on the ground; abundance of red and yellow feathers faſtened to the fibres of cocoa-nut huſks; and plenty of hatchets and iron ware, which had been received in barter. Not far from theſe was depoſited an immenſe quantity of various kinds of vegetables; and, at a little diſtance, a large herd of hogs. It was ſuppoſed, at firſt, that the whole was intended as a preſent for them, till they were informed by Kaireekea, that it was a tribute to the king, from the inhabitants of that diſtrict. The gueſts were no ſooner ſeated, than the bundles were brought, and laid ſeverally at Terreeoboo's feet; and the cloth, feathers, and iron, were diſplayed before him.

The king expreſſed the higheſt degree of ſatisfaction at this mark of duty and affection from his ſubjects; and having cauſed about a third of the iron utenſils, and ſome pieces of cloth to be ſelected, ordered theſe to be ſet aſide by themſelves; and the remainder of the cloth, hogs, vegetables, &c. were afterwards preſented to captain Cook. The whole of this welcome preſent was immediately conveyed on board. The large hogs were ſelected, in order to be ſalted for ſea ſtore; but the ſmaller pigs, and the vegetables, were divided between the crews. Lieutenant King being the laſt on ſhore, and waiting for the return of the boat, the inhabitants crowded about him, and having prevailed on him to ſit down among them, expreſſed their regret at his ſeparation from them. It was even with difficulty that they would ſuffer him to depart. He was, indeed, highly eſteemed among them, as will appear from the following relation. Having had, while the ſhips were in the bay, the command of the party on ſhore, he became more acquainted with the natives, and they with him, than thoſe who were required to be on board. He experienced great kindneſs and civility from the inhabitants in general; but the friendſhip ſhewn by the prieſts was conſtant and unbounded.

Being anxious to conciliate their eſteem, he ſo happily ſucceeded, that when they were acquainted with the time of his departure, he was urged to remain behind, and received overtures of the moſt flattering kind. When he endeavoured to excuſe himſelf, by alleging, that captain Cook would not permit it, they propoſed to conduct him to the mountains, and there conceal him till the departure of the ſhips. On further aſſurance that the captain would not ſail without him, the king and Kaoo repaired to captain Cook (whom they ſuppoſed to be his father) formally requeſting that he might be ſuffered to remain behind. The commodore, unwilling to give an abſolute refuſal to a propoſal ſo generouſly intended, he aſſured them, that he could not then part with him; but he ſhould return thither the next year, when he would endeavour to oblige them. The ſhips at length unmoored and ſailed out of the bay, attended by a vaſt number of canoes. It was captain Cook's intention to finiſh the ſurvey of Owhyhee, before he went to the other iſlands, hoping to meet with a road more ſheltered than Karakakooa-Bay; and if he ſhould not ſucceed here, he meant to examine the ſouth-eaſt part of Mowee, where he had been informed, there was an excellent harbour.

The people on board, in their progreſs to the north-ward, obſerved two men in a canoe paddling towards them. They naturally conjectured that they had been driven off the ſhore by ſtreſs of weather, and ſtopped the ſhip's way, in order to take them in. They were ſo exhauſted with fatigue, that had not one of the natives on board jumped into the canoe to their aſſiſtance, they would hardly have been able to fix it to the rope thrown out for that purpoſe. With difficulty, however, they were got up the ſhip's ſide, together with a child about four years of age, which had been laſhed under the thwarts of the canoe, with only its head above the water. They informed their deliverers, that they had quitted the land the morning before, ſince which time they had no food or water. Proviſion was given them with proper precautions, and the child intruſted to the care of one of the women on board; and the next morning they were all perfectly recovered.

The Reſolution having received very eſſential damage in a gale of wind, inſomuch as totally to obſtruct her further progreſs, captain Cook for ſome time heſitated whether he ſhould return to Karakakooa, or take the chance of finding a harbour in the iſlands to leeward. The bay was not ſo commodious, but that a better might probably be met with, either for repairing the maſts, or procuring refreſhments; the latter of which, it was imagined, the neighbourhood of Karakakooa had lately been pretty well drained of. It was, on the other hand, conſidered as an imprudent ſtep, to leave a tolerable good harbour, which, once loſt, could not be regained, for the mere poſſibility of meeting with a better; eſpecially as the failure of ſuch a contingency might have deprived them of any reſource. Therefore concluding at length to return, the ſhips ſtood in for the bay, and, upon arrival, came to anchor in their former ſtation.

Alteration in the Behaviour of the Iſlanders. A Theft and its Conſequences. The Engliſh attacked. Freſh Jealouſies and Animoſity. Attempt to ſecure the Perſon of the King. Failure. An inſolent Chief ſhot by Captain Cook. General Attack, which ends with the Death of that gallant Commander.

THE Engliſh were beyond meaſure aſtoniſhed at their reception, on coming to anchor in Karakakooa-Bay a ſecond time. No ſhouts, buſtle, or confuſion, but a ſolitary bay, with hardly a canoe ſtirring was obſerved. The curioſity of the natives, indeed, might be ſuppoſed to be diminiſhed by this time: but the hoſpitable treatment the Engliſh had continually been favoured with, and the friendly footing on which they parted, induced them to expect that, on their return, they would have received them with the greateſt demonſtrations of joy.

The cauſe of this ſtrange appearance was thus explained by the return of a boat, which had been ſent on ſhore. That Terreeoboo was abſent, and that the bay was *tabooed*. This account appeared very ſatisfactory to many; but others were of opinion that there was, at this time, ſomething very dubious in the behaviour of the natives; and that the *taboo*, or interdiction, on pretence of Terreeoboo's abſence, was artfully contrived, to give him time to conſult his chiefs in what manner they ſhould be treated. They never could aſcertain whether theſe ſuſpicions were well founded, or whether the natives had given a true account. A cauſe of ſuſpicion might alſo ariſe from the following circumſtance. A native having ſold a hog on board the Reſolution, and received the price agreed on, Pareea, who ſaw the tranſaction, adviſed the ſeller not to part with his hog, without an advanced price. For his interfer-

ence

ence in this buſineſs, he was harſhly ſpoken to, and puſhed away: and as the *taboo* was ſoon laid on the bay, it was at firſt ſuppoſed to be in conſequence of the affront offered to the chief. Theſe two cauſes conſidered, it was extremely difficult to draw any certain concluſions. Lieutenant King alſo received information that ſeveral chiefs were aſſembled near the beach, and were driving away the natives, who aſſiſted the ſailors in rolling the caſks to the ſhore; that their behaviour ſeemed exceedingly ſuſpicious, and liable to raiſe further diſturbance. The lieutenant ſent a marine with the officer who brought the intelligence, agreeable to his requeſt, but permitted him to take only his ſide-arms. The officer in a ſhort time returned, and informed Mr. King that the inhabitants had armed themſelves with ſtones, and were become tumultuous. He therefore went himſelf to the ſpot, attended by a marine with his muſket. At their approach the iſlanders threw away their ſtones; and on Mr. King's application to ſome of the chiefs, the mob was diſperſed. Every thing being now quiet, Mr. King went to meet captain Cook, who was then coming on ſhore in the pinnace. He related to him what had recently happened; and received orders to fire a ball at the offenders, if they again behaved inſolently, and began to throw ſtones. In conſequence of theſe directions, Mr. King gave orders to the corporal, that the centinels pieces ſhould be loaded with ball, inſtead of ſhot. A continued fire of muſkets being heard from the Diſcovery, and perceived to be directed at a canoe which was haſtening towards the ſhore, with one of the ſmall boats in purſuit of it, this firing, it was concluded, was in conſequence of a theft. Captain Cook, therefore, ordered Mr. King to follow him with a marine armed, and to endeavour to ſeize the people as they landed. They accordingly ran to the place where the canoe was expected to come aſhore, but did not arrive in time; the people having quitted it, and fled into the country before they came up. Being wholly ignorant, at this time, that the goods had been already reſtored, and thinking it probable, from what they had obſerved, that they might be of importance, they did not chooſe to relinquiſh their endeavours to recover them; and having inquired of the natives what courſe the people had taken, they purſued them till it was almoſt dark, when they ſuppoſed themſelves to be about three miles from the tents; and thinking the iſlanders amuſed them with falſe information in their purſuit, gave up the ſearch, and returned. An incident occurred during their abſence, that occaſioned a difference of a very ſerious nature. The officer who had been diſpatched in the ſmall boat after the thieves, and who was returning on board with the booty that had been reſtored, ſeeing captain Cook and Mr. King engaged in the purſuit of the offenders, ſeized a canoe which was drawn up on the ſhore. This canoe unfortunately belonged to Pareea, who, at that inſtant arriving from on board the Diſcovery, claimed his property, and proteſted his innocence. The officer perſiſted in detaining it, in which he was encouraged by the crew of the pinnace, then waiting for captain Cook; in conſequence of which a ſcuffle enſued, and Pareea was knocked down by a violent blow on the head with an oar. Several of the natives, who had hitherto been peaceable ſpectators, began now to attack our people with a ſhower of ſtones, ſo that they were forced to a precipitate retreat, and ſwam off to a rock at a conſiderable diſtance from the ſhore. The pinnace was plundered immediately by the natives, and would have been entirely demoliſhed, if Pareea had not interpoſed.

On hearing theſe circumſtances, captain Cook expreſſed the greateſt concern, and diſcovered ſome apprehenſions, that the iſlanders would oblige him to purſue violent meaſures; adding, they muſt not be permitted to ſuppoſe that they had gained an advantage. It was, however, too late to take any ſteps that evening: he therefore only gave orders that every iſlander ſhould be immediately turned out of the ſhip. This order being executed, lieutenant King returned on ſhore; and the events of the day having much abated former confidence in the natives, a double guard was poſted on the morai, with orders to let Mr. King know, if any men were lurking about the beach. At eleven o'clock, five of the natives were ſeen creeping round the bottom of the morai: they approached with great caution, and, at laſt, perceiving they were diſcovered, immediately retired out of ſight. About midnight one of them ventured himſelf near the obſervatory, when a centinel fired over him, on which they all fled; and there was no further diſturbance during the remainder of the night. Next morning Mr. King received information that the Diſcovery's cutter had, ſome time in the night, been ſtolen from the buoy where it had been moored.

Going on board the Reſolution, he found the marines were arming themſelves, and captain Cook buſied in loading his double-barrelled gun. Whilſt he was acquainting him with what had happened in the night at the morai, he eagerly interrupted him, informing him that he had received intelligence of the loſs, and was making preparations to recover it.

It was his uſual practice, in all the iſlands of this ocean, when any thing of conſequence had been ſtolen from him, by ſome ſtratagem, to get the king, or ſome of the principal Erees, on board, where he detained them as hoſtages, till the property was reſtored. This method having hitherto proved ſucceſsful, he meant to adopt it on the preſent occaſion; and gave orders to ſtop every canoe that ſhould attempt to leave the bay; reſolving to ſeize and deſtroy them, if the cutter could not be recovered by peaceable means. Purſuant to this order, the boats of the ſhips, properly manned and armed, were ſtationed acroſs the bay; and, before Mr. King quitted the ſhip, ſome great guns were fired at two canoes, that were attempting to eſcape.

Captain Cook and Mr. King quitted the ſhip together: the former in the pinnace, with Mr. Phillips, lieutenant of marines, and nine privates; and the latter in the ſmall boat. The laſt orders Mr. King received from captain Cook were, to quiet the minds of the natives on that ſide the bay where our people were ſtationed, by the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that they ſhould not be injured; to keep his people together, and to be continually on his guard. Captain Cook and Mr. King then ſeparated; the captain going towards Kowrowa, where Terreeoboo reſided, while Mr. King proceeded to the beach. His firſt buſineſs, when he arived on ſhore, was, to iſſue ſtrict orders to the marines to continue within the tent, to charge their muſkets with ball, and not, on any conſideration, to quit their arms. He then attended old Kaoo and the prieſts at their reſpective huts, and explained to them, as well as he was able, the reaſon of the hoſtile preparations which had ſo exceedingly alarmed them. He found they were no ſtrangers to the circumſtance of the cutter's being ſtolen, and aſſured them, that though the commodore was not only reſolved to recover it, but alſo to puniſh, in the moſt exemplary manner, the authors of the theft, yet that they, and all the inhabitants of the village, on that ſide, had not the leaſt occaſion to be alarmed, or to apprehend the leaſt danger. He importuned the prieſts to communicate this to the people, and entreat them not to entertain an idea of fear, but to continue peaceable and quiet. Kaoo demanded of Mr. King, with great emotion, if any harm was to happen to Terreeoboo? He aſſured him there was not; and both he and his brethren appeared much ſatisfied with this aſſurance.

Captain Cook, having landed at Kowrowa, with the lieutenant and nine marines, he proceeded immediately into the village, where he was reſpectfully received; the people, as uſual, proſtrating themſelves before him, and making their accuſtomed offerings of ſmall hogs. Perceiving that his deſign was not ſuſpected, his next ſtep was to inquire for the king and the two boys, his ſons, who had been almoſt continually his gueſts on board the Reſolution. The boys preſently returned with the natives, who had been ſearching for them, and immediately conducted captain Cook to the habitation where Terreeoboo had ſlept. The old man had juſt awoke; and after ſome converſation reſpecting the loſs of the cutter, from which the commodore was convinced that he was not in any wiſe privy to it, he invited him to accompany him, and ſpend the day on board the Reſolution. The king accepted the invitation, and aroſe immediately to accompany him. The two boys were already in the pinnace, and the reſt of the party approaching the water-ſide, when a woman, named Kanee-Karabeea, the mother of the boys, and one of Terreeoboo's favourite wives, followed him, beſeeching him, with tears and entreaties, not to go on board. Two chiefs, who came with her, took hold of him, and, inſiſting he ſhould proceed no further, obliged him to ſit down. The iſlanders, now collecting in vaſt numbers along the ſhore, who had probably been alarmed by the diſcharging of the great guns, and the hoſtile appearances in the bay, gathered together round captain Cook and Terreeoboo. Thus ſituated, the lieutenant of marines, perceiving that his men were huddled together in the crowd, and conſequently unable to uſe their arms, if there ſhould appear to be a neceſſity for it, propoſed to captain Cook, to draw them up along the rocks, cloſe to the edge of the water. The populace making way for them to paſs, the lieutenant drew them up in a line, within about thirty yards of the place where Terreeoboo was ſitting.

The old king continued, all this time, on the ground, bearing the moſt viſible marks of terror and dejection in his countenance. Captain Cook, unwilling to abandon the object which occaſioned him to come on ſhore, urged him moſt earneſtly to proceed; whilſt, on the other hand, whenever the king expreſſed any inclination to follow him, the chiefs who ſurrounded him interpoſed: at firſt they had recourſe to prayers and entreaties, but afterwards to force and violence, and even inſiſted on his remaining on ſhore. Captain Cook, at length, perceiving the alarm had ſpread too generally, and that there was not a probability of getting him off without bloodſhed, gave up the point, obſerving, that to compel him to go on board would probably occaſion the loſs of many of the lives of the inhabitants.

Though this enterpriſe had now failed, and was abandoned by captain Cook, yet it did not appear that his perſon was in the leaſt degree of danger, till an accident happened, which occaſioned a fatal turn to the affair. The boats, ſtationed acroſs the bay, having fired at ſome canoes for attempting to get out, unfortunately had killed one of their principal chiefs. Intelligence of his death arrived at the village where captain Cook then was, juſt as he had parted from the king, and was proceeding with great deliberation towards the ſhore. The ferment it immediately occaſioned was but too conſpicuous; the women and children were inſtantly ſent away, and the men were ſoon clad in their war-mats, and armed with ſpears and ſtones.

One of the natives having provided himſelf with a ſtone, and a long iron ſpike (called by the natives a *pahooa)* advanced towards the captain, flouriſhing his weapon in defiance, and threatening to throw the ſtone. The captain requeſted him to deſiſt; but the iſlander repeating his menaces, he was highly provoked and fired a load of ſmall ſhot at him. The man was defended by his war-mat, which the ſhot could not penetrate; his firing, therefore, ſerved only to irritate and encourage them. Vollies of ſtones were thrown at the marines; and one of the natives attempted the life of one of our people with his pahooa, but not ſucceeding in the attempt, he received from him a blow with the butt-end of his piece. Captain Cook immediately diſcharged his ſecond barrel loaded with ball, and killed one of the aſſailants. A general attack with ſtones ſucceeded, which was followed on the part of our people by a diſcharge of muſquetry, not only from the marines, but thoſe in the boats. The natives received the fire with great firmneſs; and without giving time for the marines to charge again, they ruſhed in upon them with dreadful ſhouts and yells. What followed was a ſcene of horror and confuſion.

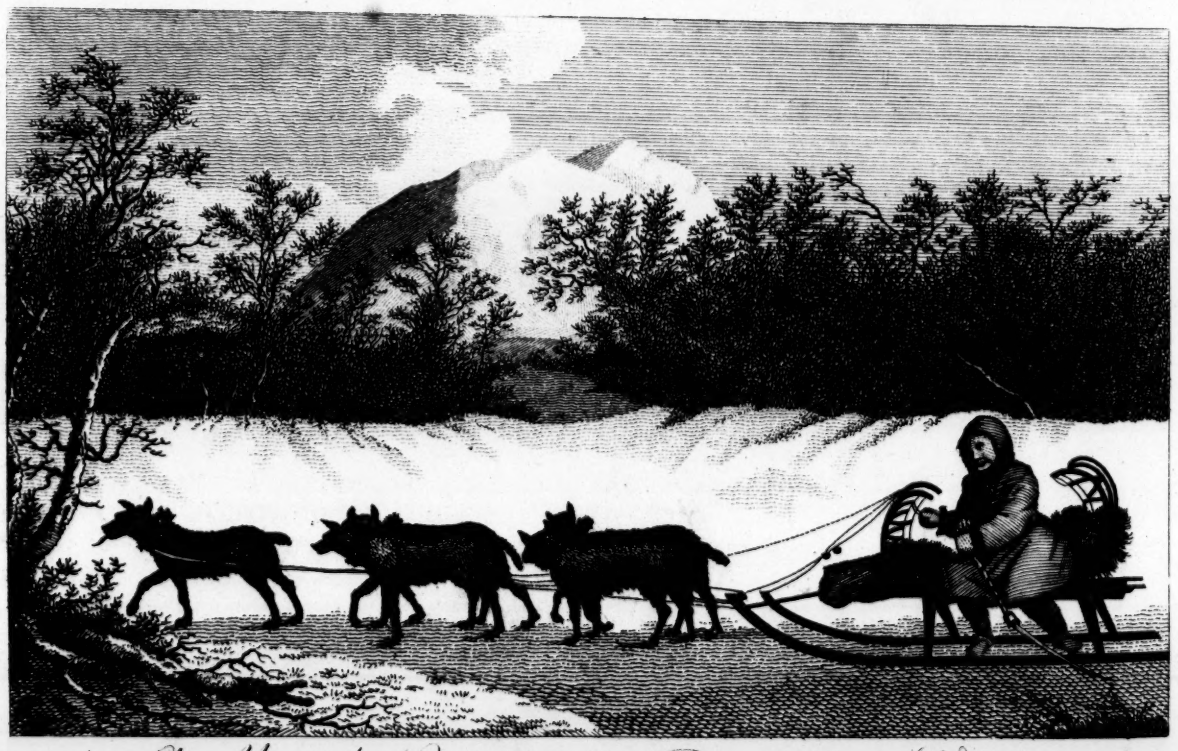
Four of the marines retreated among the rocks, and fell a ſacrifice to the fury of the enemy; three others were dangerouſly wounded; and the lieutenant ſtabbed between the ſhoulders, but having reſerved his fire, he ſhot the man from whom he had received the wound at the inſtant he was preparing to repeat the blow. The laſt time the unfortunate commander was diſtinctly ſeen, he was ſtanding at the water's edge, ordering the boats to ceaſe firing and pull in. Such as were preſent ſuppoſed that the marines, and thoſe who were in the boats, fired without captain Cook's orders, and that he was anxious to prevent the further effuſion of blood: it is therefore probable, that on this occaſion his humanity proved fatal to him; for it was obſerved, that while he faced the natives he was not endangered, but when he turned about to give directions to the boats, he was ſtabbed in the back, and fell with his face into the water. A general ſhout was ſet up by the iſlanders on ſeeing him fall, and his body was dragged inhumanly on ſhore, where he was ſurrounded by the enemy, who, ſnatching the dagger from each others hands, diſplayed a ſavage eagerneſs to join in his deſtruction.

Thus ended the life of the greateſt navigator that this or any other nation ever could boaſt, after having ſucceſsfully led his crews of gallant Britiſh ſeamen thrice round the world; reduced to a certainty the non-exiſtence of a ſouthern continent, concerning which the learned of all nations were in doubt; ſettled the boundaries of the earth and ſea, and ſhewn impracticability of a north-weſt paſſage from the Atlantic to the Great Southern-Ocean, for which our ableſt navigators had contended, and in purſuit of which vaſt ſums had been expended in vain, and many valuable mariners had unfortunately periſhed.

Captain Cook raiſed himſelf ſolely by his merit from a very obſcure birth to the rank of poſt-captain in the Royal-Navy. He poſſeſſed, in an eminent degree, all the qualifications requiſite for his profeſſion and great undertakings. Deliberate in judging; ſagacious in determining; active in executing; unſubdued by labour, difficulties, and diſappointments; fertile in expedients, never wanting preſence of mind, but ever poſſeſſing the full uſe of a ſound underſtanding. In diſcipline, though mild and juſt, he was exact: he was a father to his people, who were attached to him from affection, and obedient from confidence. By his benevolent and unabated attention to the welfare of his ſhip's company, he diſcovered and introduced a ſyſtem for the preſervation of the healths of ſeamen, which has proved wonderfully efficacious. With a company of 118 perſons he performed his ſecond voyage, and but one of theſe died of a diſeaſe. That ſpirit of humanity and juſtice with which he treated the ſavages wherever he found them, when oppoſed to the ferocious and inhuman conduct of the firſt conquerors in the New World, does honour to his age and country, and will hand him down with reverence to poſterity. Nor was his humanity leſs conſpicuous in his endeavours to civilize the natives of thoſe remote regions,

and

Death of Captain Cooke.



A Man of Kamtschatka Travelling in Winter.

and to introduce ſome of our moſt uſeful animals, vegetables, and grain among them.

CHAP. XXIV.

Further Tranſactions after Captain Cook's Death. Peace reſtored. His Remains interred. The Ships depart from Owhyhee. Supplementary Obſervations on the Country, &c.

FOUR of the marines, as we have already mentioned, being killed on the ſpot, the reſt, with the lieutenant, threw themſelves into the water, and made their eſcape under cover of a ſmart fire from the boats. On this occaſion a ſtriking inſtance of gallant behaviour, and of affection for his men, was diſplayed by the lieutenant; for he had ſcarcely got into the boat, when, ſeeing one of the marines, who was a bad ſwimmer, ſtruggling in the water, and in danger of being taken by the iſlanders, he inſtantly leaped into the ſea to his aſſiſtance, though conſiderably wounded himſelf; and after receiving a blow on his head from a ſtone, which had almoſt ſent him to the bottom, he caught the man by the hair, and brought him off in ſafety.

For ſome time the Engliſh kept up a conſtant fire from the boats (which, during the whole tranſaction, were at no greater diſtance from the land than twenty yards) in order to afford their unfortunate companions, if any of them ſhould ſtill remain alive, an opportunity of effecting their eſcape. Theſe continued efforts, ſeconded by a few guns, that were at the ſame time fired from the Reſolution, having at length compelled the enemy to retire, a ſmall boat, manned by five midſhipmen, pulled towards the ſhore, where they perceived the bodies lying on the ground without any ſigns of life. However, they judged it dangerous to attempt to bring them off with ſo inconſiderable a force, and therefore returned to the ſhips, leaving the bodies, together with ten ſtands of arms, in the natives poſſeſſion.

When the general conſternation, conſequent on the news of the late melancholy event, had, in ſome degree, ſubſided, the grand object of attention was the party of our people at the morai, whoſe ſituation was highly critical and important. Beſides the lives of the men, the iſſue of the expedition, and the return of at leaſt one of the ſhips, were involved in the ſame common danger, as the maſt of the Reſolution, and the principal part of the ſails, were on ſhore guarded by only ſix marines.

Lieutenant King ſtationed the whole body of marines on the top of the morai, which formed a ſtrong and advantageous poſt; and having intruſted it to the command of an officer, he went on board the Diſcovery, in order to confer with captain Clerke on the critical ſituation of affairs. The natives at firſt attacked the Engliſh with ſtones from behind the walls of their enclоſures, and meeting with no reſiſtance, they ſoon became more daring. A few courageous fellows, having crept along the beach, under cover of the rocks, ſuddenly preſented themſelves at the foot of the morai, with an intention of ſtorming it on the ſide next the ſea, which was its only acceſſible part; and they were not diſlodged before they had ſtood a conſiderable quantity of ſhot, and had ſeen one of their number fall. The courage of one of theſe aſſailants deſerves to be recorded. Having returned with a view of carrying off his companion, amidſt the fire of our whole party, he received a wound, which obliged him to quit the body, and retire; but a few minutes after he again made his appearance, and receiving another wound, was under the neceſſity of retreating a ſecond time. At that moment Mr. King arrived at the morai, and ſaw this man return a third time, faint with the loſs of blood and fatigue. Being informed of what had happened, he forbad the ſoldiers to fire, and the iſlander was ſuffered to carry off his friend, which he was juſt able to accompliſh, and then fell down himſelf, and died by his ſide. A ſtrong reinforcement having landed from both ſhips, the natives retreated behind the wall, which afforded lieutenant King an opportunity of obtaining a truce, and thereby bringing off with his party, the very eſſential articles that were left on ſhore.

A conſultation having been held on board, reſpecting future meaſures, the recovery of captain Cook's body, and the reſtitution of the boat, were objects univerſally inſiſted on, but different opinions were given as to the mode of effecting the ſame, ſome being for rigorous, and others for lenient meaſures; the latter, however, were at length agreed upon to be adopted.

The chief command of the expedition now devolving on captain Clerke, he went on board the Reſolution, and Mr. Gore took the command of the Diſcovery.

According to meaſures agreed upon at the late conſultation, lieutenant King proceeded towards the ſhore with the boats of both ſhips, well manned and armed, with a view of bringing the iſlanders to a parley, and of obtaining, if poſſible, a conference with ſome of the Erees. If he ſhould ſucceed in this attempt, he was to demand the dead bodies, and particularly that of captain Cook; to threaten them, in caſe of a refuſal, with reſentment; but by no means to fire, unleſs attacked; and not to go on ſhore on any account whatever.

He left the ſhips with his detachment about four o'clock in the afternoon, and, as they approached the ſhore, they perceived every indication of a hoſtile reception. The natives were all in motion; the women aud children retiring; the men arming themſelves with long ſpears and daggers, and putting on their war mats. It alſo appeared, that ſince the morning they had thrown up breaſt-works of ſtone along the beach, where captain Cook had landed, in expectation, perhaps, of an attack at that place.

As ſoon as the party came within reach, the iſlanders began to throw ſtones at them with ſlings, though without doing any miſchief. Mr. King concluded, from theſe appearances, that all attempts to bring them to a parley would be ineffectual, unleſs he gave them ſome ground for mutual confidence. He therefore ordered the armed boats to ſtop, and advanced alone in the ſmall boat, holding in his hand a white flag: the meaning of which, from an univerſal ſhout of joy from the natives, he had the ſatisfaction to find was immediately underſtood. The women inſtantly returned from the ſide of the hill, whither they had retired; the men threw off their mats, and all ſeated themſelves together by the ſea-ſide, extending their arms, and inviting him to land.

Though ſuch behaviour ſeemed expreſſive of a friendly diſpoſition, he could not avoid entertaining ſuſpicions of its ſincerity. But when he ſaw Koah, with extraordinary boldneſs and aſſurance ſwimming off towards the boat, with a white flag in his hand, he thought proper to return this mark of confidence, and accordingly received him into the boat, though he was armed; a circumſtance which did not contribute to leſſen Mr. King's ſuſpicions. He had, indeed, long harboured an unfavourable opinion of Koah; and therefore without ceremony informed him, that he had come to demand the body of captain Cook, and to declare war againſt the natives, unleſs it was reſtored without delay. Koah aſſured him that this ſhould be done as ſoon as poſſible, and that he would go himſelf for that purpoſe; and after requeſting a piece of iron of Mr. King, with marks of great aſſurance, he leaped into the water, and ſwam aſhore, calling out to his countrymen, that all were friends again. Mr. King waited with great anxiety

near

near an hour for his return. During this interval, the other boats had approached ſo near the ſhore, that the men who were in them entered into a converſation with a party of the iſlanders, at a little dinance, by whom they were informed that the captain's body had been cut to pieces and carried up the country.

For ſome time after, there appeared a degree of ambiguity in the conduct of the natives, which raiſed doubts in the minds of our people, as to the event of their preſent operations; till at length one night, it being exceedingly dark, a canoe was heard paddling towards the ſhip, and it was no ſooner perceived, than both the centinels on deck fired into it. There were two of the natives in this canoe, who immediately roared out "*Timæe*" (which was their method of pronouncing Mr. King's name) ſaid they were friends, and had ſomething with them which belonged to captain Cook. When they came on board, they threw themſelves at the feet of the officers, and ſeemed to be extremely terrified. It fortunately happened, that neither of them were hurt, notwithſtanding the balls of both pieces had gone through the canoe.

One of them was the perſon who conſtantly attended captain Cook, with the particular ceremonies before deſcribed. After bewailing, with many tears, the loſs of the Orono, as he called him, he informed the officers that he had brought a part of his body. He then produced a ſmall bundle, which he brought under his arm; and it is impoſſible to deſcribe the horror with which our people were ſeized, upon finding in it a piece of human fleſh, of the weight of about nine or ten pounds. This, he ſaid, was all that now remained of the body; that the reſt had been cut in pieces and burnt; but that the head, and all the bones, except thoſe which belonged to the trunk, were in the poſſeſſion of Terreeoboo, and the other chiefs; that what they had brought had been allotted to Kaoo, the chief of the prieſts, for the purpoſe of being uſed in ſome religious ceremony; and that he had ſent it as a teſtimony of his innocence, and of his attachment to them. Though theſe two friendly viſitants were preſſed by the officers to continue on board till the next morning, they could not be prevailed upon; declaring, that if this tranſaction ſhould come to the knowledge of the king, or any of the Erees, it might be attended with the moſt fatal conſequences to their whole ſociety; to prevent which, they had been under the neceſſity of coming in the dark; and the ſame precaution, they ſaid, would be requiſite in returning on ſhore. They added, that the chiefs were eager to take revenge for the death of their countrymen; and particularly cautioned our people againſt truſting Koah, who, he aſſured them, was their implacable enemy, and ardently longed for an opportunity of fighting. The two natives then took their leave, it being about eleven o'clock at night.

The ſituation of the Engliſh was now extremely unpromiſing; none of the purpoſes for which this pacific plan of proceedings had been adopted, having hitherto been, in any reſpect, promoted by it. No ſatisfactory anſwer had been given to their demands. They did not ſeem to have made any progreſs towards a reconciliation with the natives, who ſtill remained on the ſhore in hoſtile poſtures, as if determined to oppoſe any endeavours that might be made to land; and yet it was become abſolutely neceſſary to attempt landing, as the completing the ſtock of water would not admit of any longer delay. The iſlanders behaved in a manner the moſt daring and preſumptuous. One of them had the inſolence to come within muſket-ſhot ahead of the Reſolution, and, after throwing ſeveral ſtones, waved over his head the hat which had belonged to captain Cook, while his countrymen on ſhore were exulting and encouraging his audacity.

The ſeamen were highly enraged at this inſult, and coming in a body on the quarter deck, begged they might no longer be obliged to put up with ſuch reiterated provocations, and requeſted Mr. King to endeavour to obtain permiſſion for them, from captain Clerke, to take advantage of the firſt fair occaſion of avenging the death of their much-lamented commander. On Mr. King's acquainting the captain with what was paſſing, he ordered ſome great guns to be fired at the iſlanders on ſhore; and promiſed the crew, that, if they ſhould be moleſted at the watering-place, the next day, they ſhould then be permited to chaſtiſe them.

Before they could bring the guns to bear, the natives ſuſpecting their intentions, from the buſtle and agitation they obſerved in the ſhip, had retired behind their houſes and walls. They were conſequently obliged to fire, in ſome degree, at random; notwithſtanding which the ſhot produced all the effects that could be deſired. For, in a ſhort time afterwards, they perceived Koah paddling towards them with the greateſt haſte; and when he arrived, they learned, that ſome people had loſt their lives, and, among the reſt, a principal Eree, nearly related to Terreeoboo.

Soon after Koah's arrival, two boys ſwam off from the morai towards the veſſel, each armed with a long ſpear; and after they had approached pretty near, they began, in a very ſolemn manner, to chant a ſong; the ſubject of which, from their frequently mentioning the word Orono, and pointing to the village where captain Cook had been ſlain, was concluded to be the late calamitous occurrence. Having ſung for near a quarter of an hour in a plaintive ſtrain, during all which time they continued in the water, they repaired on board the Diſcovery, and delivered up their ſpears; and, after remaining there a ſhort time, returned on ſhore. It could not be learned who ſent them, or what was the object of this ceremony. The two natives who had viſited them before, came off again in the night, and aſſured them, that, though the effects of the great guns had much alarmed the chiefs, they had by no means relinquiſhed their hoſtile intentions, and adviſed them to be on their guard.

When the boats of both ſhips were diſpatched aſhore to procure water, the Diſcovery was warped cloſe to the beach, in order to protect the perſons employed in that ſervice. It was ſoon found, that the intelligence ſent by the prieſts was not deſtitute of foundation, and that the iſlanders were determined to neglect no opportunity of annoying them, when it could be done without much hazard. It was now deemed abſolutely neceſſary to burn down ſome ſtraggling huts, near the wall behind which they had ſheltered themſelves. In executing the orders that were given for that purpoſe, ſome were hurried into acts of devaſtation and cruelty.

In eſcaping from the flames, ſeveral of the inhabitants were ſhot; and the party cut off the heads of two of them, and brought them on board. The fate of one unhappy native was much lamented by them all. As he was repairing to the well for water, he was ſhot at by one of the marines. The ball happened to ſtrike his calabaſh, which he inſtantly threw from him, and ran off. He was purſued into one of the caves, and no lion could have defended his den with greater bravery and fierceneſs; till, at length, after he had found means to keep two of his purſuers at bay for a conſiderable time, he expired, covered with wounds. This accident firſt brought the Engliſh acquainted with the uſe to which theſe caverns were applied.

A man, much advanced in years, was taken priſoner, bound, and conveyed on board the Reſolution, in the ſame boat with the heads of his two countrymen. Horror could not be more ſtrongly pourtrayed than in the face of this perſon; nor ſo violent a

tranſition

tranſition to immoderate joy, as when he was untied, and given to underſtand, that he might depart in ſafety. He ſhewed that he was not deficient in gratitude, as he returned afterwards with a preſent of proviſions.

Yet, amidſt all theſe diſturbances, the female natives who were on board did not offer to depart, or diſcover any apprehenſions, either for themſelves, or their friends on ſhore. They appeared, indeed, ſo perfectly unconcerned for the latter, that ſome of them who were on deck when the village was in flames, ſeemed to admire the ſpectacle, and frequently exclaimed, that it was *maitai*, or very fine.

At length a chief, named Eappo, a man of the firſt diſtinction, came with preſents from Terreeoboo, to ſue for peace. Theſe preſents were accepted; and the chief was diſmiſſed with the following anſwer: That no peace would be granted, till the remains of captain Cook ſhould be reſtored.

Information was received from Eappo, that the fleſh of all the bones of our people who had been ſlain, as well as the bones of the trunks, had been burnt; that the limb-bones of the marines had been diſtributed among the inferior chiefs; and that the remains of captain Cook had been diſpoſed of as follows: the head to a great Eree, called Kahoopeou; the hair to Maiha-Maiha; and the arms, legs, and thighs, to Terreeoboo. Eappo was very urgent that one of our officers ſhould go on ſhore, and offered to remain on board, in the mean time, as an hoſtage. This requeſt, however, was not complied with; and he departed with a promiſe of bringing the bones the following day.

A numerous body of the natives was ſeen in the morning deſcending the hill, which is over the beach, in a ſort of proceſſion, each man carrying on his ſhoulders two or three ſugar-canes, and ſome bread-fruit, plantains, and taro, in his hand. They were preceded by two drummers, who, when they reached the water-ſide, ſeated themſelves by a white flag, and began beating their drums, while thoſe who had followed them advanced, one by one, and depoſited the preſents they had brought with them; after which they retired in the ſame order. Soon afterwards, Eappo appeared in his long feathered cloak, bearing ſomething with great ſolemnity in his hands; and having ſtationed himſelf on a rock, he made ſigns that a boat ſhould be ſent him.

Captain Clerke went himſelf in the pinnace to receive them, and ordered Mr. King to attend him in the cutter. When they arrived at the beach, Eappoo, entering the pinnace, delivered the bones to captain Clerke, wrapped up in a great quantity of fine new cloth, and covered with a ſpotted cloak of black and white feathers. In this bundle were found both the hands of captain Cook entire, which were well known from a ſcar on one of them, that divided the fore-finger from the thumb, the whole length of the metacarpal-bone; the ſkull, but with the ſcalp ſeparated from it, and the bones of the face wanting; the ſcalp, with the ears adhering to it, and the hair upon it cut ſhort; the bones of both the arms, with the ſkin of the fore-arms hanging to them; the bones of the thighs and legs joined together, but without the feet. The ligaments of the joints were obſerved to be entire: and the whole ſhewed ſufficient marks of having been in the fire, except the hands, which had the fleſh remaining upon them, and were cut in ſeveral places, and crammed with ſalt, moſt probably with a view of preſerving them. The ſkull was free from any fracture, but the ſcalp had a cut in the back part of it. The lower jaw and feet, which were wanting, had been ſeized, as Eappo ſaid, by different Erees; and he added, that Terreeoboo was uſing every means to recover them.

Eappo, and the king's ſon, came afterwards on board, and brought with them not only the remaining bones of captain Cook, but likewiſe the barrels of his gun, his ſhoes, and ſome other trifles which had belonged to him. Eappo declared that Terreeoboo, Maiha-Maiha, and himſelf, were extremely deſirous of peace; that they had given the moſt convincing proofs of it; and that they had been prevented from giving it ſooner by the other chiefs, many of whom were ſtill diſaffected. He lamented, with the moſt lively ſorrow, the deaths of ſix chiefs, who had been killed by our people, ſome of whom, he ſaid, were among their beſt friends. He ſaid that the cutter had been taken away by Pareea's people, probably in revenge for the blow that he had received, and that it had been broken up the following day. The arms of the marines, which were now demanded, had been carried off by the populace, and were irrecoverable.

It now only remained, on the part of our people, to perform the laſt ſolemn offices to their excellent commander. Eappo was diſmiſſed with orders to *taboo* all the bay; and in the afternoon, the bones having been depoſited in a coffin, the funeral ſervice was read over them, and they were committed to the deep with the uſual military honours.

Matters being now amicably ſettled, captain Clerke gave orders for the ſhip to unmoor, and for all the natives to be diſmiſſed. The chiefs took a friendly leave of their viſitors; and the anchor being weighed, they ſtood out of Karakakooa-Bay; but not without many ſighs from the crews, for the loſs of their great commander.

On leaving Karakakooa-Bay, in the iſland of Owhyhee, the ſhips paſſed Tahoora, and touched at Woahoo; and, in conſequence of diſappointment in attempting to water, proceeded to Atooi, and came to anchor in their former ſtation. Our people immediately obſerved, on the natives coming on board, that there was not that complacency in their countenances, or cordiality in their manner, as when they firſt viſited them. Indeed, they gave evident tokens of a diſpoſition totally reverſe from that which they had diſcovered before, and ſeemed much inclined to hoſtility. The main deſign, in touching at this iſland, was to procure water, in which the people were much annoyed, and obſtructed by the natives. At length, however, after great difficulty, and ſome encounters, it was completed.

When the officers, whoſe preſence was required on ſhore, returned to the ſhips, they were informed, that ſeveral chiefs had been on board, and apologized for the conduct of their countrymen. Preſents were afterwards exchanged between captain Clerke and Toneoneo, who held the ſupreme power, and apparent amity ſubſiſted till the ſhips left the iſland, and proceeded to Oneeheow, from which they ſailed, in proſecution of their voyage to the northward, in March 1779.

The group of iſlands called by the general appellation of the Sandwich-Iſlands, were found, at length, to be eleven in number; and as our navigators could never learn that the natives had knowledge of any other iſlands, it is moſt probable that there are no others in their vicinity. Of theſe we have mentioned ſix, viz. Woahoo, Atooi, Oneeheow, Oreehoua, Tahoora, and Owhyhee, the grand and principal ſcene of action. The others are called Morotoi, Morotinnee, Ranai, Kahowrowhee, and Moodoo-Papapa. Theſe agree, in general, with the deſcription given of the former: and Morotinnee, as well as Tahoora, is uninhabited.

There are two mountains in the iſland of Owhyhee deſerving of notice. The firſt, called Mouna-Kaah (or the mountain Kaah) riſes in three peaks, continually covered with ſnow, and may be diſcerned at the diſtance of forty leagues. The coaſt to the northward of this mountain is compoſed of high and abrupt cliffs, from which fall many beautiful caſcades of water. The mountain is very ſteep, and its lower part abounds with wood.

On the ſhips doubling the eaſt part of the iſland, they had ſight of another ſnowy mountain, called by the natives Mouna-Roa (or the extenſive mountain) which, during the whole time they were ſailing along the ſouth-eaſtern ſide, continued to be a very conſpicuous object. It was flat at the ſummit, which was perpetually involved in ſnow; and they once obſerved its ſides alſo ſlightly covered with it for a conſiderable way down. This mountain is ſuppoſed to be at leaſt 16,020 feet; and therefore exceeds the height of the peak of Teneriffe by 3680 feet. The peaks of Mouna-Kaah ſeemed to be of the height of about half a mile; and, as they are wholly covered with ſnow, the altitude of their ſummits muſt at leaſt be 18,400 feet.

One of the Engliſh who ſet out on an expedition up the country, principally with an intention of reaching the ſnowy mountains, under the guidance of two natives, ſtopped, for the night, at a hut they obſerved among the plantations, where they ſuppoſed themſelves to be ſix or ſeven miles diſtant from the ſhips. The proſpect from this ſpot was very delightful. They had a view of the veſſels in the bay before them. To the left, they ſaw a continued range of villages, interſperſed with groves of cocoa-nut trees ſpreading along the ſhore; a thick wood extending itſelf behind them: and to the right, a very conſiderable extent of ground, laid out with great regularity in well-cultivated plantations, diſplayed itſelf to their view. Near to this ſpot, the natives pointed out to them, at a diſtance from every other dwelling, the reſidence of a hermit, who, they ſaid, had, in the former part of his life, been a great chief and warrior, but had long ago retired from the ſea coaſt of the iſland, and now never quitted the environs of his cottage. As they approached him, they proſtrated themſelves, and afterwards preſented him with ſome proviſions. His behaviour was eaſy, frank, and cheerful. He teſtified little aſtoniſhment at the ſight of the Engliſh; but though preſſed to accept ſome European curioſities, he thought proper to decline the offer, and ſoon withdrew to his cottage. The party repreſented him as by far the moſt aged perſon they had ever ſeen, judging him to be, at a moderate computation, upwards of an hundred years of age.

As they had ſuppoſed that the mountain was not more than ten or a dozen miles diſtant from the bay, and conſequently expected to reach it with eaſe early the following morning, they were now greatly ſurpriſed to find the diſtance ſcarce perceiveably diminiſhed. This circumſtance, with the uninhabited ſtate of the country, which they were on the point of entering, rendering it neceſſary to provide a ſupply of proviſions, they diſpatched one of their conductors back to the village for that purpoſe. Whilſt they waited his return, they were joined by ſeveral of Kaoo's ſervants, whom that generous old man had ſent after them, loaded with refreſhments, and fully authoriſed, as their route lay through his grounds, to demand, and take away with them, whatever they might want.

Their ſurpriſe was great, to find the cold here ſo intenſe; but as they had no thermometer with them, they could only form their judgment of it from their feelings, which, from the warm atmoſphere they had quitted, muſt have been a very fallacious method of judging. They found it, however, ſo cold, that they could hardly get any ſleep; and the iſlanders could not ſleep at all; both parties being diſturbed, during the whole night, by continual coughing. As they, at this time, could not be at any very great height, their diſtance from the ſea being no more than ſix or ſeven miles, and part of the road on a very moderate aſcent, this uncommon degree of cold muſt be attributed to the eaſterly wind blowing freſh over the ſnowy mountains. They proceeded on their journey early the next morning, and filled their calabaſhes at a well of excellent water, ſituate about half a mile from their hut. After they had paſſed the plantations, they arrived at a thick wood, which they entered by a path that had been made for the convenience of the iſlanders, who frequently repaired thither for the purpoſe of catching birds, as well as procuring the wild or horſe-plantain. Their progreſs now became extremely ſlow, and was attended with great labour; for the ground was either ſwampy, or covered with large ſtones; the path narrow, and often interrupted by trees lying acroſs it, which they were obliged to climb over, as the thickneſs of the underwood on each ſide rendered it impracticable to paſs round them. They ſaw, in theſe woods, pieces of white cloth fixed on poles, at ſmall diſtances, which they imagined were land-marks for the diviſion of property, as they only obſerved them where the wild plantains grew. The trees were of the ſame kind with the ſpice-tree of New Holland; they were ſtraight and lofty, and their circumference was, on an average one with another, from two to four feet.

Many other diſagreeable circumſtances, beſides the cold, and particularly the averſion their conductors diſcovered to going on, induced this party to come to a determination of returning to the ſhips, after taking a ſurvey of the country from the higheſt trees they could find. They were ſurpriſed at ſeeing ſeveral fields of hay; and upon inquiry to what particular uſe it was applied, were informed, that it was intended to cover the grounds where the young taro grew, in order to preſerve them from being ſcorched by the rays of the ſun. They obſerved among the plantations a few huts ſcattered about, which afforded occaſional ſhelter to the labourers; but they did not ſee any villages at a greater diſtance from the ſea than four or five miles. Near one of them, which was ſituated about four miles from the bay, they diſcovered a cave, forty fathoms long, three broad, and of the ſame height. It was open at each end; its ſides were fluted, as if wrought with a chiſſel; and the ſurface was glazed over, perhaps by the action of fire. The birds of theſe iſlands are numerous, though the variety is not great. Some of them may vie with thoſe of any country in point of beauty. Their vegetable productions are not very different from thoſe of the other iſlands of the Pacific-Ocean. The coaſts abound with variety of fiſh.

The natives of the Sandwich-Iſlands are, doubtleſs, of the ſame extraction with the inhabitants of the Society and Friendly-Iſlands. This is not only evinced by the general reſemblance of their perſons, and the great ſimilarity of their manners and cuſtoms, but ſeems to be eſtabliſhed, beyond all controverſy, by the identity of their language. It may not, perhaps, be very difficult to conjecture from what continent they originally emigrated, and by what ſteps they have diffuſed themſelves over ſo immenſe a ſpace. They bear ſtrong marks of affinity to ſome of the Indian tribes, who inhabit the Ladrones and Caroline-Iſles; and the ſame affinity and reſemblance may alſo be traced among the Malays and the Battas. At what particular time theſe migrations happened, is leſs eaſy to aſcertain. They are indeed very populous, and have no tradition reſpecting their own origin, but what is wholly fabulous; though, on the other hand, the ſimplicity which is ſtill prevalent in their manners and habits of life, and the unadulterated ſtate of their general language, ſeem to demonſtrate, that it could not have been at any very remote period.

The ſuperiority generally obſerved at other iſlands in the perſons of the Erees, is likewiſe found here. Thoſe that were ſeen were perfectly well formed; whereas the lower claſs of people, beſides their general inferiority, are ſubject to all the variety of figure and make that is met with in the populace of other parts of the world. There were more frequent inſtances of deformity obſerved here than in any of the other iſlands viſited. While the ſhips were cruiſing

off

off Owhyhee, two dwarfs came on board, one of whom was an old man of the height of four feet two inches, but very well proportioned; and the other was a woman nearly of the ſame ſtature. Our people afterwards ſaw among the natives three who were hump-backed, and a young man who had been deſtitute of hands and feet, from the very moment of his birth. Squinting is common among them, and a man who had been born blind, was brought on board for the purpoſe of being cured. Beſides theſe particular defects, they are, in general, exceeding ſubject to biles and ulcers, which was aſcribed to the great quantity of ſalt they uſually ate with their fiſh and fleſh. Though the Erees are free from theſe complaints, many of them experience ſtill more dreadful effects from the too frequent uſe of the ava. Thoſe who were the moſt affected by it had their eyes red and inflamed, their limbs emaciated, their bodies covered with a whitiſh ſcurf, and their whole frame trembling and paralytic, attended with a diſability of raiſing their heads.

The excellence of their manufactures, and their improvements in agriculture, are, doubtleſs, adequate to their ſituation and natural advantages. The eagerneſs of curioſity with which they uſed to attend the armourer's forge, and the various expedients which they had invented, even before our departure from theſe iſlands, for working the iron obtained from us into ſuch forms as were beſt calculated for their purpoſes, were ſtrong indications of docility and ingenuity.

Tatooing, or puncturing the body, prevails among theſe people; and of all the iſlands in this ocean, it is only at New Zealand, and the Sandwich-Iſles, that the face is tatooed. There is this difference between the two nations, that the New Zealanders perform this operation in elegant ſpiral volutes, and the Sandwich-Iſlanders in ſtraight lines, that interſect each other at right angles. Some of the natives have half their bodies, from head to foot, tatooed, which gives them a moſt ſtriking appearance. It is generally done with great neatneſs and regularity; but ſeveral of them have only an arm thus marked, others a leg; ſome, again, tatoo both an arm and a leg; and others only the hand. The hands and arms of the women are punctured in a very neat manner; and they have a remarkable cuſtom of tatooing the tip of the tongues of ſome of the females. There was ſome reaſon to imagine, that the practice of puncturing was often intended as a ſign of mourning, on the deceaſe of a chief, or any other calamitous occurrence; for they were frequently informed, that ſuch a mark was in memory of ſuch a chief, and ſo of the others. The people of the loweſt order are tatooed with a particular mark, which diſtinguiſhes them as the property of the chiefs to whom they are reſpectively ſubject.

The natives live together in ſmall towns or villages, which contain from about one hundred or two hundred houſes, built pretty cloſe to each other, without order or regularity, and have a winding path that leads through them. They are frequently flanked, towards the ſeaſide, with looſe detached walls, which appear to be intended for ſhelter and defence. They are of various dimenſions, from forty-five feet by twenty-four, to eighteen by twelve. Some are of a larger ſize, being fifty feet in length, and thirty in breadth, and entirely open at one end. They are very cleanly at their meals, and their method of dreſſing both their vegetable and animal food was univerſally acknowledged to be ſuperior to ours. The Erees conſtantly begin their meals with a doſe of the extract of pepper-root, or ava, prepared in the uſual mode. The women eat apart from the other ſex, and are prohibited from feeding on pork, turtle, and ſome particular ſpecies of plantains.

They generally riſe with the ſun; and, after having enjoyed the cool of the evening, retire to their repoſe a few hours after ſun-ſet. The Erees are occupied in making canoes and mats: the Towtows are chiefly employed in the plantations, and alſo in fiſhing; and the women are engaged in the manufactory of cloth. They amuſe themſelves at their leiſure hours with various diverſions. Their young perſons, of both ſexes, are fond of dancing; and, on more ſolemn occaſions, they entertain themſelves with wreſtling, and boxing-matches, as has been obſerved, performed after the ſame manner of the natives of the Friendly-Iſlands; to whom, however, they are greatly inferior in all theſe reſpects.

The muſic of theſe people is of a rude kind; for the only muſical inſtruments that were obſerved among them, were drums of various ſizes. Their ſongs, however, which they are ſaid to ſing in parts, and which they accompany with a gentle motion of their arms, like the inhabitants of the Friendly-Iſlands, have a very pleaſing effect.

They are generally addicted to gambling. One of their games reſembles our game of drafts; but, from the number of ſquares, it ſeems to be much more intricate. The board is of the length of about two feet, and is divided into two hundred and thirty-eight ſquares, fourteen in a row. In this game they uſe black and white pebbles, which they move from one ſquare to another. Another of their games conſiſts in concealing a ſtone under ſome cloth, which is ſpread out by one of the parties, and rumpled in ſuch a manner, that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh where the ſtone lies. The antagoniſt then ſtrikes with a ſtick, that part of the cloth where he ſuppoſes it to be; and the chances being, upon the whole, againſt his hitting it, odds of all degrees are laid, varying with the opinion of the dexterity of the antagoniſt. They often entertain themſelves with races between boys and girls, on which occaſions they lay wagers with great ſpirit. Our people ſaw a man beating his breaſt, and tearing his hair, in the violence of rage, for having loſt three hatchets at one of theſe races, which he had purchaſed from them with near half his property, a very little time before. Among the various diverſions of the children, was one frequently played at, and which ſhewed a conſiderable ſhare of dexterity. They take a ſhort ſtick, through one extremity of which runs a peg ſharpened at both ends, extending about an inch on each ſide; then throwing up a ball formed of green leaves moulded together, and faſtened with twine, they catch it on one of the points of the peg; immediately after which, they throw it up again from the peg, then turn the ſtick round, and catch the ball on the other point of the peg. Thus, for ſome time, they continue catching it on each point of the peg alternately, without miſſing it. They are equally expert at another diverſion of a ſimilar nature, throwing up in the air, and catching, in their turns, many of theſe balls: and our people have often ſeen little children thus keep five balls in motion at once.

Their method of agriculture reſembles that of the other iſlands of the Pacific-Ocean.

The inhabitants of the Sandwich-Iſlands are divided into three claſſes. The Erees, or chiefs of each diſtrict, are the firſt; and one of theſe is ſuperior to the reſt, who was called, at Owhyhee, *Eree-Taboo*, and *Eree-Moee*; the firſt name expreſſing his authority, and the latter ſignifying that, in his preſence, all muſt proſtrate themſelves. Thoſe of the ſecoud claſs appear to enjoy a right of property, but have no authority. Thoſe who compoſe the third claſs, are called *Towtows*, or ſervants, and have neither rank or property.

The Erees appear to have unlimited power over the inferior claſſes of people; many inſtances of which occurred daily, whilſt our people continued among them, and the people are implicitly obedient. It is remarkable, however, that the chiefs were never ſeen to exerciſe any acts of cruelty, injuſtice, or

or inſolence towards them; though they put in practice their power over each other, in a moſt tyrannical degree, as appears from the following inſtances. One of the lower order of chiefs having ſhewn great civility to the maſter of the ſhip, on his examination of Karakakooa-Bay, Mr. King, ſome time afterwards, took him on board the Reſolution, and introduced him to captain Cook, who engaged him to dine. While the company remained at table, Pareea entered, whoſe countenance manifeſted the higheſt indignation at ſeeing their gueſt ſo honourably entertained. He ſeized him by the hair of his head, and would have dragged him out of the cabin, if the captain had not interfered. After much altercation, no other indulgence could be obtained (without quarrelling with Pareea) than that the gueſt ſhould be permitted to remain in the cabin, on condition that he ſeated himſelf on the floor, while Pareea occupied his place at the table. An inſtance, ſomewhat ſimilar happened when Terreeoboo came firſt on board the Reſolution, when Maiha-Maiha, who attended him, ſeeing Pareea upon deck, turned him moſt ignominiouſly out of the ſhip; even though the officers knew Pareea to be a man of the firſt conſequence.

Little information could be obtained reſpecting their adminiſtering of juſtice. If a quarrel aroſe among the lower claſs of people, the matter was referred to the deciſion of ſome chief. If an inferior chief had offended one of ſuperior rank, his puniſhment was dictated by the feelings of the ſuperior at that moment. If he ſhould fortunately eſcape the firſt tranſports of his rage, he perhaps found means, through the mediation of others, to compound for his offence, by all or part of his effects.

As to their religion, it reſembles that of the Society and Friendly-Iſles. In common with each other, they have all their morais, their whattas, their ſacred ſongs, and their ſacrifices. The ceremonies here, are, indeed, longer and more numerous than in the iſlands above mentioned.

The Society and Friendly iſlanders pay adoration to particular birds; and it ſeems to be a cuſtom extremely prevalent in theſe iſlands. Ravens are, perhaps, the chief objects of it here; for Mr. King ſaw two of theſe birds perfectly tame, at the village of Kakooa, and was told they were Eatooas. He offered ſeveral articles for them, which were all refuſed; and he was particularly cautioned not to hurt or offend them. The prayers and offerings made by the prieſts before their meals, may be claſſed among their religious ceremonies. We have already obſerved, that human ſacrifices are common here. They have one moſt extraordinary religious cuſtom, which is that of knocking out their fore teeth. Moſt of the common people, and many of the chiefs, had loſt one or more of them; and this, it ſeems, was conſidered as a propitiatory ſacrifice to the Eatooa, to avert his anger on particular occaſions.

The Engliſh could derive but very imperfect information of their opinions reſpecting a future ſtate. On inquiring of them whither the dead were gone, they were told that the breath, which they ſeemed to conſider as the immortal part, was fled to the Eatooa. They ſeemed alſo to give a deſcription of ſome place, which they ſuppoſe to be the abode of the dead; but they could not learn that they had any idea of rewards or puniſhments.

Of their marriages it can only be ſaid, that ſuch a compact ſeems to exiſt among them. Whether polygamy is allowed, or whether it is mixed with concubinage, could not be aſcertained.

From the following inſtance, it appears, that among married women of rank, not only fidelity, but even a degree of reſerve is required.

Omeah, a chief of the higheſt dignity, roſe two or three times from his place, at one of their boxing matches, and approached his wife with ſtrong marks of diſpleaſure, commanding her, as was ſuppoſed, to withdraw. Whether he thought her beauty engaged too much of the attention of his viſitors, or whatever might be his motives, there certainly exiſted no real cauſe of jealouſy. She, however, continued in her place, and at the concluſion of the entertainment joined the party of officers, and even ſolicited ſome trifling preſents. She was informed that they had not any about them; but that if ſhe would accompany them to the tent, ſhe ſhould be welcome to make choice of what ſhe liked. She accordingly proceeded with them, which being obſerved by Omeah, he followed in a great rage, ſeized her by the hair, and, with his fiſts, began to inflict ſevere corporal puniſhment. Having been the innocent cauſe of this treatment, the officers were exceedingly concerned at it; though they underſtood it would be highly improper for them to interfere between huſband and wife of ſuch ſuperior rank. The natives, however, at length interpoſed; and the next day they had the ſatisfaction of meeting them together, perfectly ſatisfied with each other: and, what was extremely ſingular, the wife would not permit them to rally the huſband on his behaviour, which they had an inclination to do; plainly telling them, that he acted very properly.

The Engliſh had twice an opportunity, while the ſhips lay at Karakakooa-Bay, of ſeeing a part of their funeral rites. Hearing of the death of an old chief, not far from the obſervatories, ſome of them repaired to the place, where they beheld a number of people aſſembled. They were ſeated round an area, fronting the houſe where the deceaſed lay; and a man, having on a red feathered cap, came to the door, conſtantly putting out his head, and making a moſt lamentable howl, accompanied with horrid grimaces, and violent diſtortions of the face. A large mat was afterwards ſpread upon the area, and thirteen women and two men, who came out of the houſe, ſat dawn upon it in three equal rows; three of the women, and the two men, being in front. The women had feathered ruffs on their necks and hands; and their ſhoulders were decorated with broad green leaves, curiouſly ſcolloped. Near a ſmall hut, at one corner of this area, half a dozen boys were placed, waving ſmall white banners, and taboo ſticks, who would not ſuffer our people to approach them. Hence they imagined that the dead body was depoſited in the hut; but were afterwards informed, that it remained in the houſe where the tricks were playing at the door by the man in the red cap. The company ſeated on the mat ſung a melancholy ſtrain, accompanied with a gentle motion of the arms and body. This having continued for ſome time, they threw themſelves in a poſture between kneeling and ſitting, and put their arms and bodies into a moſt rapid motion, keeping pace, at the ſame time, with the muſic. Theſe laſt exertions being too violent to continue, at intervals they had ſlower motions. An hour having paſſed in theſe ceremonies, more mats were ſpread upon the area, when the dead chief's widow, and three or four other elderly women, came out of the houſe with ſlow and ſolemn pace, and, ſeating themſelves before the company, began to wail moſt bitterly, in which they were joined by the three rows of women behind them; the two men appearing melancholy and penſive. They continued thus, with little variation, till late in the evening, and, at day-light in the morning, the people diſperſed, and every thing was quiet. It was ſaid the body was removed, but it was not known how it was diſpoſed of. As they were making inquiry of ſome of the natives, they were approached by three women of rank, who ſignified to them, that their preſence interrupted the performance of ſome neceſſary rites. Soon after they had left them, they heard their cries and lamentations; and when they met them a few hours after, the lower parts of their faces were painted perfectly black, in token of mourning. They had

had likewiſe an opportunity of obſerving the ceremonies at the funeral of one of the ordinary claſs. Hearing ſome mournful cries iſſuing from a miſerable hut, they entered it, and diſcovered two women, whom they ſuppoſed to be the mother and daughter, weeping over the body of a man, who had that moment expired. They firſt covered the body with a cloth, then lying down by it, they ſpread the cloth over themſelves, beginning a melancholy kind of ſong, often repeating *Aweh me doaah! Aweh tanne!* "Oh, my father? Oh, my huſband!" In one corner a younger daughter lay proſtrate on the ground, having ſome black cloth ſpread over her, and repeating the ſame expreſſions. On inquiry afterwards, how the body had been diſpoſed of, they pointed towards the ſea, perhaps indicating thereby, that it had been depoſited in the deep, or that it had been conveyed to ſome place of burial beyond the bay, which was all the information that could be got on the occaſion.

CHAP. XXV.

THE PALOS OR PELEW-ISLANDS.

Situation and Deſcription of theſe Iſlands. Various Particulars reſpecting the friendly Intercourſe between the Engliſh and the Natives. Great Hoſpitality of the King, who preſents the Captain with an Iſland.

THAT chain of iſlands called the Palos, or Pelew-Iſlands, were probably firſt noticed by ſome of the Spaniards of the Philippines, and by them named the Palos-Iſlands; the tall palm trees, which grow there in great abundance, having at a diſtance the appearance of (*palos*, i. e.) maſts of ſhips. That this was the origin of their name, is rendered ſtill more probable, as the Spaniards gave the ſame appellation to all the numerous iſlands of this archipelago, moſt of which are now known by the name of the New Carolines. The Pelew-Iſlands are ſituated in the weſt part of the Pacific-Ocean, between the 5th and 9th degrees of north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of eaſt longitude; and, though heretofore imperfectly noticed by ſome ſhips making the eaſtern paſſage from China, were never viſited by any Europeans, till the crew of the Antelope, captain Wilſon, a packet belonging to the Eaſt-India Company, which was wrecked in Auguſt 1783, landed there, and were the means of diſcovering to us a new world, or ſet of human beings, who, though of an uncultivated nature, appeared to be greatly different from thoſe commonly termed ſavages, and evince principles of humanity and generoſity that would reflect the higheſt honour on the moſt exalted of our race. Theſe iſlands are long but narrow, of a moderate height, well covered with wood, at leaſt ſuch of the iſlands as captain Wilſon's people had an opportunity of ſeeing. They are circled on the weſt ſide by a reef of coral, of which no end could be ſeen from any eminences they were on; this reef in ſome places extends five or ſix leagues from the ſhore, and not leſs than two or three in any parts that were viſited.

As the Antelope, which ſailed from Macao the 20th of June 1783, was proceeding on her voyage from China, ſhe unfortunately ſtruck on a rock in the night of the 9th of the following Auguſt.

The crew, waiting with anxious ſuſpence the approach of morning, in order to diſcover whether any land was near, deſcried, at the dawn of day, a ſmall iſland to the ſouthward, about three or four leagues diſtant; and ſoon after ſome other iſlands were ſeen to the eaſtward, which proved to be thoſe under conſideration.

As the iſland (properly called Coorooraa, of which Pelew is the capital) came in ſight, the jolly-boat hoiſted Engliſh colours, and fired three muſquets; which were anſwered, as they apprehended, nearer the ſhore, by a white flag ſtuck on a pole; this was conceived to have been ſuggeſted by the Malay on the iſland (whom we ſhall have occaſion hereafter to mention) and proved to be ſome of the white cloth that had been given to the king. Raa Kook, the king's brother, and commander in chief of his forces, having quitted his canoe, came into the jolly-boat; and our people, on landing, fired three muſquets more, after having hoiſted their colours, and fixed them in the ground oppoſite a houſe cloſe to the water-ſide, at the end of the cauſe-way where they came on ſhore; to which houſe the Engliſh were conducted by Raa Kook to wait the king's coming, he having diſpatched a meſſenger to notify the captain's arrival. Before the king appeared, ſome of the natives were ſent down with refreſhments: they firſt brought a large tureen made of wood, in the ſhape of a bird, and inlaid with ſhell, this was full of ſweet drink; they alſo brought a painted ſtand, about two feet in height, inlaid in the ſame manner as the tureen, upon which were ſweetmeats garniſhed with Seville oranges; next came a baſket of boiled yams, followed by another of young cocoa-nuts; theſe were all placed in a kind of order, preparatory to the king's coming.

Apprehenſions were naturally felt on account of the natives. Boats, however, were manned, loaded with ſuch articles as were deemed moſt neceſſary, and diſpatched from the ſhip under the direction of a principal officer, whoſe deſign was to obtain, if poſſible, a friendly intercourſe with the inhabitants, in caſe they ſhould find any. As the ſhip was expected every moment to go to pieces, thoſe who remained went immediately to work to make a raft, on which, when completed, with the aſſiſtance of two boats, they all, except one man, who fell overboard before they ſet out, reached the ſhore, after encountering many difficulties.

In the courſe of two days from their landing, the crew obſerved ſome natives approaching, in canoes, from the points of the bay. This ſpread ſo great a conſternation, that all ran to their arms: but as there were only two canoes, the captain ordered the people out of ſight till further notice.

A very ſingular circumſtance much facilitated the intercourſe between our countrymen and the natives. A Malay, who ſome time before was caſt away upon this iſland, had acquired the language; and it happened that one of the Antelope's men was a native of Bengal, and ſpoke the Malay tongue, by which means a ready communication was maintained on both ſides, and all thoſe impediments were removed at once, which would have ariſen among people who had no means of conveying their thoughts to one another by language, but muſt have truſted to ſigns and geſtures, which might have given riſe to a thouſand miſconceptions.

When the canoes, which advanced ſlowly towards the ſhore, got within hearing, the native of Bengal ſpoke to them in the Malay tongue; on which, though they did not ſeem to underſtand him, they ſtopped their canoes. Soon after, however, one of them ſpoke in the above language, aſking our people "Who they were? whether they were friends or enemies?" The native of Bengal, by the captain's direction, replied, "That they were diſtreſſed Engliſhmen, who had loſt their ſhip on the reef, and that they were friends." On this they ſeemed to commune together; and ſoon after came out of their canoes, which captain Wilſon obſerving, he waded into the water to meet them; and after embracing them in a friendly manner, conducted them to his officers, and the others who had retired.

Theſe people were entirely naked. They were of a deep copper colour, and their ſkins ſoft and gloſſy, owing to the external uſe of cocoa-nut oil. Each chief had a baſket of beetle nut, and a bamboo, finely poliſhed, and inlaid at each end, in which they carried a kind of coral, burnt to a lime, called *chinam*. It was obſerved that all their teeth were black, and that the beetle nut, of which they had always a quid in their mouths, rendered the ſaliva red, which, together with their black teeth, gave their mouths a very diſguſting appearance. They were of a middling ſtature, ſtraight, and muſcular, their limbs well formed, and they had a majeſtic gait. Their hair was black, long, and rolled up behind cloſe to their heads, which appeared neat and becoming. They tatooed their legs a little above the ancles to the middle of their thighs, which gave them a deeper colour than the other parts of their bodies. None of them had any beards, except the youngeſt of the king's brothers; and it was, in courſe of time, obſerved, that they plucked out the hairs by the roots, and that very few only, who had ſtrong thick beards, cheriſhed and let them grow.

Whatever ſurpriſe the ſingularity of theſe natives might excite in the minds of our people, the natives were no leſs wrapt in admiration at their appearance. The whiteneſs of colour attracted them ſo much, that it was evident they had never before ſeen any Europeans. They were continually exclaiming, *Weel! weel!* and *weel-a-trecoy!* words which implied that they were perfectly pleaſed with their viſitors. They ſtroked their bodies and arms outſide the garments, ſeeming to doubt whether their coverings were not a part of their real body, being totally ignorant of the uſe of clothes. However, the Malay informed them, that the Engliſh lived in a much colder climate than theirs; were obliged to have recourſe to artificial warmth, to ſhield them from the inclemency of the weather, and that, from cuſtom, they could not diſpenſe with it, in a degree, even in the warmeſt regions.

The hands of the Europeans next engaged their attention, and particularly the black veins of the wriſts. They probably imagined the whiteneſs of the hands and face to be artificial; and the blackneſs of the veins cauſed them to think, that it was a mode of tatooing; for they deſired to look at the top parts of the arms, to ſee if the whiteneſs was continued. After this they requeſted a further view of the body, when ſome of the crew opened their boſoms, and told them that the other parts were nearly the ſame as that. The hair on the breaſts of the Europeans excited their aſtoniſhment, as they conſider ſuch incumbrance highly indelicate, and pluck it out wherever it is found. The natives having in ſome degree ſatisfied their curioſity, began to expreſs apprehenſions that they had intruded too much; but the captain convinced them, by means of the Malay, that their fears were groundleſs.

As the natives expreſſed a deſire that captain Wilſon would ſend one of his people to Pelew, that the king might ſee what kind of beings white men were, the captain complied, and appointed his brother for that purpoſe, giving him a ſmall remnant of blue cloth, a caniſter of tea, another of ſugar-candy, and a jar of preſerved fruit, as a preſent for the king, of whom we ſhall here introduce the following account.

Abba Thulle, as king, was the firſt perſon in the government at Pelew, and in him the chief authority was lodged. He appeared to be conſidered as the father of his people; and, though diveſted of all external decorations of royalty, had every mark of diſtinction paid to his perſon.

His rupacks or chiefs approached him with the greateſt reſpect, and his common ſubjects, whenever they paſſed near him, or had occaſion to addreſs him, put their hands behind them, and crouched towards the ground: even if they were paſſing any houſe or place where the king was ſuppoſed to be, they humiliated themſelves in the ſame manner, till they had got beyond his probable preſence, when they reſumed their uſual mode of walking. On all occaſions, however, the behaviour of Abba Thulle appeared gentle and gracious, yet always full of dignity; he heard whatever his ſubjects had to ſay to him, and, by his affability and condeſcenſion, never ſuffered them to go away diſſatisfied.

This perſonage, how great ſoever he was held at Pelew, was not underſtood by the Engliſh, when there, to poſſeſs a ſovereignty over all the iſlands which came within their knowledge. The rupacks of Eonungs, Emillegue, and Artingall, and the rupack Meath, were independent in their own territories: yet Abba Thulle had ſeveral iſlands over which he ruled.

Upon all occurrences of moment, he convened the rupacks and officers of ſtate; their councils were always held in the open air, upon ſquare pavements; where the king firſt ſtated the buſineſs upon which he had aſſembled them, and ſubmitted it to their conſideration. Each rupack preſent delivered his opinion, but without riſing from his ſeat: when the matter before them was ſettled, the king, ſtanding up, put an end to the council.—After which they often entered into familiar converſation, and ſometimes chatted together for an hour after their buſineſs was diſpatched.

When any meſſage was brought to the king, whether in council or elſewhere, if it came by one of the common people, it was delivered at ſome diſtance, in a low voice, to one of the inferior rupacks; who, bending in an humble manner at the king's ſide, delivered the meſſage in a low tone of voice, with his face turned aſide. His commands appeared to be abſolute, though he acted in no important buſineſs without the advice of his chiefs. In council there was a particular ſtone on which the king ſat; the other rupacks did not always take the ſame place, ſeating themſelves ſometimes on his right-hand, and ſometimes on his left.

Every day in the afternoon, the king, whether he was at Pelew, or with the Engliſh at Oroolong (the iſland he had given them) went to ſit in public, for the purpoſe of hearing any requeſts, or of adjuſting any difference or diſpute which might have ariſen among his ſubjects.

Captain Wilſon obſerves, with reſpect to the character and diſpoſition of "this excellent man, who ruled over theſe ſons of nature, that he certainly, in every part of his conduct, ſhewed himſelf firm, noble, gracious, and benevolent; there was a dignity in all his deportment, a gentleneſs in all his manners, and a warmth and ſenſibility about his heart that won the love of all who approached him. Nature had beſtowed on him a contemplative mind, which he had himſelf improved by thoſe reflections that good ſenſe dictated, and obſervation confirmed."

Raa Koo, the king's brother, and general of all his forces, was the next in power. It was his duty to ſummon the rupacks to attend the king, on whatever expedition or purpoſe they were called upon: but though Raa Kook acted as commander in chief, yet all the executive orders came from the king, whenever he attended in perſon. The general, as the king's next brother, was his preſumptive heir; the ſucceſſion of Pelew not going to the king's children, till it had paſſed through the king's brothers: ſo that after the demiſe of Abba Thulle, the ſovereignty would have deſcendend to Raa Kook; on his demiſe, to Arra Kooker; and, at the death of this laſt brother, it would have reverted to the eldeſt ſon of Abba Thulle; on which contingency, Qui Bill, being the preſumptive heir, would, during the reign of his laſt ſurviving uncle, have become of courſe the hereditary general; as Lee Boo would when the ſovereignty had fallen to his elder brother.

A particular

A particular chief, or rupack, always attended the king, and, being always near his perſon, was firſt conſulted: but whether his office was religious or civil, or both could not be learned with any certainty. He was not conſidered as a warrior, nor ever bore arms; and has only one wife, whereas the other rupacks had two. But to reſume our narrative:

The natives behaved in the moſt friendly manner to the Engliſh; and their monarch ſoon after paid them a viſit, with his ſon and brother. His majeſty was perfectly naked, and had no kind of ornament or mark of diſtinction, like his principal officers, who wore a bracelet of bone at their wriſts. He bore a hatchet on his ſhoulder, the head of which was made of iron, a circumſtance which ſurpriſed our people much, as all the other hatchets they had ſeen were of ſhell. The handle of it, which formed a ſharp angle, ſtuck cloſe to his ſhoulder, lying before and behind, and wanting no tying to keep it ſteady in walking.

His majeſty would not go into the tents. A ſail was therefore ſpread for him, on which he ſat down, with his chief miniſter oppoſite, and his two brothers on each ſide; and the whole was encompaſſed by his attendants, who were numerous. He drank a cup of tea, but did not approve of the taſte. Captain Wilſon availed himſelf of this opportunity to obtain permiſſion from the king to build a veſſel, in order to convey the crew to ſome European-ſettlement; and highly gratified him by cauſing a party of men to be drawn up, and fire three vollies. This occaſioned ſuch hooting and chattering, as equalled in noiſe the report of the pieces.

Captain Wilſon dreſſed the king's ſon in a ſilk coat and blue trowſers. He was a young man extremely well made, but had loſt his noſe, whether in battle, or from a ſcrophulous diſeaſe, which is prevalent there, was not known.

Arra Kooker, one of the king's brothers, requeſted a white ſhirt, and as ſoon as it was given him, he put it on, in tranſports of joy, which he indicated by dancing and jumping, and in forming a humorous contraſt between his ſhirt and his ſkin. This prince had a great propenſity to mimicry, and often amuſed our people by taking off their manners, but with ſo much good nature, that no one could feel the leaſt offence. He entertained a great partiality for their Newfoundland dog, which he often fed; till at length the creature felt a partiality for him, and, at his appearance, would jump, bark, leap, and play a variety of tricks. Arra Kooker would often imitate him in the ſame mode of ſalutation, by barking, jumping, &c. which could not fail of exciting the riſible faculties. This prince was ſeemingly about forty years of age, ſhort in ſtature, but ſo plump and fat, that he was almoſt as broad as he was long.

After various ceremonies had paſſed, the captain preſented his majeſty with a ſcarlet coat; who then making ſigns to go on ſhore, jumped into the water, and ſwam to land.

When the captain, and ſeveral officers, reached Pelew, on a viſit to the king, they came into a large ſquare pavement, round which were ſeveral houſes, and was conducted into one that ſtood in the centre of one of the ſides. Out of this houſe iſſued a number of women, who were waiting to ſee thoſe new beings the Engliſh. Thoſe our people were given to underſtand were the wives of ſome of the rupacks, or great officers of ſtate. They were rather fairer than the reſt of the women, had ſome little ornaments about them, and their faces and breaſts were rubbed over with turmeric.

The king, and one of his brothers, led his gueſts into this houſe; the women then returned, and received them with much joy, preſenting their company with cocoa-nuts and ſweet drink, which all ſat down and partook of. The ladies alſo ſeated themſelves, and taking a parcel of leaves, began to make nets, an employment in which they paſs great part of their time. The king informed his gueſts that his houſe was to be their abode as long as they remained at Pelew, and that there they were to ſleep. After this he roſe up, previouſly apologizing to the captain for retiring, ſaying he was going to bathe.

Soon after a meſſage came to Raa Hook from the queen, requeſting that ſhe might ſee the Engliſh at her dwelling. They attended him thither, and obſerved immediately before it a rail, on which were ſome tame pigeons tied by the leg. This is a bird held in ſuch eſtimation in thoſe iſlands, that none but rupacks and their families are allowed to eat them.

As they approached, the queen opened her window, and ſpoke to Raa Hook, to deſire the Engliſh would ſit down on the pavement before her, which being complied with, a number of attendants brought out yams, cocoa-nuts, and ſweet drink. While they were partaking of theſe, the queen aſked Raa Hook many queſtions about our people, of whom ſhe took very great notice, and wiſhed ſome of them would come cloſe to the window, and draw up their coat ſleeves, that ſhe might ſee the colour of their ſkins. After ſhe had viewed them attentively, and aſked, through Raa Hook, as many circumſtances reſpecting them as ſhe thought ſhe could with propriety obtrude, ſhe ſignified that ſhe would not longer treſpaſs on their time, by detaining them; ſo they roſe and took their leave.

Raa Hook now took them to his own houſe, where they were welcomed without any parade. His wife, among other things, gave them a broiled pigeon, a delicacy that, as before obſerved, only falls to the ſhare of the dignified.

There the character of the prince appeared in a new and intereſting light: his children encompaſſed him, and climbing to his knees, fondly careſſed their father, while his ſupreme pleaſure appeared to be in rolling and toſſing them about. This domeſtic ſcene, however, ſo much occupied the minds of the captain and officers, that it was dark before they thought of retiring. Raa Hook begged they would diſpenſe with his attendance, and ordered the Malay to conduct them to their deſtined habitation, where they found ſome fiſh for ſupper, ſent by the king. Though the night proved tempeſtuous, their houſe was ſo well thatched that the rain could not penetrate.

The king having ſignified to captain Wilſon his pleaſure of tendering to him the iſland where the Engliſh reſided, as a preſent, and informed him that they diſtinguiſhed it by the name of Oroolong, in order to announce poſſeſſion of it, the Britiſh pendant was hoiſted, and three vollies of ſmall arms fired. On the eaſt-ſide is the bay and harbour, which lies eaſt and weſt: it was judged the whole circumference of iſland did not exceed three miles. To this iſland the captain would have returned the day following (the night he paſſed with the officers under the roof of the hoſpitable Prince Raa Hook) if the weather had not turned unfavourable. They therefore took a ramble further into the country, where the lands appeared to be pretty well cultivated, and the villages full of inhabitants. They obſerved that the lower orders of the women were buſied in looking after the yam plantations, which were moſtly in ſwampy ground. Others they found employed in making baſkets and mats, and in nurſing their children. Among the women whom Raa Hook conducted about the cove, there was one who ſtruck all our countrymen, as being ſuperior in elegance and beauty, as well as in her graceful manner of walking, to any female they had noticed at Pelew; ſhe was very young, and they could not help making ſome enquiries about her of the general; who informed them, that ſhe was one of the king's wives, and was called Ludee. This lady, as well as all her female companions, teſtified that degree of ſurpriſe which the firſt ſight of our different works had excited in all the other natives.

The

The employment of the men ſeemed to be that of gathering cocoa-nuts, felling trees, and making ſpears and darts, the chief warlike inſtruments of the Pelewans. In the uſe of theſe they were remarkably expert, as they afforded abundant proof in divers engagements with the ſubjects of a neighbouring prince; in which they were aided by a ſelect party of the Engliſh at the requeſt of Abba Thulle, and obtained a complete victory by dint of the ſuperior force of our fire-arms.

As the Engliſh had been uſeful in their aſſiſtance againſt the enemy, the king was deliberating what preſent or compenſation he ſhould make to the Engliſh leader. After a while he ſent him, as a particular mark of his gratitude and eſteem, two lovely young women. Captain Wilſon, who was a grave ſober man, and had his ſon with him, a youth about ſeventeen, was particularly embarraſſed. He, however, thought proper to ſend them back again. The king of Pelew was exceedingly unhappy that his preſent was not accepted, and concluded, in his own mind, that their being rejected was owing to their not being ſufficiently young. To obviate this objection, after ſome ſtrong parental ſtruggles, he actually ſent captain Wilſon his own daughter, a ſweet little girl, who was no more than twelve years old. She was of courſe returned alſo: but it was extremely difficult to ſatisfy the king that in this rejection of his preſents no inſult was intended.

The death of Raa Hook's valiant ſon afforded our people an opportunity of being acquainted with their funeral ceremonies. Having been invited to an entertainment by one of the rupacks, they were ſurpriſed, when the repaſt was ended, at hearing the doleful lamentations of women at ſome diſtance; and going to the place from whence the ſound proceeded, they obſerved a concourſe of females following a dead body, held up in a mat, and laid on a ſort of bier, made of bamboos, carried by four men on their ſhoulders. Theſe were the only males in company. Our people followed to the place of interment, where the body was depoſited without any religious ceremony, the bearers filling up the grave with their hands and feet, while the women knelt down, and again vented the moſt piercing cries, at times indicating as if their phrenzy would lead them to tear up the corpſe.

The marriages of theſe people are ſimply a mutual contract between the ſexes, which is held inviolate. A plurality of wives is allowed; but they have ſeldom more than two. They had no eſtabliſhed religion, but ſeemed to poſſeſs an innate confidence of the efficacy of virtue, and the temporal advantages ariſing from moral rectitude.

CHAP. XXVI.

General Remarks on the Diſpoſition, Character, and Religion of the Natives. The Order of the Bone deſcribed. Intereſting Account of Lee Boo, one of the King's Sons, intruſted by his Father to the Care of Captain Wilſon, who ſails with him firſt to China, and afterwards arrives with him in England. Becoming Behaviour of the young Prince there; and affecting Particulars of his Death by the Small-Pox.

THE conduct of theſe people to the Engliſh, was from the firſt to the laſt uniformly courteous and attentive, accompanied with a politeneſs that ſurpriſed thoſe on whom it was beſtowed. At all times they ſeemed ſo cautious of intruding, that on many occaſions they ſacrificed their natural curioſity to that reſpect which decent good-manners appeared to them to exact. Their liberality to the Engliſh, at their departure, when individuals poured in all the beſt they had to give, and that of articles too, of which they had far from plenty themſelves, ſtrongly demonſtrated, that theſe teſtimonies of friendſhip were the effuſion of hearts that glowed with the flame of philanthropy; and when our countrymen, from want of ſtowage, were compelled to refuſe the further marks of kindneſs which were offered them, the entreating eyes, and ſupplicating geſtures with which they ſolicited their acceptance of what they had brought, moſt forcibly expreſſed how much their minds were wounded, to think they had not arrived early enough, to have their little tributes of affection received. Nor was this conduct of theirs an oſtentatious civility exerciſed towards ſtrangers; ſeparated as they were from the reſt of the world, the character of a ſtranger had never entered their imagination. They felt our people were diſtreſſed, and in conſequence wiſhed they ſhould ſhare what they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence, which beſtows and ſpreads its favours with a diſtant eye to retribution; their boſoms had never harboured ſo contaminating a thought—no; it was the pure emotions of native benevolence! it was the love of man! it was a ſcene that pictured human nature in triumphant colouring; and whilſt their liberality gratified the ſenſe, their virtue ſtruck the heart!

Having given a ſketch of the character of theſe people, it may not be amiſs to inquire concerning their religion; which we ſhall do in the words of Mr. Keate.

"There are few people, I believe, among the race of men, whom navigation hath brought to our knowledge, who have not ſhewn, in ſome inſtance or other, a ſenſe of ſomething like religion, how much ſoever it might be mixed with idolatry or ſuperſtition; and yet our people, during their continuance with the natives of Pelew, never ſaw any particular ceremonies, or obſerved any thing that had the appearance of public worſhip. Indeed, circumſtanced as the Engliſh were, they had not enough of the language to enter on topics of this nature; and it would alſo have been indiſcreet to have done it, as ſuch inquiries might have been miſconceived, or miſconſtrued by the natives: added to this, their thoughts were naturally bent on getting away, and preſerving, while they remained here, the happy intercourſe which ſubſiſted between them and the inhabitants.

"Though there was not found, on any of the iſlands they viſited, any place appropriated for religious rites, it would perhaps be going too far to declare, that the people of Pelew had abſolutely no idea of religion. Independent of external ceremony, there may be ſuch a thing as the religion of the heart, by which the mind may, in awful ſilence, be turned to contemplate the God of nature; and though unbleſſed with thoſe lights, which have pointed to the Chriſtian world an unerring path to happineſs and peace, yet they might, from the light of reaſon only, have diſcovered the efficacy of virtue, and the temporal advantages ariſing from moral rectitude.

"The reader will, by this time, have met with ſufficient occurrences to convince him, that the inhabitants of theſe new-diſcovered regions had a fixed and rooted ſenſe of the great moral duties: this appeared to govern their conduct, glow in all their actions, and grace their lives. Actuated by ſuch principles, we ſee them laborious, induſtrious, and benevolent: in moments of danger firm, and prodigal of life; in misfortunes patient, in death reſigned. And if, under all theſe circumſtances, he can conceive, that the natives of Pelew paſſed their lives without ſome degree of *confidence*, ſome degree of *hope*, I have only to ſay, his idea of mankind muſt widely differ from my own.

"Superſtition is a word of great latitude, and vaguely defined; though it hath, in enlightened eyes, been called the offſpring of ignorance; yet in no

times hath it exiſted without having ſome connection with religion. Now that the people of Pelew had, beyond all doubt, ſome portion of it, appears from the wiſh expreſſed by the king, when he ſaw the ſhip (Oroolong) building, 'That the Engliſh would take out of it ſome particular wood, which he perceived they had made uſe of, and which, he obſerved to them, was deemed to be of *ill omen*, or *unpropitious*.'

"They had alſo an idea of an evil ſpirit, that often counteracted human affairs; a very particular inſtance of this was ſeen, when Mr. Barker (a moſt valuable member in the Engliſh Society) fell backward from the ſide of the veſſel, then on the ſtocks; Raa Hook, who happened to be preſent, obſerved thereupon, that it was owing to the *unlucky wood* our people had ſuffered to remain in the veſſel, that the evil ſpirit had occaſioned this miſchief to Mr. Barker.

"In the paſſage from Pelew to China, ſomewhat was diſcovered in Prince Le Boo, pretty ſimilar to what is called *ſecond-ſight*. At the time he was very ſea-ſick, he ſaid, how much he was concerned at the diſtreſs his father and friends were feeling, who *knew* what he was then ſuffering. [His expreſſion at the time was, *that he was ſenſible his father and family had been very unhappy from knowing that he had been ſick*.] The ſame anxiety operated on him on their account, when he perceived his diſſolution drawing near.

"They certainly entertained ſo ſtrong an idea of divination, that whenever any matter of moment was going to be undertaken, they conceived they could, by ſplitting the leaves of a particular plant, that was not unlike our bulruſh, and meaſuring the ſtripes of this long narrow leaf on the back of their middle-finger, form a judgment whether it would or would not turn out proſperous. This was obſerved by Mr. M. Wilſon, in his firſt viſit to the king at Pelew; and, on inquiry, was afterwards explained to the Engliſh by the linguiſt, as being done to diſcover if their arrival foreboded good or ill-fortune. It was noticed by ſeveral of our people, that the king recurred to this ſuppoſed oracle on different occaſions, particularly at the time when they went on the ſecond expedition againſt Artingall, a neighbouring iſland, when he appeared to be very unwilling to go aboard his canoe, and kept all his attendants waiting, till he had tumbled and twiſted his leaves into a form that ſatisfied his mind, and predicted ſucceſs. Our people never obſerved any perſon but the king apply to this divination.

"It is hardly poſſible but the fond anxiety of a parent, on giving up a ſon into the hands of ſtrangers, who were to convey him to remote regions, of which he could form to himſelf but very imperfect notions, would, on ſo intereſting a point, induce him to examine his oracle with uncommon attention; and it is as little to be doubted, but that every thing wore, to his imagination, a proſperous appearance: yet, to evince the fallacy of his prophetic leaves, they certainly augured not the truth, nor preſented to the father's mind even a ſuſpicion, that the ſon he parted with, he ſhould ſee no more!

"On this ſubject, I would further wiſh to bring back to the reader's recollection a few occurrences:—As Raa Hook, and others of the natives, were two or three times preſent, when captain Wilſon, on a Sunday evening, aſſembled his people to read prayers to them, they expreſſed no ſurpriſe at what was doing, but appeared clearly to underſtand, that it was the mode in which the Engliſh addreſſed the inviſible God, whom they looked up to for protection; and how different ſoever their own notions might be, they attended the Engliſh on theſe occaſions with great reſpect, ſeeming deſirous to join it, and conſtantly preſerving the moſt profound ſilence, the general never allowing the natives to ſpeak a ſingle word, and refuſing even to receive a meſſage from the king, which arrived at the tents during divine ſervice.

"The ceremony uſed by Raa Hook, after the funeral of his ſon, when he repeated ſomething to himſelf whilſt he was marking the cocoa-nuts, and the bundle of beetle-leaves which the old woman was to place on the young man's grave, had every appearance of a pious office; and when he planted the cocoa-nuts, and ſome other fruit trees on the iſland of Oroolong, what he uttered in a low voice, as each ſeed was depoſited in the earth, impreſſed thoſe preſent as the giving a benediction to the future tree that was to ſpring from it. The king alſo, when he took leave of his ſon, ſaid a few words, which, by the ſolemnity they were delivered with, and the reſpectful manner in which Lee Boo received them, induced all our countrymen to conceive it was a kind of bleſſing.

"I muſt, in this place, add a circumſtance that paſſed in converſation with captain Wilſon and Lee Boo, after he had been ſome time in England: the former telling him, that ſaying prayers at church was to make men good, that when they died, and were buried, they might live again above (pointing to the ſky) Lee Boo, with great earneſtneſs, replied, *All ſame Pelew; bad men ſtay on earth; good men go into ſky, become very beautiful*—holding his hand in the air, and giving a fluttering motion to his fingers. This ſurely conveyed a ſtrong idea, that they believed the ſpirit exiſted, when the body was no more.

"After combining all theſe facts, and uniting them with the moral characters of the people, the reader is left in a ſituation to judge for himſelf; independent of Lee Boo's declaration, whether it is probable that their lives could be conducted with that decency we have ſeen, and their minds trained to ſo ſtrong a ſenſe of juſtice, propriety, and decency, without having ſome guiding principle of religion; thus much, at leaſt, I think, we may be authoriſed to aſſert—If all this was effected without it, it proves, that the natives of Pelew had been happy enough, not only to diſcover, but to be perfectly convinced, that VIRTUE IS ITS OWN REWARD."

After three months ſtay on the iſland, our countrymen were enabled, by the moſt perſevering toil, but ſtill more by the beneficence and integrity of the natives, to build a veſſel out of the fragments of their wreck. In this, after leaving one of the crew, named Madan Blanchard, who requeſted permiſſion to remain on the iſland, they departed on the 12th of November, and arrived at Macao on the 30th of the ſame month, whence they afterwards proceeded to England.

The king finding the Engliſh were preparing for their departure in their new veſſel, the Oroolong, ſent in the morning a meſſage to captain Wilſon, deſiring him to come to him at the watering-place; and on his arrival, acquainted him, that it was his intention to inveſt him with the Order of the BONE, and make him in form a rupack of the firſt rank. The captain expreſſed his acknowledgment for the honour his majeſty purpoſed to confer on him, and the pleaſure he felt at being admitted a Chief of Pelew.

The king and all the rupacks then went and ſat down under the ſhade of ſome large trees, and captain Wilſon was deſired to ſit at a little diſtance; when Raa Kook receiving the bone, preſented it as from his brother, Abba Thulle, and wanted to know which hand he uſed in common. This the general wiſhed to aſcertain, by putting a ſtone in his hand, which he deſired him to throw at a diſtance from him. Finding it was the right-hand he naturally uſed, he was again requeſted to ſit down, and the bone applied to his left-hand, to ſee if it was large enough for his hand to ſlip through: being not found ſufficiently ſo, it was raſped away, till judged to be wide enough: when Raa Kook, the chief miniſter, and

all the rupacks, proceeded to the inveſtment, in the following manner:

The general made a ſtring faſt to each of the fingers of the captain's left-hand, and then lubricating the hand with oil, the chief miniſter placed himſelf behind the captain, holding him faſt by the ſhoulders: Raa Kook then paſſed the different ſtrings through the bone, and giving them to another rupack, they endeavoured to draw his hand through; Raa Kook, at the ſame time, with his own hand, compreſſing that of the captain into the ſmalleſt compaſs he poſſibly could, ſo that the bone might paſs over the joints. During this, the moſt profound ſilence was preſerved, both by the rupacks who aſſiſted, and the people who attended as ſpectators, except by the king, who occaſionally ſuggeſted in what manner they might facilitate the operation. The point being at laſt obtained, and the hand fairly paſſed through, the whole aſſembly expreſſed great joy. Abba Thulle then addreſſing the captain, told him, *That the bone ſhould be rubbed bright every day, and preſerved as a teſtimony of the rank he held amongſt them; that this mark of dignity muſt, on every occaſion, be defended valiantly, nor ſuffered to be torn from his arm, but with the loſs of life.*

The ceremony ended, all the rupacks congratulated captain Wilſon on his being one of their order; and the inferior natives flocked round to look at the bone, and appeared highly pleaſed to ſee his arm adorned with it, calling him Englees Rupack.

This mark of diſtinction is given and received in thoſe regions, as a reward of valour and fidelity, and held out as the prize of merit. The decoration indeed derives all its ſplendor from the combined ideas of the mind whilſt viewing it; and the imagination is equally impreſſed with the ſame ſentiment, whether the badge of honour be a ſtrip of velvet tied round the knee, a tuft of ribband and croſs dangling at the button-hole, a ſtar embroidered on the coat, or a bone upon the arm.

Anecdotes of Lee Boo, ſecond Son of Abba Thulle.

The king, his father, from a predilection to our people, reſolved to intruſt this his ſecond ſon to the care of captain Wilſon, that he might have the advantage of improving himſelf, by accompanying the Engliſh, and of learning many things, that might, at his return, greatly benefit his own country. He added, that one of the Malays, from Pelelew, a neighbouring iſland, ſhould alſo go to attend on him.—He deſcribed his ſon as a young man of an amiable and gentle diſpoſition; that he was ſenſible, and of a mild temper, and ſpoke much in his commendation.

Captain Wilſon expreſſed himſelf exceedingly obliged and honoured by this ſingular mark of the king's confidence and eſteem; and aſſured him, that he ſhould endeavour to merit the high truſt repoſed in him, by treating the young prince with the ſame tenderneſs and affection as his own ſon.

Lee Boo, we are told, gave our people an early opportunity of ſeeing the natural benevolence of his mind; for when at Canton, ſeeing ſome of the Chineſe boats, that are rowed by poor Tartar women, with their little children tied to their backs (and who live in families on the water) ſurround the veſſel, to petition for fragments of victuals; the young prince, on noticing their ſupplications, gave them oranges, and ſuch other things as he had, being particularly attentive to offer them thoſe things which he liked beſt himſelf.

Amongſt ſeveral other things which ſolicited his notice, when at the houſe of Mr. M'Intyre, at Macao, there was a large mirror at the upper end of the hall, which reflected almoſt his whole perſon. Here Lee Boo ſtood in perfect amazement at ſeeing himſelf;—he laughed—he drew back—and returned to look again, quite abſorbed in wonder—he made an effort to look behind, as if conceiving ſomebody was there, but found the glaſs fixed cloſe to the wall. Mr. M'Intyre obſerving the idea that had croſſed him, ordered a ſmall glaſs to be brought into the room, wherein having viewed his face, he looked behind, to diſcover the perſon who looked at him, totally unable to make out how all this was produced.

As he drew near the Britiſh Channel, the number of veſſels that he obſerved purſuing their different courſes, increaſing ſo much, he was obliged to give up the keeping of his journal. When the Morſe got to the Iſle of Wight, captain Wilſon, his brother, the prince, with ſeveral other paſſengers, quitted her, and coming in a boat between the Needles, arrived ſafe at Portſmouth the 14th day of July, 1784. On landing, the number and ſize of the men of war, then in harbour, the variety of houſes, and the ramparts, were all objects of attraction: he ſeemed ſo totally abſorbed in ſilent ſurpriſe, that he had no leiſure to aſk any queſtions.

Mr. Keate, the writer of captain Wilſon's account of the Pelew-Iſlands, obſerves, that going to Rotherhithe to ſee the captain, Lee Boo was reading at a window; that he recollected him inſtantly, and flew with eagerneſs to the door to meet him, looked on him as a friend, ever after attached himſelf to him, appearing to be happy whenever they met together. That he ſeemed to be pleaſed with every thing about him, and ſaid, *All fine country, fine ſtreet, fine coach, and houſe upon houſe up to ſky*, putting alternately one hand above another, by which it was found (their own habitations being all on the ground) that every ſeparate ſtory of our buildings, he, at that time, conſidered as a diſtinct houſe.

He was introduced to ſeveral of the directors of the India-Company, taken to viſit many of the captain's friends, and gradually ſhewn moſt of the public buildings, in the different quarters of the town; but his prudent conductor had the caution to avoid taking him to any places of public entertainment, leſt he might, in thoſe heated reſorts, catch the ſmall-pox, a diſeaſe which he purpoſed to inoculate the young prince with, as ſoon as he had acquired enough of our language, to be reaſoned into the neceſſity of ſubmitting to the operation; judging, and ſurely not without good reaſon, that by giving him ſo offenſive and troubleſome a diſtemper, without firſt explaining its nature, and preparing his mind to yield to it, might weaken that unbounded confidence which this youth placed in his adopted father.

After he had been a while ſettled, and a little habituated to the manners of this country, he was ſent every day to an academy at Rotherhithe, to be inſtructed in reading and writing, which he himſelf was eager to attain, and moſt aſſiduous in learning. His whole deportment, while there, was ſo engaging, that it not only gained him the eſteem of the gentleman under whoſe tuition he was placed, but alſo the affection of his young companions. In the hours of receſs, when he returned to the captain's houſe, he amuſed the whole family by his vivacity, noticing every particularity he ſaw in any of his ſchoolfellows, with great good-humour mimicking their different manners, ſometimes ſaying he would have a ſchool of his own when he returned to Pelew, and ſhould be thought very wiſe, when he taught the great people their letters.

Captain Wilſon, and the young prince, dining with Mr. Keate early after his arrival, the latter was aſking how he was affected by painting: on mentioning the ſubject, Dr. Carmichael Smyth, whom Dr. Keate had requeſted to meet this ſtranger, wiſhed the laſt-mentioned perſon to bring a miniature of himſelf, that thereby all might obſerve if it ſtruck him. He took it in his hand, and inſtantly darting his eyes towards Mr. Keate, called out, *Miſſer Keate, very nice, very good.* The captain then aſking him, if he

underſtood

underſtood what it ſignified, he replied, *Lee Boo underſtand well*, that *Miſſer Keate die*—this *Miſſer Keate live*. The writer remarks, that a treatiſe on the utility and intent of portrait-painting, could not have better defined the art than this little ſentence. Mrs. Wilſon deſiring Lee Boo, who was on the oppoſite ſide of the table, to ſend her ſome cherries, perceiving that he was going to take them up with his fingers, jocoſely noticed it to him; when he inſtantly reſorted to a ſpoon; but ſenſible that he had diſcovered a little unpoliteneſs, his countenance was in a moment covered with a bluſh, that viſibly forced itſelf through his dark complexion.

Whenever he had opportunities of ſeeing gardens, he was an attentive obſerver of the plants and fruit-trees, would aſk many queſtions about them, and ſay, when he returned home, he would take ſeeds of ſuch as would live and flouriſh in Pelew; talked frequently of the things he ſhould then perſuade the king to alter, or adopt; and appeared, in viewing moſt objects, to conſider how far they might be rendered uſeful to his own country.

He was now proceeding with haſty ſtrides in gaining the Engliſh language, and advancing ſo rapidly with his pen, that he would, probably, in a very ſhort time, have written a very fine hand, when he was overtaken by that very diſeaſe, which with ſo much caution had been guarded againſt. On the 16th of December, 1784, he felt himſelf much indiſpoſed, and in a day or two after an eruption appeared all over him. Dr. Smyth told the family, that there was not a doubt with reſpect to the diſeaſe; and was ſorry to add (what he thought it right to prepare them for) that the appearances were ſuch as almoſt totally precluded the hope of a favourable termination.

Mrs. Wilſon happening to have ſome indiſpoſition at this time, which confined her to her bed, Lee Boo, on hearing of it, became impatient, ſaying, *What, mother ill! Lee Boo get up to ſee her;* which he did, and would go to her apartment, to be ſatisfied how ſhe really was.

On the Thurſday before his death, walking acroſs the room, he looked at himſelf in the glaſs (his face being then much ſwelled and diſfigured) he ſhook his head, and turned away, as if diſguſted at his own appearance, and told Mr. Sharp, *that his father and mother much grieve, for they knew he was very ſick;* this he repeated ſeveral times. At night, growing worſe, he began to think himſelf in danger: he took Mr. Sharp by the hand, and fixing his eyes ſtedfaſtly on him, with earneſtneſs ſaid, *Good friend, when you go to Pelew, tell Abba Thulle, that Lee Boo take much drink, to make ſmall-pox go away, but he die: that the captain and mother* (meaning Mrs. Wilſon) *very kind;—all Engliſh very good men—was much ſorry he could not ſpeak to the king the number of fine things the Engliſh had got.* Then he reckoned what had been given him as preſents, which he wiſhed Mr. Sharp would diſtribute, when he went back, among the chiefs; and requeſted that very particular care might be taken of the blue glaſs barrels, or pedeſtals, which he directed ſhould be given to the king. Poor Tom Roſe, who ſtood at the foot of his young maſter's bed, was ſhedding tears at hearing all this, which Lee Boo obſerving, rebuked him for his weakneſs, aſking, *Why ſhould he be crying ſo becauſe Lee Boo die?*

Whatever he felt, his ſpirit was above complaining; and Mrs. Wilſon's chamber being adjoining to his own, he often called out to inquire if ſhe was better, always adding (leſt ſhe might ſuffer any diſquietude on his account) *Lee Boo do well, mother.* The ſmall-pox, which had been out eight or nine days, not riſing, he began to feel himſelf ſink; and told Mr. Sharp, *he was going away.* His mind, however, remained perfectly clear and calm to the laſt, though what he ſuffered in the latter part of his exiſtence, was ſevere, indeed! The ſtrength of his conſtitution ſtruggled long and hard againſt the venom of his diſtemper, till exhauſted nature yielded in the conteſt.

Mr. Keate proceeds with his affecting narrative, as follows:

"Dr. Smyth had the goodneſs, every day, on his return from Rotherhithe, to inform me (captain Wilſon) of the ſtate of his patient, but never gave me any hope of his recovery. Being under an engagement with my family to paſs a week at the houſe of my friend, Mr. Brook Watſon, at Sheen, who was equally anxious and alarmed as ourſelves for this amiable young man, I requeſted the doctor would have the goodneſs to continue to me his information. The ſecond day after I left town, I received the intelligence of his death, which deeply affected us all. I cannot give an account of this malancholy event ſo well as by tranſcribing Dr. Smyth's letter, by which it was conveyed to me.

"*Monday, Dec.* 27, 1784.

"MY DEAR SIR,

"It is an unpleaſant taſk for me to be the herald of bad news; yet, according to my promiſe, I muſt inform you of the fate of poor Lee Boo, who died this morning without a groan, the vigour of his mind and body reſiſting to the very laſt. Yeſterday, the ſecondary fever coming on, he was ſeized with a ſhivering fit, ſucceeded by a head-ache, violent palpitation of the heart, anxiety, and difficult breathing; he again uſed the warm bath, which, as formerly, afforded him a temporary relief. He had a bliſter put on his back, which was as ineffectual as thoſe applied to his legs. He expreſſed all his feelings to me, in the moſt forcible and pathetic manner, put my hand upon his heart, leaned his head on my arm, and explained his uneaſineſs in breathing; but when I was gone, he complained no more, ſhewing that he complained with a view to be relieved, not to be pitied.—In ſhort, living or dying, he has given me a leſſon which I ſhall never forget; and ſurely, for patience and fortitude, he was an example worthy of the imitation of a ſtoic! I did not ſee captain Wilſon when I called this morning, but the maid-ſervant was in tears, and every perſon in the family wore the face of grief: poor Lee Boo's affectionate temper made every one look upon him as a brother or a child. Compliments to the ladies, and to Mr. Watſon, who, I make no doubt, will all join in regretting the untimely end of our poor prince; from you, my friend, ſomething more will be expected; and though you cannot bring him back to life, you are called upon (particularly conſidering his great attachment to you) not to let the memory of ſo much virtue paſs away unrecorded. But I am interrupted in theſe melancholy reflections, and have only time to aſſure you of (what will never paſs away but with myſelf) the ſincere friendſhip of

"Your affectionate, &c.

"JAMES CARMICHAEL SMYTH."

Captain Wilſon notified to the India-Houſe the unfortunate death of this young man; and received orders to conduct every thing with proper decency reſpecting his funeral. He was interred in Rotherhithe church-yard, the captain and his brother attending. All the young people of the academy joined in this teſtimony of regard; and the concourſe of people at the church was ſo great, that it appeared as if the whole pariſh had aſſembled, to join in ſeeing the laſt ceremonies paid to one, who was ſo much beloved by all who had known him in it.

The India-Company, ſoon after, ordered a tomb to be erected over his grave, with the following inſcription:

TO

TO THE MEMORY
Of Prince LEE BOO,
A Native of the Pelew, or Palos-Iſlands,
And Son to ABBA THULLE, Rupack, or King
Of the Iſland COOROORAA;
Who departed this Life on the 17th of December 1784,
Aged 20 Years.
This Stone is inſcribed
By the Honourable United Eaſt-India-Company,
As a Teſtimony of Eſteem for the humane and
Kind Treatment
Afforded by his Father to the Crew of their Ship,
The Antelope, Captain Wilſon,
Which was wrecked off that Iſland,
On the Night of the 9th of Auguſt, 1783.

Stop, Reader, ſtop!—let NATURE claim a tear;
A Prince of *mine*—LEE BOO lies bury'd here.

From the above recited anecdotes of this amiable youth, cut off in the moment that his character began to bloſſom, what hopes might not have been entertained of the future fruit ſuch a plant would have produced! He had both ardour and talents for improvement, and every gentle quality of the heart to make himſelf beloved; ſo that, as far as the dim ſight of mortals is permitted to penetrate, he might, had his days been lengthened, have carried back to his own country, not the vices of a new world, but thoſe ſolid advantages which his own good ſenſe would have ſuggeſted, as likely to become moſt uſeful to it.

The evening before the Oroolong ſailed, the king aſked captain Wilſon, how long it might be before his return to Pelew? And being told, that it would probably be about thirty moons, or might chance to extend to ſix more. Abba Thulle drew from his baſket a piece of line, and, after making thirty knots on it, a little diſtance from each other, left a long ſpace, and then adding ſix others, carefully put it by.

As the ſlow but ſure ſteps of time have been moving onward, the reader's imagination will figure the anxious parent reſorting to this cheriſhed remembrancer, and with joy untying the earlier records of each elapſing period:—as he ſees him advancing on his line, he will conceive that joy redoubled; and when nearly approaching to the thirtieth knot, almoſt accuſing the planet of the night for paſſing ſo tardily away.

When verging towards the termination of his lateſt reckoning, he will then picture the mind of the good old king, glowing with parental affection, occaſionally alarmed by doubt, yet ſtill buoyed up by hope; he will then fancy him pacing inquiſitively the ſeaſhore, and often commanding his people to aſcend every rocky height, and glance their eyes along the level line of the horizon which bounds the ſurrounding ocean, to ſee if haply it might not in ſome part be broken by the diſtant appearance of a returning ſail.

Laſtly, he will view the good Abba Thulle, wearied out by that expectation which ſo many returning moons, ſince his reckoning ceaſed, have by this time taught him he had nouriſhed in vain. But the reader will bring him back to his remembrance, as armed with that unſhaken fortitude, which was equal to the trials of varying life. He will not in him, as in leſs manly ſpirits, ſee the paſſions ruſhing into oppoſite extremes:—hope turned into deſpair—affection converted to hatred. No—after ſome allowance for their natural fermentation, he will ſuppoſe them all placidly ſubſiding into the calm of reſignation. In proof of the truth of theſe remarks, we doubt not, it will afford peculiar ſatisfaction to our readers, to be informed, that in the beginning of September, 1791, advices were received by the Lord Thurlow Eaſt-Indiaman, that the Panther, of 200 tons, commanded by lieutenant M'Cluer, with the Endeavour, of 60 tons, had ſailed from Bombay on the 23d of Auguſt, 1790, and arrived ſafely at the Pelew-Iſlands.

On their arrival, they obſerved two canoes, which made towards the ſhore, inſtead of coming to the ſhips, as had been expected. Theſe, they ſuppoſed, were going to give an account to Abba Thulle of their arrival; and in this conjecture they were not miſtaken; for ſoon after, they ſaw a number of canoes coming after them, in one of which was the good old king.

Immediately on his coming on board, he went up to the captain, taking him, by his dreſs, to be his former friend, captain Wilſon, and immediately felt on his arm for the *bone* (a mark of honour he had conferred on the captain) and inquired what was become of it. Finding his miſtake in the perſon, and being told that captain Wilſon was alive and well in England, he expreſſed great ſatisfaction.

Captain M'Cluer then communicated to him the death of Lee Boo, and the diſorder of which he died; for which event, the good old man ſaid, that he had prepared his mind; that he had counted up to ſome ſcore moons, but the time being paſſed, he had deſpaired of ever ſeeing the Engliſh more, judging that they had either periſhed in their voyage to China, or did not intend to return again to viſit his iſlands: he was, however, perfectly confident in the goodneſs of the Engliſh, and that captain Wilſon would take care of his ſon.

In relating the death of Blanchard (the ſeaman who had been left there by his deſire) he was full of grief, and could hardly expreſs himſelf, ſo much did he feel his loſs. Blanchard was mortally wounded in an engagement with the people of Pelelew, and died ſoon after; as did the great and good friends of captain Wilſon and his crew, Raa Hook, and Arra Kooker. During the time of captain M'Cluer's ſtay at the iſlands, which was near a month, the utmoſt harmony and friendſhip prevailed; and the good old king liberally ſupplied them with fiſh and yams, when the canoes came in, as he uſed to do to his former friends.

We have now given a circumſtantial review of regions firſt explored in the vaſt Pacific-Ocean, by the lateſt, moſt ingenious, and enterpriſing navigators; in which the inquiſitive mind has been preſented with a diſplay of human nature, in its rude and uncultivated ſtate, and have therein pictured ſcenes tending to excite equal horror and amazement; but are happy to obſerve, that we have been enabled to cloſe this part of the New Diſcoveries, with a copious deſcription of the Pelew-Iſlands, the character and virtues of whoſe inhabitants appear in the moſt amiable light, and cannot fail to affect the intelligent and philanthropic reader with the moſt pleaſing ſenſations in the peruſal.

†

APPENDIX.

Additional Information reſpecting the late Prince Le Boo, relating to the Diverſions of the Engliſh, and ſent to his Father, the King of the Pelew Iſlands.

"WHAT I have ſaid to you, beloved ſire, on the politics of this people, has been ſhort and ſuperficial; becauſe you have taught me to ſpeak with diffidence and reſerve on matters of this high nature; and becauſe the laws, by which this country is governed, are too numerous and profound to be haſtily learned. Their cuſtoms and manners alſo require a longer reſidence than I have yet made among them, to be clearly comprehended, and fairly judged. Our prejudices do not ſuffer us to reflect, that theſe ought always to be conſidered with a reference to the climate, wants, and civil condition, of the country. As experience ripens my judgment, expect from me better remarks on all theſe particulars: at preſent, accept, with your uſual indulgence ſuch obſervations as have occurred to me; they will at leaſt ſerve to mark the ſtages of my improvement, as you compare thoſe of different dates together.

"I ſhall firſt of all preſent you with a ſketch of their amuſements, in which you told me, in our laſt converſation, before I mounted into the large floating-caſtle, I ſhould ſee a vaſt deal of the temper and natural character of the people I was about to viſit. You will ſcarcely credit it, but I aſſure you, I make continual miſtakes between their amuſements and their buſineſs; and ſometimes imagine they are purſuing ſome ſport, when, in reality, they are occupied about objects of a ſerious and ſolemn nature: for, notwithſtanding this people are capable of ſuch ſtupendous efforts of art and ſcience, they have a way of mixing a littleneſs of character with their grandeur of ſpirit, qualities that are held incompatible with us; and thus is produced a ſort of farcical and ridiculous diſproportion. This equivocal appearance of many of their proceedings will, doubtleſs, fill my letters with numerous errors; but I ſhall take care to rectify them as I advance in my acquaintance with the ſubject, ſo as in the end to communicate ſome advantage to yourſelf, and conſequently to my dear country, from theſe opportunities which I owe to your indulgence.

"To begin, then, you muſt know that the other day I was carried to a very large room, in which they told me was aſſembled the great council of the nation: but I preſently ſaw through it, and perceived clearly that it was a kind of game, in imitation of a ſenate; and, indeed, it was performed ſo well, that had it not been for a great deal of laughing, coughing, ſcraping, and hallooing, it might have been impoſed upon me for a real aſſembly of the great men of the nation, met to debate on its moſt important intereſts; for here and there, there was a vaſt deal of animation aſſumed, and eloquence diſplayed, and even moments of gravity, ſuch as characterize all our meetings for the good of our country. My ignorance of the language diſqualified me from participating in the joke; but, from the eagerneſs and perſeverance with which it was purſued, I could plainly perceive that it was very entertaining to thoſe engaged.

"The following night I was taken to an exhibition, called a maſquerade, which I only mention here as a contraſt to the humorous ſcene I was preſent at the day before, ſince it ſeems to be more properly a ceremony than an amuſement; I mention it, too, as one inſtance, among a very few, in which this generous people have uſed a reſerve toward me in reſpect of the explanation of their manners and cuſtoms; for they fain would have perſuaded me, that this maſquerade, as it is called, was a mere diverſion among the young men and women of quality, while nothing could be more clear than that it was a religious celebration. I can conceive it ſo natural to laugh at the practices of other countries, eſpecially thoſe which appertain to their religion, that I muſt own, I think them entirely excuſable for veiling thoſe rites and myſteries, for the preſent, from my eyes, until I ſhall have worn off my firſt prejudices. There was ſomething ſplendidly ſolemn in this whole ceremony; and, if there was any interruption to the gravity of the ſcene, it was occaſioned by ſome ſtrange cries and whimſical contortions, which, however ridiculous they appear to the inhabitants of other countries, I have no doubt, make a very ſerious impreſſion on the boſoms of the natives, as being in honour of the different deities they adore. There was a vaſt variety of dreſſes, which I conceived to be repreſentative of particular orders and deſcriptions, who then, through the medium of one of theſe fraternity, offered their reſpective adorations; while the prieſts wore all the ſame clothing, called by the natives a domino. I ſay I conceived all this, becauſe a certain awe and timidity with which I felt myſelf inſpired, made me forbear any queſtion that might ſeem to reſult from impertinent curioſity.

"There is one circumſtance reſpecting this country, which, to my ideas, is altogether unaccountable; and that is, the great leaſure they have for idleneſs, in the midſt of ſuch proofs of their labour and ingenuity as overpower the imagination. It ſurpriſes me the more, my beloved father, becauſe you know I have been accuſtomed to ſee every individual uſefully employed in my own country; it being one of your favourite maxims, that the happineſs of your people requires it. Thou, who art a mighty prince, art likewiſe the beſt workman in thy dominions; for who can make hatchets to equal thine? But here the great men can bear to ſit whole days unemployed, and will eat their food with inſtruments which other hands have formed, and live in houſes with the very principle of whoſe conſtruction they are little acquainted. From all this muſt reſult a vaſt deal of idle time to be filled up with mere amuſements; and it is aſtoniſhing how many theſe people have imagined, of which we have no conception. They are extremely fond of dancing; a paſtime which implies much leſs exertion with them than with us, and conſiſts chiefly in eating, drinking, and wearing fine ornaments. They extend this accompliſhment even to the brute creation; for I obſerve, that their dogs are taught to dance in the ſtreets of the capital: ſo much leiſure time have Engliſhmen to beſtow upon theſe diverſions.

"Their hunting is of various kinds; but the principal object of it is a poor little timid animal they call a hare: I have not yet ſeen it, but I ſhall hope to be enabled to ſend you a deſcription of it, together with an account of the birds and beaſts of the country. I cannot, however, forbear mentioning one remarkable property aſcribed to it, that of loving to be hunted, although its entertainment conſiſts ſolely in being torn to pieces by dogs; I was aſſured, however, of this by a perſon who is very fond of the chace. Another ſpecies of hunting, in which apparently they take great delight, is that of a huge, animal called in their language an ox; and this takes place often in the ſtreets of the city, to the great terror of all who do not mix in the ſport. There are no dogs uſed in this kind of hunting; at leaſt I could perceive none: indeed I was hurried away, by my kind protectors, ſo quick when the beaſt approached, that I could ſee but little of their mode of proceeding; though I beheld enough to make me wonder at ſuch a predilection in a people, who are, in a thouſand reſpects, ſo civilized and ſo humane.

"In my future account of the beaſts of this country, I ſhall ſay a great deal to you, by and by, about a

beautiful animal called the horſe, which will, with great eaſe and celerity, bear a man from place to place upon his back. They make this animal conducive to their ſport in an amuſement they term racing, in which two or more of them are made to run one againſt the other, with men on their backs, and wounded all the way with ſharp ſpikes. I cannot help wondering how good men can be pleaſed with ſuch fights; for it ſeems an unnatural and ungenerous conteſt, when two animals are urged beyond their ſtrength, and forced on by violent treatment. I am ſorry to find fault with a people to whom we have all, and myſelf particularly, been ſo greatly obliged; ſo that I am drawn oppoſite ways by truth and gratitude: but then again I conſider that nothing is ſo ſacred as truth; and that, after all, my greateſt gratitude is due to my father and my king, who requires that I ſhould always tell him the truth.

The other day I obſerved two men in a field, ſtripped as naked as it is the cuſtom with us, and beating one another till they were covered with blood, for the diverſion of an infinite number of ſpectators, who ſeemed to be delighted with the ſcene. Though our enemies taken in war have often been ſlaughtered before my eyes, yet I could ſo ill bear to ſee this fury between countrymen, and, as I was told, between men who had never quarrelled, and all to amuſe their fellow-creatures, that I turned away my eyes, and was ſorrowful all the reſt of the day. It added a good deal to my chagrin, to obſerve, in my way home, two dogs very furiouſly engaged; and, while they were miſerably tearing one another to pieces, a vaſt number of people gathering round them, and provoking their fury by clapping their hands, and a thouſand ſavage geſticulations.

They have alſo another ſport here, of a piece with ſome which I have already-mentioned, termed by the natives cock-fighting; though I am told that this amuſement is a little on the decline. The entertainment conſiſts in contemplating a very fierce combat between two large birds of great beauty, and ſingular uſe to mankind, which they arm with inſtruments that enable them to inflict dreadful wounds on each other, till one of them expires in conſiderable torture. I am ſorry to add, that I have ſeen ſome poltroons amuſe themſelves with throwing ſticks at this noble bird, which, for that purpoſe, they had confined by the leg. Their diverſions within doors are in ſuch great variety, that it would rob more important objects of all my time, if I were to think of deſcribing them to you; beſide which, I have only glanced at the greater part of them: for, my dear friend, here I am more profitably employed when I am improving myſelf in the language, or am acquiring knowledge, which may turn to the future benefit of your majeſty's people.

Their principal amuſement, in their own houſes, appears to be derived from a certain number of thin ſubſtances, ſpotted in a certain manner with different colours, and which, though they allow that they gain no ideas from them, will entertain them during the time that your majeſty would take to repel an invaſion of your dominions. I am prejudiced againſt this amuſement; becauſe I have obſerved it operate very unpleaſantly on the countenances of thoſe who are engaged in it; and I have ſeen ſome very handſome perſons, while playing at cards, entirely ſtripped of what rendered them before ſo amiable in my eyes. They have not yet made me comprehend how it can be; but they tell it to me as an undoubted truth, that ſometimes men loſe every thing that is valuable to them in this amuſement, if it deſerve that name, after we are told of this its deſtructive tendency; ſo that be aſſured, beloved father, I will not attempt to acquire ſo pernicious a talent. But the paſtime of which this great people ſeems moſt enamoured, is what their language denominates a play. I have not yet been preſent at one, ſo that I cannot pretend to give you any account of it; but as far as I can underſtand ſuch deſcriptions as have been given me of it, it is a powerful engine, whether it be uſed on the ſide of vice or virtue. I will ſend you a full account of the firſt which I ſhall be permitted to attend; but I fear that the ſilence obſerved about this amuſement, by my deareſt friends, is on the occount of the neglect into which this its moral efficacy may have ſunk in the preſent times.

The other day I was preſent at a diverſion, which at firſt wore a formidable appearance, but ſoon turned out to be a very inſignificant ſpectacle.—A number of perſons, armed with weapons, which they call bows and arrows, and which ſerve to the ſame purpoſe pretty nearly as our ſlings and ſpears, met together on a ſpacious plain. The profeſſed object of their meeting is to ſend their arrows into a painted piece of wood, which they denominate a target; but not more than a ſmall number of thoſe that came with that pretence, partook at all in the diverſion; ſo that, to make a diſplay before a great number of the women of the country, of their perſons and decorations, looks to be, with the major part, the real object which aſſembles them. I could not eaſily be convinced, that all this noiſe and parade was to anſwer no political end: at one time it occured to me, that it was a ſort of divination, by which heaven was conſulted in the appointment to certain poſts of eminence, and that the generals of armies, and captains of expeditions, were choſen in this kind of lottery; at another, that ſome ſecret terrors of an invaſion had begun to ſpread in the country, and that this martial exerciſe was meant as preparative to a vigorous defence. I was at length, however, perſuaded, that they were a very peaceable ſet of people, and that all this uproar proceeded only from an outrageous love of flouriſh and ſhow, and, in fact, was nothing more than an apology for a feather in their hats. I was a little afraid at firſt of coming near them; but, upon trial, I found them ſo familiarly and tamely diſpoſed, that one of them ſuffered me to take his hat off his head, and ſtrutted to and fro, apparently in high good humour, while I admired his feather. There is always a great gathering from all parts to ſee this ſpectacle; and the ladies, for whoſe amuſement the whole is deſigned, appear extravagantly pleaſed with beholding their huſbands and relatives ſo cheaply metamorphoſed into champions and warriors.

Extracts from Mr. Bruce's Travels in Abyſſinia.

ON the 27th of January, ſays Mr. Bruce, we paſſed among ruined villages, the monuments of Ras Michael's cruelty or juſtice; for it is hard to ſay whether the cruelty, robberies, and violence of the former inhabitants did not deſerve the ſevereſt chaſtiſement. We ſaw many people feeding cattle on the plain, and we again opened a market for flour and other proviſions, which we procured in barter for cohol, incenſe, and beads. They were of a lighter colour, and taller than thoſe at Kella. Their noſes ſeemed flatter than thoſe of the Abyſſinians we had yet ſeen. Perhaps the climate here was beginning that feature ſo conſpicuous in the negroes in general, and particularly of thoſe called Shangalla, from whoſe country theſe people are not diſtant above two days journey. The 29th, we continued our journey through thick woods of ſmall trees, quite overgrown, and covered with wild oats, reeds, and long graſs, ſo that it was very difficult to find a path through them. Hauza was ſix miles ſouth, pleaſantly ſituated among a variety of mountains, all of different and extraordinary ſhapes; ſome are ſtraight like columns, and ſome ſharp in the point,

and

and broad in the baſe, like pyramids and obeliſks, and ſome like cones. All theſe, for the moſt part inacceſſible, unleſs with pain and danger to thoſe that know the paths, but they are places of refuge and ſafety in time of war, and are agreeably ſeparated from each other by ſmall plains producing grain. Some of theſe mountains, however, have at the top water and ſmall flats that can be ſown, ſufficient to maintain a number of men, independent of what is doing below them.

The 30th, we encamped at Addergey. The hyænas devoured one of the beſt of our mules. They are here in great plenty, and ſo are lions; the roaring and grumbling of the lions, in the part of the wood neareſt our tent, greatly diſturbed our beaſts, and prevented them from eating their provender. I lengthened the ſtrings of my tent, and placed the beaſts between them. The white ropes and the tremulous motion made by the impreſſion of the wind, frightened the lions from coming near us. I had procured two ſmall braſs bells, ſuch as the mules carry; theſe I tied to the ſtorm-ſtrings of the tent, where their noiſe, no doubt, greatly contributed to our beaſts ſafety from theſe ravenous, yet cautious animals, ſo that we never ſaw them; but the noiſe they made, and, perhaps, their ſmell, ſo terrified the mules, that, in the morning, they were drenched in ſweat as if they had been a long journey. But the bruti ſh hyæna was not ſo to be deterred. I ſhot one of them dead, and, I fired at another ſo near, that I was confident of killing him. Whether the balls had fallen out, or that I had really miſſed him with the firſt barrel, I know not, but he gave a ſnarl and a kind of bark upon the firſt ſhot, advancing directly upon me as if unhurt. The ſecond ſhot, however, took place, and laid him without motion on the ground. Yaſine and his men killed another with a pike; and ſuch was their determined coolneſs, that they ſtalked round about us with the familiarity of a dog, or any other domeſtic animal brought up with man. But we were ſtill more incommoded by a leſſer animal, a large black ant, about an inch long, which coming out from under the ground, demoliſhed our carpets, which they cut all into ſhreds, and part of the lining of our tent likewiſe, and every bag or ſack they could find. We had firſt ſeen them in great numbers at Angari, but here they were intolerable. Their bite cauſes a conſiderable inflammation, and the pain is greater than that which ariſes from the bite of a ſcorpion.

February 1ſt, the Shum, (or governor of the place) ſent his people to value our merchandiſe, that we might pay cuſtom. I humoured them ſo far as to open the caſes where were the teleſcopes and quadrant. They could only wonder at things they had never before ſeen.

Next day the Shum came himſelf, and a violent altercation enſued. At length he ſoftened his tone, and ſaid, he would diſpatch us on the morrow, and would ſend us that evening ſome proviſions. And, indeed, we now began to be in need, having only flour barely ſufficient to make bread for one meal next day. The miſerable village had nothing to barter with us; and none from the villages about the Shum had come near us, probably by his order. I gave him a ſmall preſent, and he went away repeating his promiſes. But all that evening paſſed without proviſion, and all next day without his coming, ſo we got every thing ready for our departure. Our ſupper did not prevent our ſleeping, as all our proviſion was gone, and we had taſted nothing all that day ſince our breakfaſt.

On the 4th, we left Addergey: hunger preſſing us. While employed in making ready for our departure, which was juſt in the dawn of day, a hyæna, unſeen by any of us, faſtened upon one of the aſſes. I was buſied in gathering the tent-pins into a ſack, and had placed my muſket and bayonet ready againſt a tree, as it is at that hour, and the cloſe of the evening, you are always to be on guard againſt banditti. A boy ſaw the hyæna firſt, and flew to my muſket. Yaſine was disjoining the poles of the tent, and, having one half of the largeſt in his hand, he ran to the aſſiſtance of the aſs, and in that moment the muſket went off, luckily charged with only one ball, which gave Yaſine a fleſh wound between the thumb and forefinger of his left-hand. The boy inſtantly threw down the muſket, which had terrified the hyæna, but he ſtood ready to fight Yaſine, who, not amuſing himſelf with the choice of weapons, gave him ſo rude a blow with the tent-pole upon his head, that it felled him to the ground; others, with pikes, put an end to his life. What ſufficiently marked the voracity of theſe beaſts, the hyænas, was, that the bodies of their dead companions, which we hauled a long way from us, and left there, were almoſt entirely eaten by the ſurvivors the next morning; and I then obſerved, for the firſt time, that the hyæna of this country was a different ſpecies from thoſe I had ſeen in Europe, which had been brought from Aſia or America.

At one o'clock we alighted at the foot of a mountain called Debra Toon. The mountains of Waldubba, reſembling thoſe of Adebarea, lay north of us about four or five miles. Waldubba, which ſignifies the *Valley of the Hyæna*, is a territory inhabited by the monks, who, for mortification's ſake, have retired to this unwholeſome, hot, and dangerous country, voluntarily to ſpend their lives in penitence, meditation, and prayer. This, too, is the only retreat of great men in diſgrace or in diſguſt. They firſt ſhave their hair, and put on a cowl like the monks, renouncing the world for ſolitude, and taking vows which they reſolve to keep no longer than exigencies require; after which they return to the world again, leaving their cowl and ſanctity in Waldubba. Theſe monks are held in great veneration; are believed by many to have the gift of prophecy, and ſome of them to work miracles, and are very active inſtruments to ſtir up the people in time of trouble. Violent fevers perpetually reign there. The inhabitants are all of the colour of a corpſe; and their neighbours, the Shangalla, by conſtant inroads, deſtroy many of them.

The 5th we encamped at the foot of the mountain Adama. On the other ſide of this valley are the broken hills which conſtitute the rugged banks of the Anzo. Behind theſe, the irregular and broken mountains of Salent appear in forms which European mountains never wear; and ſtill higher, above theſe, is the long ridge of Samen, which run along in an even ſtretch till they are interrupted by the high conical top of Lamalmon, reaching above the clouds, and reckoned to be the higheſt hill in Abyſſinia, over the ſteepeſt part of which, the road of all caravans to Gondar muſt lie. In this territory are ſeveral conſiderable villages; the people are much addicted to robbery, and rebellion, in which they were engaged at this time.

On the 8th, we began to aſcend Lamalmon, through a very narrow road, or rather path, for it ſcarcely was two feet wide any where. It was a ſpiral winding up the ſide of the mountain, always on the very brink of a precipice. Torrents of water, which in winter carry prodigious ſtones down the ſide of this mountain, had divided this path into ſeveral places, and opened to us a view of that dreadful abyſs below, which few heads can (mine at leaſt could not) bear to look down upon. We were here obliged to unload our baggage, and, by ſlow degrees, crawl up the hill, carrying them little by little upon our ſhoulders round theſe chaſms where the road was interſected. The mountains grow ſteeper, the paths narrower, and the breaches more frequent as we aſcend. Scarce were our mules, though unloaded, able to ſcramble up, but were perpetually

perpetually falling; and, to increaſe our difficulties, which, in ſuch caſes, ſeldom come ſingle, a large number of cattle was deſcending, and ſeemed to threaten to puſh us all into the gulph below. After two hours of conſtant toil, we alighted in a ſmall plain, neither beaſt nor man being able to go a ſtep further.——The air on Lamalmon is pleaſant and temperate. We found here our appetite return, with a cheerfulneſs, lightneſs of ſpirits, and agility of body, which indicated that our nerves had again reſumed their wonted tone, which they had loſt in the low, poiſonous, and ſultry air on the coaſt of the Red Sea. The ſun here is indeed hot, but in the morning a cool breeze never fails, which increaſes as the ſun riſes high. In the ſhade it is always cool.

Lamalmon is the paſs through which the road of all caravans to Gondar lies. It is here they take an account of all baggage and merchandiſe, which they tranſmit to the chief officer of the cuſtoms at Gondar. There is alſo a preſent due to the private proprietor of the ground; and this is levied with great rigour and violence, and, for the moſt part, with injuſtice; ſo that this ſtation is always the place where the firſt robberies and murders are committed in unſettled times. Though we had nothing with us which could be conſidered as ſubject to duty, we ſubmitted every thing to the will of the robber of the place, and gave him his preſent. If he was not ſatisfied, he ſeemed to be ſo, which was all we wanted. We had obtained leave to depart early in the morning of the 9th, but it was with great regret we were obliged to abandon our Mahometan friends into hands that ſeemed diſpoſed to ſhew them no favour. The king was far from Gondar, and various reports were ſpread abroad about the ſucceſs of the campaign; and theſe people only waited for an unfavourable event to make a pretence for robbing our fellow-travellers of every thing they had.

The perſons whoſe right it was to levy theſe contributions were two, a father and ſon; the old man was dreſſed very decently, ſpoke little, but ſmoothly, and had a very good carriage. He profeſſed a violent hatred to all Mahometans, on account of their religion, a ſentiment which ſeemed to promiſe nothing favourable to our friend Yaſine and his companions; but, in the evening, the ſon, who ſeemed to be the active man, came to our tent, and brought us a a quantity of bread and bouza, which his father had ordered before. He ſeemed to be much taken with our fire-arms, and I gave him every ſort of ſatisfaction. He brought his gun, and inſiſted on ſhooting at marks. I humoured him in this; but as I uſed a rifle, which he did not underſtand, he found himſelf overmatched, eſpecially by the greatneſs of the range, for he ſhot ſtraight enough. I then ſhewed him the manner we ſhot flying, there being quails in abundance, and wild pigeons, of which I killed ſeveral on wing, which left him in the utmoſt aſtoniſhment. Having got on horſeback, I next went through the exerciſe of the Arabs, with a long ſpear and a ſhort javelin. This was more within his comprehenſion, as he had ſeen ſomething like it; but he was wonderfully taken with the fierce and fiery appearance of my horſe, and, at the ſame time, with his docility, the form of his ſaddle, bridle, and accoutrements. He threw at laſt the ſandals off his feet, twiſted his upper garment into his girdle, and ſet off at ſo furious a rate, that I could not help doubting whether he was in his ſober underſtanding. It was not long till he came back, and with him ſervants carrying a ſheep and a goat, and a jar of honey-wine. I had not yet quitted the horſe; and when I ſaw what his intention was, I put the horſe to a gallop, and, with one of the barrels of the gun, ſhot a pigeon, and imediately fired the other into the ground. There was nothing after this that could have ſurprized him, and it was repeated ſeveral times at his deſire; after which he went into the tent, where he invited himſelf to my houſe at Gondar. There I was to teach him every thing he had ſeen. We now ſwore perpetual friendſhip; and I introduced the caſe of our fellow-travellers, and obtained a promiſe that we ſhould have leave to ſet out together.

On the 9th, we took leave of the friends whom we had ſo newly acquired at Lamalmon. We began to aſcend what ſtill remained of the mountain, which, though ſteep and full of buſhes, was much leſs difficult than that which we had paſſed. When we arrived at the top of Lamalmon, which has, from below, the appearance of being ſharp-pointed, we were much ſurpriſed to find there a large plain, part in paſture, but more bearing grain. It is full of ſprings, and ſeems to be the great reſervoir from whence ariſe moſt of the rivers that water this part of Abyſſinia. A multitude of ſtreams iſſue from the very ſummit in all directions; the ſprings boil out from the earth in large quantities, capable of turning a mill. They plow, ſow, and reap here at all ſeaſons; and the huſbandman muſt blame his own indolence, and not the ſoil, if he has not three harveſts. We ſaw, in one place, people buſy cutting down wheat; immediately next to it, others at the plough; and the adjoining field had green corn in the ear; a little further, it was not an inch above the ground.

On the 10th, we continued along the plain on the top of Lamalmon; and encamped at ſome villages called Macara. The ground was every where burnt up; and, though the nights were very cold, we had not obſerved the ſmalleſt dew ſince our firſt aſcending the mountain.

On the 12th we travelled through the plain of Woggora. The country now grows inconceivably populous; vaſt flocks of cattle of all kinds feed on every ſide. having large and beautiful horns, exceedingly wide, and boſſes upon their backs like camels; their colour is moſtly black.

After having ſuffered, with infinite patience and perſeverance, the hardſhips and danger of this long and painful journey, we were gratified, at laſt, with the ſight of Gondar, about ten miles diſtant. The king's palace is diſtinctly ſeen, but none of the other houſes, which are covered by the multitude of trees, growing in the town, ſo that it appears one thick, black wood. Behind it is Azazo, likewiſe covered with trees. On a hill is the large church of Tecla Haimanout, and the river below it makes it diſtinguiſhable; ſtill further on is the great lake Tzana, which terminates our horizon. We paſſed ſeveral plantations of ſugar-canes, which grow here *from the ſeed*. On the 15th reſted on the river Angrab, about half a mile from Gondar. This country is full of large ants, and grodigious ſwarms of rats and mice, which conſume immenſe quantities of grain; to theſe plagues may be added ſtill one, the greateſt of them all, bad government, which ſpeedily deſtroys all the advantages they reap from nature, climate, and ſituation.

We were much ſurpriſed at arriving on the Angrab, that no perſon had come to us from Petros, Janni's brother. We found afterwards, indeed, that he had taken fright upon ſome menacing words from the prieſts, at hearing a Frank was on his way to Gondar, and that he had, ſoon after, ſet out for Ibaba, where Ras Michael was, to receive his directions concerning us. This was the moſt diſagreeable accident could have happened to me. I had not a ſingle perſon to whom I could addreſs myſelf for any thing. My letters were for the king and Ras Michael, and could be of no uſe, as both were abſent; and though I had others for Petros and the Greeks, they, too, were out of town.

Many Mahometans came to the Angrab to meet the caravan. They all knew of my coming, and I ſoon explained my ſituation. I had Janni's letters to Negade Ras Mahomet, the chief of the Moors at Gondar,

Gondar, and principal merchant in Abyſſinia, who was abſent likewiſe with the army. But one of his brethren, a ſagacious, open-hearted man, deſired me not to be diſcouraged; that as I had not put off my Mooriſh dreſs, I ſhould continue it; that a houſe was provided for Mahomet Gibberti, and thoſe that were with him, and that he would put me immediately into poſſeſſion of it, where I might ſtay, free from any intercourſe with the prieſts, till Petros or the Ras ſhould return to Gondar. This advice I embraced with great readineſs, as there was nothing I was ſo much afraid of as an encounter with fanatical prieſts before I had obtained ſome protection from government, or the great people in the country. After having concerted theſe meaſures, I reſigned myſelf to the direction of my Mooriſh friend Haggi Saleh.

The Mooriſh town at Gondar conſiſts of about 3000 houſes, ſome of them ſpacious and good. I was put in poſſeſſion of a very neat one, deſtined for Mahomet Gibberti. Flour, honey, and ſuch-like food, Mahometans and Chriſtians eat promiſcuouſly, and ſo far I was well ſituated. As for fleſh, although there was abundance of it, I could not touch a bit of it, being killed by Mahometans, as that communion would have been looked upon as equal to a renunciation of Chriſtianity.

When Mr. Bruce arrived at Gondar, the king, and Ras Michael, (his Prime Miniſter) were at a conſiderable diſtance from the capital with the army; which had been employed in attempting to ſuppreſs a dangerous rebellion which had broke out in the kingdom. In the mean time the Integhe, or queen (mother to the reigning king) being informed that Mr. Bruce was a phyſician, ſent for him to the palace of Koſcam, the place of her reſidence, where he had the care of ſome of the royal family, who were ill of the ſmall-pox. The attention he ſhewed to his patients, and his ſuperior ſkill in treating that diſorder, attracted the regard of the queen, and her daughter Ozora Eſther, wife to Ras Michael. Mr. Bruce being thus honourably employed for ſome days, till the return of the army to Gondar, where he was introduced to the Ras and the king, which he relates in the following terms:

"On the 9th of March I met Ras Michael at Azazo. He was dreſſed in a coarſe dirty cloth, wrapt about him like a blanket, and another like a table-cloth folded about his head: He was lean, old, and apparently much fatigued; ſat ſtooping upon an excellent mule, that carried him ſpeedily without ſhaking him; he had alſo ſore eyes. As we ſaw the place where he was to light by four croſs lances, and a cloth thrown over them like a temporary tent, upon an eminence, we did not ſpeak to him till he alighted. We alighted at the ſame time he did, and afterwards, with anxiety enough we deputed a Greek prieſt, who was a friend of Michael, to tell him who I was, and that I was come to meet him. The ſoldiers made way, and I came up, took him by the hand and kiſſed it. He looked me broad in the face for a ſecond, repeated the ordinary ſalutation, "How do you do? I hope you are well;" and pointed to a place where I was to ſit down. A thouſand complaints, and a thouſand orders came immediately before him, from a thouſand mouths, and we were nearly ſmothered; but he took no notice of me, nor did he aſk for one of his family. In ſome minutes after came the king, who paſſed at ſome diſtance to the left of him; and Michael was then led out of the ſhelter of his tent to the door, where he was ſupported on foot till the king paſſed by, having firſt pulled off the towel that was upon his head, after which he returned to his ſeat in the tent again. I returned to Koſcam, very little pleaſed with the reception I had met with. All the town was in a hurry and confuſion; 30,000 men were encamped upon the Kahha; and the firſt horrid ſcene Michael exhibited there, was cauſing the eyes of twelve of the chiefs of the rebel Calla, whom he had taken priſoners, to be pulled out, and the unfortunate ſufferers turned out to the fields, to be devoured at night by the hyæna. Two of theſe I took under my care, who both recovered, and from them I learned many particulars of their country and manners.

The next day, which was the 10th, the army marched into the town in triumph, and the Ras at the head of the troops of Tigre. He was bareheaded; over his ſhoulders, and down to his back, hung a pallium, or cloak, of black velvet, with a ſilver fringe. A boy, by his right ſtirrup, held a ſilver wand of about five feet and a half long, much like the ſtaves of our great officers at court. Behind him all the ſoldiers, who had ſlain an enemy and taken the ſpoils from them, had their lances and firelocks ornamented with ſmall ſhreds of ſcarlet cloth, one piece for every man he had ſlain. One thing remarkable in this cavalcade, which I obſerved, was the head-dreſs of the governors of provinces. A large broad fillet was bound upon their forehead, and tied behind their head. In the middle of this was a horn, or a conical piece of ſilver, gilt, about four inches long, much in the ſhape of our common candle extinguiſhers. This is called *kirn*, or horn, and is only worn in reviews or parades after victory. This I apprehend, like all other of their uſages, is taken from the Hebrews, and the ſeveral alluſions made in ſcripture to it ariſe from this practice:—"I ſaid unto fools, Deal not fooliſhly; and to the wicked, Lift not up the horn—"Lift not up your horn on high; ſpeak not with a ſtiff neck—"For promotion cometh," &c. —"But my horn ſhalt thou exalt like the horn of an unicorn."—"And the horn of the righteous ſhall be exalted with honour." And ſo in many other places throughout the Pſalms. [See 1 Sam. ii. 1, 10, 16. Job xvi. 15. Jer. xlviii. 25. Pſm. lxxv. 4.—lxxxix. 17.—xci. 10, &c.

Next to theſe came the king, with a fillet of white muſlin about three inches broad, binding his forehead, tied with a large double knot behind, and hanging down about two feet on his back. About him were the great officers of ſtate, ſuch of the young nobility as were without command; and after theſe, the houſhold troops. Then followed the executioner of the camp, and his attendants; and laſt of all, amidſt the King's and the Ras's baggage, came a man bearing the ſtuffed ſkin of Wooſheka (one of the rebel chiefs) upon a pole, which he hung upon a branch of the tree before the king's palace appropriated for public executions. It was now the 13th of March, and I had heard no word from Ozora Eſther, or the Ras, though removed to a houſe in Gondar. I had gone once every day to ſee the children at Koſcam; at all which times I had been received with the greateſt cordiality and marks of kindneſs by the queen, and orders given for my free admittance upon all occaſions like an officer of her houſhold. In the evening, Mahomet Gibberti came to my houſe, and told me, that, beſides the letter I carried to Ras Michael from Metical Aga his maſter, he had been charged with a particular one, out of the ordinary form, dictated by the Engliſh at Jidda, who, all of them, had agreed to make a point with Metical Aga, devoted to them for his own profit, that his utmoſt exertion of friendſhip and intereſt, ſhould be ſo employed in my recommendation, as to engage the attention of Ras Michael to provide in earneſt for my ſafety and ſatisfaction in every point. This letter I had myſelf read at Jidda; it informed Michael of the power and riches of our nation, and that they were abſolute maſters of the trade on the Red Sea, and ſtrictly connected with the Sherriffe, and in a very particular manner with him, Metical Aga; that any accident happening to me would be an infamy and diſgrace to him, and worſe than death itſelf, becauſe, that knowing Michael's power and relying on his

friendſhip, he had become ſecurity for my ſafety, after I arrived in his hands; that I was a man of conſideration in my own country, ſervant to the king of it, who, though himſelf a Chriſtian, governed his ſubjects Muſſulmen and Pagans, with the ſame impartiality and juſtice as he did Chriſtians. That all my deſire was to examine ſprings and rivers, trees and flowers, and the ſtars in the heavens, from which I drew knowledge very uſeful to preſerve man's health and life: that I was no merchant, and had no dealings whatever in any ſort of mercantile matters; and that I had no need of any man's money, as he had told Mahomet Gibberti to provide for any call I might have in that country, and for which he would anſwer, let the ſum be what it would, as he had the word of my countrymen to repay it, which he conſidered better than the written ſecurity of any other people in the world, &c.

Upon reading this letter, Michael exclaimed, "Metical Aga does not know the ſituation of this country. Safety! where is that to be found? I am obliged to fight for my own life every day. Will Metical call this ſafety! Who knows at this moment, if the king is in ſafety, or how long I ſhall be ſo? All I can do is to keep him with me. If I loſe my own life, and the king's, Metical Aga can never think it was in my power to preſerve that of his ſtranger." It was finally agreed, that the letters the Greeks had received ſhould be read to the king; that the letters I had from Metical Aga to the Ras ſhould be given to Mahomet Gibberti, and that I ſhould be introduced to the King and the Ras immediately after they were ready. On the 14th theſe letters were to be all ready; five in the evening was fixed as the hour, and I came a little before the time, and met Ayto Aylo (principal counſellor to the queen) at the door. He ſqueezed me by the hand, and ſaid, "Refuſe nothing, it can be all altered afterwards; but it is very neceſſary, on account of the prieſts and the populace, you have a place of ſome authority, otherwiſe you will be robbed and murdered the firſt time you go half a mile from home.

We went in and ſaw the old man ſitting upon a ſofa; his white hair was dreſſed in many ſhort curls. He appeared to be thoughtful, but not diſpleaſed; his face was lean, his eyes quick and vivid, but ſeemed to be a little ſore from expoſure to the weather. He ſeemed to be about ſix feet high, though his lameneſs made it difficult to gueſs with accuracy. His air was perfectly free from conſtraint, what the French call *degagee*. In face and perſon he was liker my learned and worthy friend, the Count de Buffon, than any two men I ever ſaw in the world. They muſt have been bad phyſiognomiſts that did not diſcern his capacity and underſtanding by his very countenance. Every look conveyed a ſentiment with it: he ſeemed to have no occaſion for other language, and indeed he ſpoke little. I offered, as uſual, to kiſs the ground before him: and of this he ſeemed to take little notice, ſtretching out his hand and ſhaking mine upon my riſing.

I ſat down with Aylo, three or four of the judges, the queen's chamberlain, and other officers, one of whom whiſpered ſomething in his ear, and went out; which interruption prevented me from ſpeaking as I was prepared to do, or give him my preſent, which a man held behind me. He began gravely, "Yagoube, I think that is your name, hear what I ſay to you, and mark what I recommend to you. You are a man, I am told, who make it your buſineſs to wander in the fields in ſearch after trees and graſs in ſolitary places, and to ſit up all night alone looking at the ſtars of the heavens: Other countries are not like this, though this was never ſo bad as it is now. Theſe wretches here are enemies to ſtrangers; if they ſaw you alone in your own parlour, their firſt thought would be how to murder you; though they knew they were to get nothing by it, they would murder you for mere miſchief. I have thought that ſituation beſt which leaves you at liberty to follow your own deſigns, at the ſame time that it puts your perſon in ſafety; that you will not be troubled with monks about their religious matters, or in danger from theſe raſcals that may ſeek to murder you for money. Therefore the king has appointed you Baalomaal, (one of the gentlemen of the king's bed-chamber,) and to command the Koccob-horſe. Go then to the king, and kiſs the ground upon your appointment. I ſee you have already learned this ceremony of our's; Aylo and Heikel are very proper perſons to go with you. The king expreſſed his ſurpriſe to me laſt night he had not ſeen you; and there too is Tecla Mariam, the king's ſecretary, who came with your appointment from the palace to-day." I then gave him a preſent, which he ſcarce looked at, as a number of people were preſſing in at the door from curioſity or buſineſs.

I went afterwards to the king's palace, and met Aylo and Heikel at the door of the preſence-chamber. Tecla Mariam walked before us to the foot of the throne; after which I advanced and proſtrated myſelf upon the ground. "I have brought you a ſervant," ſays he to the king, "from ſo diſtant a country, that if you ever let him eſcape, we ſhall never be able to follow him, or know where to ſeek him." This was ſaid facetiouſly by an old familiar ſervant; but the king made no reply, as far as we could gueſs, for his mouth was covered, nor did he ſhew any alteration of countenance. Five people were ſtanding on each ſide of the throne, all young men, three on his left. and two on his right. One of theſe, the ſon of Tecla Mariam, (afterwards my great friend) who ſtood uppermoſt on the left-hand, came up, and taking hold of me by the hand, placed me immediately above him; when ſeeing I had no knife in my girdle, he pulled out his own and gave it to me. Upon being placed, I again kiſſed the ground.

The king was in an alcove; the reſt went out of ſight from where the throne was, and ſat down. The uſual queſtions now began about Jeruſalem and the holy places—where my country was? which it was impoſſible to deſcribe, as they knew the ſituation of no country but their own—why I came ſo far?—whether the moon and the ſtars, but eſpecially the moon, was the ſame in my country as in theirs?—and a great many ſuch idle and tireſome queſtions. I had ſeveral times offered to take my preſent from the man who held it, that I might offer it to his Majeſty and go away; but the king always made a ſign to put it off, till, being tired with ſtanding, I leaned againſt the wall. Aylo was faſt aſleep, and Ayto Heikel and the Greeks curſing their maſter in their heart for ſpoiling the good ſupper that Anthule his treaſurer had prepared for us. This, as we afterwards found out, the king very well knew, and reſolved to try our patience to the utmoſt. At laſt, Ayto Aylo ſtole away to bed, and every body elſe after him, except thoſe who had accompanied me, who were ready to die with thirſt, and drop down with wearineſs. It was agreed by thoſe that were out of ſight, to ſend Tecla Marian to whiſper in the king's ear, that I had not been well, which he did, but no notice was taken of it. It was now paſt ten o'clock, and he ſhewed no inclination to go to bed.

Hitherto, while there were ſtrangers in the room, he had ſpoken to us by an officer called Kal Harze, *the voice or word of the king*; but now, when there were nine or ten of us, his menial ſervants, only preſent, he uncovered his face and mouth, and ſpoke himſelf. Sometimes it was about Jeruſalem, ſometimes about horſes, at other times about ſhooting; again about the Indies; how far I could look into the heavens with my teleſcopes: and all theſe were deliberately and circumſtantially repeated, if they were not pointedly anſwered. I was ſcarcely able to ſpeak a word, inwardly mourning the hardneſs of

my lot in this my firſt preferment, and ſincerely praying it might be my laſt promotion in this court. At laſt all the Greeks began to be impatient, and got out of the corner of the room behind the alcove, and ſtood immediately before the throne. The king ſeemed to be aſtoniſhed at ſeeing them, and told them he thought they had all been at home long ago. They ſaid, however, they would not go without me; which the king ſaid could not be, for one of the duties of my employment was to be charged with the door of his bed-chamber that night. At laſt Ayto Heikel, taking courage, came forward to him, pretending a meſſage from the queen, and whiſpered him ſomething in the ear, probably that the Ras would take it ill. He then laughed, ſaid he thought we had ſupped, and diſmiſſed us.

Mr. Bruce relates the following ridiculous cuſtom in the Court of Abyſſinia. "It is the conſtant practice in Abyſſinia to beſet the king's doors and windows within his hearing, and there, from early morning to night, to cry for juſtice as loud as poſſible, in a diſtreſſed and complaining tone, and in all the different languages they are maſters of, in order to their being admitted to have their ſuppoſed grievances heard. In a country ſo ill governed as Abyſſinia is, and ſo perpetually involved in war, it may be eaſily ſuppoſed there is no want of people, who have real injuries and violence to complain of: But if it were not ſo, this is ſo much the conſtant uſage, that when it happens (as in the midſt of the rainy ſeaſon) that few people can approach the capital, or ſtand without in ſuch bad weather, a ſet of vagrants are provided, maintained and paid, whoſe ſole buſineſs it is to cry and lament, as if they had been really very much injured and oppreſſed; and this they tell you for the king's honour, that he may not be lonely by the palace being too quiet. This, of all their abſurd cuſtoms, was the moſt grievous and troubleſome to me; and, from a knowledge that it was ſo, the king, when he was private, often permitted himſelf a piece of rather odd diverſion to be a royal one. There would ſometimes, while I was buſy in my room in the rainy ſeaſon, be four or five hundred people, who all at once would begin, ſome roaring and crying, as if they were in pain, others demanding juſtice, as if they were that moment ſuffering, or if in the inſtant to be put to death; and ſome groaning and ſobbing as if juſt expiring; and this horrid ſymphony was ſo artfully performed that no ear could diſtinguiſh but that it proceeded from real diſtreſs. I was often ſo ſurpriſed as to ſend the ſoldiers at the door to bring in one of them, thinking him come from the country, to examine who had injured him; many a time he was a ſervant of my own, or ſome other equally known; or, if he was a ſtranger, upon aſking him what misfortune had befallen him, he would anſwer very compoſedly, Nothing was the matter with him: that he had been ſleeping all day with the horſes: that hearing from the ſoldiers at the door I was retired to my apartment, he and his companions had come to cry and make a noiſe under my window, to do me *honour* before the people, for fear I ſhould be melancholy, by being too quiet when alone; and therefore hoped that I would order them drink, that they might continue with a little more ſpirit. The violent anger which this did often put me into did not fail to be punctually reported to the king, at which he would laugh heartily; and he himſelf was often hid not far off, for the ſake of being a ſpectator of my heavy diſpleaſure."

During Mr. Bruce's reſidence at Gondor, he made an excurſion, with proper guides, to the Nile, in order to view the great Cataract of Alata, on that river, which he thus deſcribes: "The firſt thing they carried us to was the bridge, which conſiſts of one arch of about twenty-five feet broad, the extremities of which were ſtrongly let into, and reſted on the ſolid rock on both ſides; but fragments of the parapets remained, and the bridge itſelf ſeemed to bear the appearance of frequent repairs, and many attempts to ruin it; otherwiſe, in its conſtruction, it was exceedingly commodious. The Nile here is confined between two rocks, and runs in a deep trough, with great roaring and impetuous velocity. We were told no crocodiles were ever ſeen ſo high, and were obliged to remount the ſtream above half a mile before we came to the Cataract, through trees and buſhes of a beautiful and delightful appearance.

The Cataract itſelf was the moſt magnificent ſight that ever I beheld. The height has been rather exaggerated. The Miſſionaries ſay the fall is about ſixteen ells, or fifty feet. The meaſuring is, indeed, very difficult, but, by the poſition of long ſticks, and poles of different lengths, at different heights of the rock, from the water's edge, I may venture to ſay that it is nearer forty feet than any other meaſure. The river had been conſiderably increaſed by rains, and fell in one ſheet of water, without any interval, above half an Engliſh mile in breadth, with a force and noiſe that was truly terrible, and which ſtunned and made me, for a time, perfectly dizzy. A thick fume, or haze, covered the fall all round, and hung over the courſe of the ſtream both above and below, marking its track, though the water was not ſeen. The river, though ſwelled with rain, preſerved its natural clearneſs, and fell, as far as I could diſcern, into a deep pool, or baſon, in the ſolid rock, which was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the precipice, the ſtream, when it fell, ſeeming part of it to run back with great fury upon the rock, as well as forward in the line of its courſe, raiſing a wave, or violent ebullition, by chaffing againſt each other.

It was a moſt magnificent ſight, that ages, added to the greateſt length of human life, would not deface or eradicate from my memory; it ſtruck me with a kind of ſtupor, and a total oblivion of where I was, and of every other ſublunary concern. It was one of the moſt magnificent, ſtupendous ſights in the creation.

I was awakened from one of the moſt profound reveries that ever I fell into, by my companions, who now put to me a thouſand impertinent queſtions. It was after this I meaſured the fall, and believe, within a few feet, it was the height I have mentioned; but I confeſs I could at no time in my life leſs promiſe upon preciſion; my reflection was ſuſpended, or ſubdued, and while in ſight of the fall I think I was under a temporary alienation of mind; it ſeemed to me as if one element had broke looſe from, and become ſuperior to all laws of ſubordination; that the fountains of the great deep were extraordinarily opened, and the deſtruction of a world was again begun by the agency of water."

A NEW

A NEW

GENEALOGICAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

SOVEREIGNS OF THE WHOLE WORLD.

ASIA.

TURKEY, Selim II. grand ſignior, born in 1761; enthroned April 7, 1789.

TARTARY. The emperor of Ruſſia is ſupreme ſovereign of the weſtern part; and the Chineſe are maſters of the ſouth and eaſt parts.

CHINA. Kien-long, emperor.

INDIA. Ahmed-Abdallah, emperor, or great mogul.

ARABIA is annexed to the Turkiſh empire.

PERSIA. Kerim Khan, ſhah or emperor, crowned in 1763.

JAPAN. Tſinajor, emperor, being the laſt of whom we have any account.

When this monarch appears abroad, he is attended by 5 or 6000 of his guards; and he maintains an army of 20,000 horſe, and 100,000 foot, probably with a view to keep his tributary princes or vaſſals in awe.

AFRICA.

MONEMOTAPA. The ſovereign is ſtyled emperor.

SOFALA is ſubject to a king.

ZANGUEBAR is governed by a king.

BRAVA is under the dominion of a Mahometan ſovereign.

WHIDAH, in Guinea, ſubject to an idolatrous king.

GOLD-COAST is divided into petty ſovereignties, under their reſpective kings.

AGONNA, governed by a king.

GRAIN-COAST, ſubject to a king.

CONGO, in Lower Guinea, has a king.

ANGOLA, is ſubject to a king.

LOANGO is under kingly government.

JAGGAS country. Their ſovereign is ſtyled the Great Jagga.

ETHIOPIA, or NEGROLAND, is divided into petty kingdoms and ſtates.

BURRE, near Sierra Leone, governed by a king.

ZAARA, or the DESERT. Chiefly occupied by illiterate and ſavage Arabs. The country is flat and barren, and the inhabitants Mahometans.

ABYSSINIA. Subject to a deſpotic and powerful emperor: a late ſovereign was named David.

GALLAS. Theſe people are diſtinguiſhed into tribes, each governed by a chief.

ABEX. Is ſubject to a king.

NUBIA. Governed by a deſpotic monarch.

EGYPT. Partly monarchical, being ſubject to the grand ſignior, whoſe viceroy is a pacha; and partly republican, and governed by the Mamlukes and Sangiacs.

ALGIERS. Subject to a dey.

TUNIS. Governed by a bey.

TRIPOLI. Subject to a bey.

MOROCCO. Under the dominion of an emperor.

AMERICA.

SOUTH-AMERICA. Almoſt all its nations are governed by kings; under whom are appointed chiefs or caciques, as viceroys.

UNITED STATES of North America, being thirteen, are a ſovereign and independent republic, of whom John Adams is preſident. They are under the government of Congreſs, compoſed of delegates from each ſtate.

EUROPE.

DENMARK AND NORWAY. CHRISTIAN VII. king of Denmark, born Jan. 29, 1749: hath iſſue by his late queen, Caroline-Matilda of England,

Prince Frederic, born Jan. 27, 1768.

Princeſs Louiſa-Auguſta, born July 7, 1771.

SWEDEN. GUSTAVUS, king of Sweden, born Jan. 21, 1746. Married Oct. 1766, to the Princeſs Sophia, Magdalene of Denmark, born July 3, 1746. Their iſſue,

Prince Auguſtus-Adolphus, born Nov. 2, 1778.

RUSSIA. CATHARINE II. daughter of Chriſtian-Auguſtus, prince of Anhalt Zerbſt, born May 2, 1722; married Sept. 1, 1745, Peter III. grandſon of Peter I. On his being depoſed July 9, 1762, ſhe was proclaimed ſole Empreſs of all the Ruſſias. Their iſſue,

Prince Paul Petrowitz, born Oct. 1, 1754, and a daughter. Paul is married, and has iſſue three children.

GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND. GEORGE III. king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, born June 4, 1738. Succeeded his grandfather king George II. on Oct. 25. 1760. Married Sept. 8, 1761, to the princeſs Charlotte of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, born May 16, 1744; crowned Sept. 22, 1761. His iſſue by the ſaid princeſs are,

1. George, Prince of Wales, born Aug. 12, 1762. Married April 8, 1795, to the princeſs Caroline of Brunſwick.
2. Frederic, Duke of York, Biſhop of Oſnaburgh; born Aug. 16, 1763. Married Sept. 29, 1791, Frederique-Charlotte-Ulrique-Catharine, eldeſt daughter of the king of Pruſſia.
3. William Henry, Duke of Clarence, born Aug. 21, 1765.
4. Princeſs-Royal, Charlotte-Auguſta-Matilda, born Sept. 29, 1766. Married May 18, 1797, to the Prince of Wirtemberg.
5. Edward, born Nov. 2, 1767.
6. Auguſta-Sophia, born Nov. 8, 1768.
7. Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770.
8. Erneſt-Auguſtus, born June 5, 1771.
9. Auguſtus-Frederic, born Jan. 17, 1773.
10. Adolphus-Frederic, born Feb. 24, 1774.
11. Mary, born April 25, 1776.
12. Sophia, born Nov. 3, 1777.
13. Amelia, born Aug. 7, 1783.

THE KING'S BROTHER AND SISTER ARE,

1. Auguſta, Ducheſs of Brunſwick.
2. William-Henry, Duke of Glouceſter, Earl of Connaught, born Nov. 25, 1743; married Sept. 6, 1776, to Maria, Counteſs Dowager of Waldegrave, daughter of Sir Edward Walpole, K. B. by whom he has one ſon and two daughters.

HOLLAND.

HOLLAND. Prince WILLIAM, of Orange-Naſſau, Stadtholder, born March 19, 1748; aſſumed the government, March 8, 1766; married Oct. 4, 1767, to Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, ſiſter to the king of Pruſſia, born Aug. 7, 1751. Their iſſue, William Frederic, born Aug. 2, 1771; married to the ſecond daughter of the king of Pruſſia. William George-Frederic, born Feb. 15, 1774. Frederica-Louiſa-Wilhelmina, born Nov. 28, 1770.

GERMANY. LEOPOLD II. Emperor of Germany, born May 5, 1747; crowned Aug. 9, 1790; married Aug. 5, 1766, to Mary Louiſa, infanta of Spain, born Nov. 24, 1745; and have iſſue, Francis, married Aug. 14, 1790, to Maria-Thereſa, eldeſt daughter of the king of Naples; Ferdinand (ſee TUSCANY) Charles, Alexander, Joſeph, Antony, John, Ren-Joſeph, Louis-Joſeph, Rodolpus; Maria, Maria-Anne, Maria-Clementina, and Maria-Amelia.

The Emperor has living two ſiſters, and one brother, unmarried. Thoſe married are, the Princeſs of Parma, the Queen of the Two Sicilies, the late Queen of France, the wife of the uncle of the elector of Saxony, and Prince Ferdinand, born June 1, 1754.

Archduke of Auſtria, married, 1774, the only daughter and heireſs of the Duke of Modena, by whom he has iſſue two ſons and two daughters.

Adolphus-Frederic IV. Duke of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, born May 5, 1738, brother to the Queen of Great-Britain.

Charles-William-Ferdinand, Duke of Brunſwick-Lunenburg, and late General in the king of Pruſſia's army, born Oct. 9, 1735; married Jan. 16, 1764, to the Princeſs Auguſta of England, born Aug. 12, 1737.

PRUSSIA. FREDERIC-WILLIAM, king of Pruſſia, and elector of Brandenburgh. born Sept. 25, 1744; proclaimed king, Aug. 19, 1786. Hath iſſue, by his firſt conſort, Elizabeth-Ulrica, of Brunſwick-Wolfenbuttle, Charlotte, born May 7, 1767; married to the Duke of York. He was married July 14, 1769, to his ſecond conſort, Frederica-Louiſa, of Heſſe-Darmſtadt. Hath iſſue by her,

Frederic-William, born Aug. 3, 1770. Frederic-Charles-Louis, born Aug. 3, 1773.

Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born Nov. 11, 1774; married Aug. 1, 1791, to the hereditary Prince of Orange.

Frederic-Chriſtian-Auguſtus, born May 1, 1780.

Another Prince, born Dec. 20, 1781; and another in July, 1783.

Queen-Dowager, Elizabeth-Chriſtina of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, aunt to the preſent Duke, and ſiſter of his preſent Pruſſian Majeſty, as well as of the Queen-Dowager of Denmark, born Nov. 8, 1715.

Louiſa-Amelia, of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, born Jan. 29, 1722; married Jan. 6, 1742, to William-Auguſtus-Prince-Royal, who died June 12, 1758. Their iſſue, the preſent King.

Frederica Sophia-Wilhelmina, married to the preſent Prince of Orange.

SWITZERLAND. Every canton is abſolute in its own juriſdiction; but thoſe of Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, are ariſtocratical, or under the ſovereignty of the nobles, with a certain mixture of democracy, where the ſovereignty is lodged in the people, Berne only excepted. Thoſe of Uri, Schweitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Baſil, though it has the appearance of an ariſtocracy, rather inclines to a democracy, or popular government.

SPAIN. CHARLES IV. King of Spain, born Nov. 11, 1748; ſucceeded his father Charles III. in Dec. 1788; married Sept. 4, 1765, to Princeſs Louiſa of Parma, born Dec. 9. 1751, and has had iſſue, ſix children. The ſurviving iſſue are,

Ferdinand-Antony, preſent king of Naples. Antony Paſcal, born Dec. 31, 1755. The other ſurviving iſſue of the late king is, Maria-Louiſa (ſee TUSCANY)

PORTUGAL. MARIA-FRANCES-ISABELLA, Queen of Portugal, born Dec. 17, 1734; married June 6, 1760, to the late king, her uncle, by whom ſhe has iſſue,

John-Maria-Joſeph-Louis, Prince of Braſil, born May 13, 1767; married to Charlotta-Joaquina, daughter of the Prince of Aſturias, born April 25, 1775.

Marianna-Victoria, born Dec. 15, 1768; married to Gabriel-Antony, third ſon to the king of Spain.

Iſſue of king Joſeph. Her preſent majeſty, and two other daughters.

ITALY. Pope PIUS VI. born Dec. 17, 1717; elected pope Feb. 15, 1775.

FERDINAND IV. king of Naples and both Sicilies, born Jan. 11, 1751; aſcended the throne Oct. 4, 1759, on his father's becoming king of Spain; married April 7, 1768, to the Princeſs Mary-Caroline, a ſiſter of the Emperor, born Aug. 13, 1752, by whom he has had iſſue eight children, of whom ſeven are living.

TUSCANY. ARCHDUKE-FERDINAND, ſon of the emperor, born May 6, 1769; married Aug. 14, 1790, Maria-Louiſa, ſecond daughter of the king of Naples.

MODENA. HERCULES RENAUD, born Nov. 22, 1727; married April 16, 1741, to the Princeſs of Maſſa-Catara. Their iſſue, Mary Beatrix, born April 25, 1750; married to the archduke of Auſtria, 1771.

FERDINAND-MARIE-LOUIS, duke of Parma, born Jan. 29, 1751; married to the archduchеſs Maria-Amelia, June 27, 1760. Their iſſue, a Prince and three Princeſſes.

SARDINIA AND SAVOY. VICTOR-AMADEUS-MARIE, born June 26, 1726; married in 1750, the late Maria-Antoinetta-Frederica, ſiſter to the emperor Leopold, by whom he has living iſſue, four daughters: Maria-Joſepha-Louiſa; married in 1771, the Count of Provence, brother to the late king of France: Maria-Theraſa, married in 1773, the Count of Artois, another brother of the late king of France, and has iſſue two ſons and a daughter; the eldeſt, Charles-Emanuel, Prince of Piedmont, born May 14, 1751; married in 1775, Maria-Adelaide, ſiſter of the late king of France.

FRANCE. LOUIS XVI. late king of France and Navarre; born Aug. 23, 1754; married April 19, 1770, to Marie-Antoinetta, the emperor's ſiſter, born Nov. 2, 1755. Their iſſue, a Princeſs, Maria-Thereſa-Charlotta, born Dec. 19, 1778; and the Dauphin, born March 27, 1785.

Note. Royalty was aboliſhed in this kingdom by the National Convention, the king and queen beheaded, and a republican government ſet up.

GENERAL INDEX.

Abburg, 28
Abascia, or Abcassia, 342
Aberdeenshire, 108
Abex, 464
Abo, 62
Abyssinia, 463
——— Natural History of, 464
——— Customs and Manners of the Inhabitants, ibid
Acca, 346
Acham, 382
Aden, 409
Admiralty-Islands, 656
Adrianople, 286
Adventure-Island, 438
Africa, 443
Agoumois, 303
Agra, 389
Ajazzo, 344
Aladulia, ibid.
Alderney, Isle of, 206
Aleppo, 345
Algiers, 453, 455
Altena, 33
Altenburg, 32
Amack, 35
Amadia, 337
Amasia, 344
Amazonia, 549
Amboyna, 420
Ambrym, 594
America, first Discovery of, 471
——— North, 473
——— South, 339
——— United States of, established, 486
Amsterdam, 209
Ancyra, 344
Andrews, St. 109
Anguilla, 527
Anian, 464
Anjou, 307
Annamooka, 604
Antigua, 525
Antioch, 345
Antwerp, 213
Apee, 594
Arabia, 406
Archangel, 86
Arhusen, 28
Armenia, 338
Arracan, 382
Arroe (Danish Island) 38
Artois, 298
Arzerum, 338
Ascension-Isle, 466
Asia (in general) 329
Assens, 38
Assyria, 337
Astrachan, 356, 361
Astronomy, &c. a Guide to, 3
Atooi, 657
Aunois, 303
Aurora-Island, 594
Auvergne, 306
Ava, 382
Avignon, 301
Azores, 470
Azotus, 348

Babelmandel, 465
Baden (Switzerland) 256
Bagdad, 336
Bahama-Islands, 529
Balbec, Ruins of, 334
Bale, 256
Banda, 419
Banka, 440
Barbadoes, 524
Barbary, 452
Barbuda, 527
Barcelona, 263
Bare Island, 439
Batavia, 425
Bath, 132
Bayonne, 302
Beaumaris, 189
Belfast, 196
Bengal, 390
Bergen, 23
Berlin, 220
Bermudas, Isles of, 529
Berne, 256
Berry, 307
Berwick, 136
Bethony, 347
Bethlehem, ibid.
Betlis, 338
Bhering's Island, 441
Bilboa, 264
Bir, 337
Bird-Island, 651
Birmingham, 132
Black-town, 397
Bohemia, 231
Bolabola, 646
Bologna, 279
Bologne, 298
Bombay, 398
Borneo-Island, 420
Bornholm (Danish Island) 39
Bornou, 461
Boston (New England) 488
Botany-Bay, 567
Bourbon, Isle of, 466
Bourbonnois, 306
Bouro, 420
Bow-Island, 651
Brasil, 553
Bredenberg, 32
Breslaw, 222, 232
Brest, 300
Bristol, 128
Brittany, 303
Brussels, 213
Buckingham, 134
Bukharia, 363
Burgundy, 298
Burgos, 264
Burney's-Island, 441
Bursa, 343
Byron's-Island, 611

Cachao, 385
Cadiz, 263
Caen, 303
Caffraria, 460
Cairo, 449
Caisar, 344
Calais, 298
California, 532
Calmar, 62
Cambodia, 387
Cambridge, 138
Camdaras, 382
Canada, 480
Canary Isles, 467
Candia, or Crete, 287
Canoree, 399
Canterbury, 134
Canton, 372
Cape Breton, 528
—— Comorin, 399
—— Francois, 550
Cape de Verd Islands, 467
Capri, or Caprea, 282
Caracatoa, 439
Caramania, 345
Carlscroona, 62
Carniola, 240
Carolina, North and South, 511
Cars, or Kars, 339
Carthagena, (Mediterranean) 264
Cashmire, or Cassimere, 389
Cashna, 461
Castle-Town, 204
Cavalles-Islands, 439
Cayenne, 555
Cazan, 86
Celebes, or Islands of Macassar, 420
Ceram, ibid.
Cerigo, or Cytherea-Island, 287
Ceylon, 432
Chain-Island, 651
Champagne, 298
Cherburg, 303
Cheresoul, 338
Chester, 133
Chili, 545
Chiloe-Island, 552
China, 363
Christiansand, 23
Christianpreis, 30
Christmas-Island, 656
Circassia, 361
Cochin-China, 386
Coco's, or Boscawen's Island, 605
Colchester, 135
Colding, 27
Comoro-Isles, 465
Coningsburg, 229
Constantinople, 286
Copenhagen, 34
Copper-Islands, 357
Corfu, or Corcyra, 288
Corsica, 281
Coventry, 139
Cracow, 245
Croatia, 234
Cuba, Island of, 550
Curassao, 559
Curdestan, 337
Cusco, 542
Cyprus, 288

Dacca, 391
Dalmatia, 234
Damascus, 345
Damietta, 451
Dantzick, 246
Dauphiny, 298
Dead-Sea, 442
Dehli, 339
Delaware, 501
Delos, 287
Denmark, 26
Deptford, 137
Derbent, 363, 404
Deventer, 210
Diarbec, 336
Disappointment, Islands of, 650
Dog-Island, 651
Dominica, 526
Douglas, 205
Dresden, 221
Drontheim, 23
Dublin, 195
Duke of York's Island, 609
Dunkirk, 299

East-Island, 439
Easter-Island, 652
Eckrenford, 30
Edinburgh, 106
Egypt, 445
Elba, 282
Elsineur, 37
England (in general) 116
Ephesus, 343
Erromango-Isle, 595
Ethiopia, 463
Europe, Introductory Description of, 1
Eutin, 32
Exeter, 133

Falklands-Islands, 529
Falster (Danish Island) 38
Fejee-Island, 607
Femeren, 39
Ferrera, 279
Fez, 452
Fezzan, 461
Florence, 277
Florida, East and West, 530
Foix, 301
Fontainbleau, 297
Formosa, 414
Fort St. David, 397
—— St. George, ibid.
Fox-Islands, 357
France (in general) 288
Frankfort (Maine) 222
Fredericksburg, 37
Frederick's Ode, 27
Frederickshall, 23
Frederickstadt, 23, 36
Friendly-Isles, 597
Fuera, or Massa-Fuero, 552
Funen (Danish Island) 38
Furteventura, 469

Galway, 196
Gaza, 348
Geneva, 256
Genoa, 276
Geography, &c. a Guide to, 3
Georgia (Turkey in Asia) 438, 439
——— (North America) 511
Gerisau, 256
Germany (in general) 215
Gezira, 337
Ghent, 213
Gibraltar, 264
Glasgow, 108
Gloucester, 139
Gluckstadt, 32
Goa, 298
Golconda, 397
Gombroon, 404
Gomera, 469
Goree, 467
Gore's-Island, 441
Gottenburg, 62
Gottorp, 29
Granada, 526
Grand Cairo, 449
Grand Canaria, 469
Greenland West, Discovery of, 3
Grenada, or the Grenadines, 264
Grenoble, 298

Grodno, 246
Groningen, 210
Guadalupe, 556
Guam, 413
Guastalla, 278
Guernsey, Isle of, 206
Guiana, 549
Guyenne, 302
Guzerat, 398

HAgue, 210
Hainan, 415
Hamburg, 222
Hamoa-Island, 607
Hamote-Island, 39
Hanover, 222
Hapee, Isles of, 604
Havannah, 550
Havre-de-Grace, 305
Hen and Chickens Island, 439
Hervey-Island, 608
Hispaniola, 550
Holstein, 30
Horn-Island, 438
Hugley, 391
Hull, 130
Hungary, 232

JAkutskoi, 358
Jamaica (in general) 521
Japan, Natural History of, 411
Java, 425
Iceland, 14
Jeddo, 412
Jericho, 347
Jersey, Isle of, 206
Jerusalem, 346
Immaretta, 342
India, 377
Indostan, 387
Joppa, 348
Ireland, 191
Irvan, 339
Ispahan, 403
Ischia, 282
Isle of Man, 203
—— of Wight, 205
Italy (in general) 271
Itzehoe, 34
Juan Fernandez, 552
Jutland, North, 27
——— South, 29

KAbruan, 440
Kalmuck, 362
Kamptschatka, 357
Karakakooa-bay, 663
Katschan, 404
Kentucky, 508
Kergulen's Land, 437
Kiel, 33
King George's Island, 650
Kingston (Jamaica) 523
Kinsale, 196
Kizlaar, 361

LAdrone Isles, 413
Lagoon-Island, 651
Lahor, 389
Laland (Danish Island) 38
La Marche, 307
Labourd, 302
Lancaster, 137
Lanchang, 386
Lancerota, 459
Languedoc, 301
Lapland, Swedish, 47
——— Russian, 36
Laos, 385
Lassa, 356
Lausann, 256
Leeds, 129
Lemden, 32
Leicester, 135
Lesbos, 287
Lessau (Danish Island) 39
Leuwarden, 210
Leyden, 210
Lima, 542
Limerick, 196
Limosin, 306
Lincoln, 135
Linnois, 306
Lisbon, 268
Lisle, 299
Liverpool, 131
Loheia, 409
London, 125
Lookers-on-Island, 439
Loretto, 279
Louvain, 213
Lubeck, 31
Lucca, 278
Lydia, 344
Lyons, 299

MAcassar, 422
Madagascar, 465
Madeira Islands, 470
Madras, 397
Madrid, 263
Madura, 396
Magnetical-Island, 439
Maine, 305
Majorca, 265
Malabar, 399
Malacca, 384
Malaga, 264
Maldivia-Islands, 435
Mallicolo, 593
Malta, 282
Manchester, 130
Mangeea, Isle of, 611
Manilla, 416
Mans, 305
Mantua, 278
Marat, 344
Margarita, 551
Marigalante, 556
Marquesas-Islands, 648
Marseilles, 300
Martaban, 383
Martinico, 555
Maryland, 503
Mattaram, 427
Mauritius, 466
May, or Mayo, 467
Meaco, 412
Mecca, 335, 408
Medina, 408
Meldrop, 32
Mercury-Islands, 439
Mesopotamia, 336
Messina, 281
Mexico, New, 532
Middleburg, 210
Middleburg, 597
Middlefar, 38
Milan, 276
Mindanao, 417
Mingrelia, 341
Minorca, 265
Mocha, 409
Modena, 278
Moluccas, or Spice Islands, 419
Monoemugi, 463
Monomotapa, ibid.
Mont St. Michael, 303
Montaubon, 302
Montpelier, 301
Montserrat (West Indies) 527
Montreal, 483
Moon (Danish Island) 38
Morocco, 452
——— City of, 455
Moscow, 82
Mosul, 337
Moulins, 306
Moultan, 389
Mowee, 663
Mull, Isle, 98
Muscovy, 70

NAcksivan, 339
Nanking, 373
Naples, 279
Nascow, 39
Natolia, or Asia Minor, 343
Navarre (France) 301
Negapatan, 396
Negroland, 457
Negropont, 286
Netherlands (Dutch) 206
———— (Austrian) 211
———— History of, 214
Nevis, 526
New Britain, South, 478, 655
—— Caledonia, 590
—— England, 486
—— Guinea, 654
—— Hanover, 656
—— Hebrides, 592
—— Holland, 565
—— Ireland, 656
—— Jersey, 494
—— York, 492
New Zealand, 583
Newcastle, 138
Newfoundland, 528
Newport, 205
Nice, or Nichor, 343
Nicobar-Islands, 439
Nimeguen, 210
Nisbin, 337
Nivernois, 305
Norfolk-Island, 578, 592
Norkoping, 62
Normandy, 303
Northampton, 134
Northstrand (Danish Island) 39
Norway, 17
Norwich, 134
Nottingham, 132
Nova Scotia, 484
Nova Zembla, 89
Novogorod, Veliki, 85
Nyberg, 38

ODensee, 38
O-Heteroa-Island, 610
Oldenburg, 32
Oldeslo, ibid.
Olmutz, 232
Oporto, 268
Oran, 456
Orkney Islands, 98
Orlenois, 305
Orixa, 398
Orpha, 337
Osacco, 412
Osnaburg-Island, 651
Otaha, 647
Otaheite-Island, Discovery of and Description, 617
Otahootaia-Island, 615
Owhyhee, 666
Oxford, 138

PAisley, 109
Palestine, 346
Palliser's-Island, 650
Palma, 469
Palmerston's Island, 609
Palos, or Pelew-Islands, 677
Palmyra, Ruins of, 333
Paraguay, 548
Paris, 294
Parma, 278
Paros, 287
Patagonia, 549
Paternoster-Island, 438
Patmos, 287
Peele, 204
Pekin, 371
Pelew-Islands, 677
Perpignan, 301
Persia, 399
Peru, 541
Pensylvania, 498
Petersburg, 79
Philadelphia, 344
Philippine Isles, 416
Pilau, 229
Pines, Isle of, 592
Pitcairn-Island, 651
Placentia, 278
Ploen, 32
Plymouth, 139
Poitiers, 303
Poitou, ibid.
Poland, 242
Pondicherry, 397
Port Jackson, 569
Portland-Island, 439
Port Royal, 523
Porto Rico, 551
Portsmouth, 137
Portugal, 267
Prague, 232
Primeburg, 32
Prince Edward's Island, 438
Provence, 298
Prussia, Kingdom of, 229
Pulo-Bally, 439
———— Gag, ibid.
—— Sapata, 441

QUebec, 483
Queen Charlotte's Islands, 611, 651
Quito, 542
Ramsey, 205
Rennes, 303
Rensburg, 34
Resched, 404
Resolution-Island, 438
Rheims, 299
Rhodes, 287
Riga, 85
Ripen, 27
Rochefort, 300
Rochelle, ibid.
Rom, 39
Rome, 278
Roschild, 37
Rosetta, 451
Rotterdam, 210, 602
Rouen, 303
Rousillon, 301
Russia, 70

SAint Christophers, 525
—— Domingo, 550
——— Eustatia, 559
——— Helena, 466
——— Jago (Cape de Verd Island) 467
——— —— di Chili, 546
——— —— di Cuba, 550
——— John's, North America, 529
——— Lucia, 556
——— Malo, 303
——— Marino, 278
——— Matthew, 467
——— Thomas, 559
——— Vincent, North America, 526
Saintonge, 303
Salamanca, 263
Salidabo, 440
Salisbury, 132
Sallee, 456
Samoieda, 360
Samos, 287
Samsoe, 39
Sandwich Islands, 656
——— Isle, 595
Sangir, 440
Santa-Cruz (Africa) 468
Santorine, 287
Sardinia, 281
Sardis, 344
Sark, 206
Satalia, 345
Savage-Island, 609
Scanderoon, 346
Schiras, 405
Schoutens-Island, 439
Schwenborg, 38
Scilly, Isles of, 206
Scio, 287
Sclavonia, 234
Scotland, 101
Scyro, 287
Selang, 430
Seville, 263
Shetland, Isles of, 98
Shrewsbury, 138
Siam, 384
Siberia, 362
Sicily, 281
Sidon, 346
Sierra Leone, 458
—— British Establishment there, 459
Sisters Island, 439
Skie, Isle of, 98
Sleswick, 29
Smyrna, 343
Society Isles, 640
Sooloo-Island, 440
Sora, 38
Sow-tcheou, 373
Southampton, 136
South Wales, New, 565
Spain, 258
Spitzbergen, or East Greenland, 8
Stalimene, 286
Stirling, 110
Stockholm, 60
Suez, 409, 451
Sulpher-Island, 441
Sumatra, 428
Sunda-Island, 399
—— Islands, 422
Surat, 398
Surinam, 557
Sweden, 53
Switzerland, 253

Sylt, 39
Syria, 345

TAngier, 456
Tanna, Isle of, 595
Tartary, Eastern, 353
——— Western, 361
Tatta, 389
Teflis, 340
Telenga, 398
Tenedos, 287
Teneriffe, 468
Terki, 361
Ternate, 419
Terra Firma, 539
Tetuan, 456
Thessally, 285
Thibet, 361
Thorn, 246
Thoulouse, 301
Three Kings Island, 439
Thumb-Cap-Island, 651
Thyatira, 344
Tierra del Espiritu Santo, 593
Tilset, 229
Tobago, 556
Tocat, 344
Toledo, 263
Tomoguy, 439
Tongataboo, 601
Tonquin, 385
Toobouai Island, 651
Toulon, 300
Touraine, 307
Transylvania, 234
Trapezonde, 344
Travemund, 32
Travendal, ibid.
Trinidad, 551
Tripoli (Turkey in Asia) 346
Tripoli (in Africa) 453
Tubai, 647
Tunis, 453, 455
Turcomania, 338
Turin, 275
Turkey in Asia, 331
——— Europe, 284
Turks, their Customs, Manners, &c. 332
Tuscany, 277
Tyre, 346

ULietea Isle, 644
Upsal, 61
Usbec Tartars, 362
Utrecht, 210

VAlenciennes, 299
Valentia, 263
Van Dieman's Land, 581
Van Lake, 339
Venice, 276
Vermont, 514
Versailles, 296
Vienna, 220
Virginia, 504
Visipour, 398

WAghill, 439
Wales, 188
Warsaw, 245
Warwick, 134
Washington City, 507
Waterford, 196
Wateeo Isle, 612
West Indies, description, 520
Whitsunday-Isle, 594
Whitehaven, 136
White Town, 397
Windsor, 133
Wisby, 62
Wologda, 85
Woolwich, 136
Worcester, 134
Wyburg, 28

YOrkshire, 129
Yvica, 265

ZAra, 456
Zauguebar, 463
Zante, 288
Zealand, 34
Zibin, 337
Zoestra, 465
Zulpha, 339
Zurich, 256

DIRECTIONS FOR PLACING THE PLATES, &c.

Frontispiece to face the ..... Title Page
Map of the World to face Page xiii of Introduction
Map of Europe to face ..... Page 1
View of Stockholm 60
Map of the Northern States of Europe 70
Map of Scotland 101
View of Edinburgh 106
Map of England and Wales 116
View of London 125
Map of Ireland 191
View of Dublin 195
Map of the Netherlands 206
View of the Admiralty Office at Amsterdam 209
Map of Germany 215
View of Madrid 263
View of Lisbon ..... Page 268
Map of Italy 271
View of Florence 277
View of Rome 278
View of Scio, in the Archipelago 287
Map of France 288
View of Paris 294
Map of Asia 329
View of the Entrance into Pekin 371
Map of Africa 443
Map of North America 478
Map of the West Indies 520
Map of South America 539
Capt. Cook's Escape from Erromango 595
The Death of Captain Cook 670

Sowler and Russell, Printers, Manchester.

BRITISH MUSEUM 15 MAR 74